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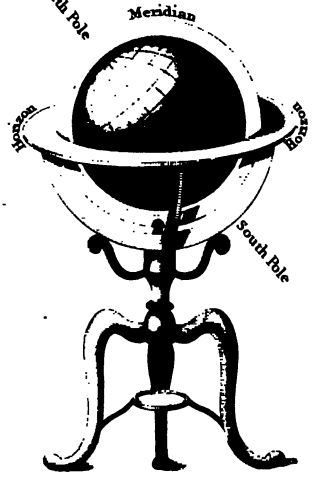

ARMILLARY SPHERE

J. Shury, &c.

A

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL, AND COMMERCIAL GRAMMAR,

In Miniature:

EXHIBITING

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE WORLD;

AND CONTAINING

I. An Account of the Planetary System.
II. A general View of the Earth, considered as a Planet; with Geographical Definitions and Problems.
III. A History of the Progress of Geographical Science; a Description of the Varieties of the Human Race; and a Sketch of the various Religions.
IV. The grand Divisions of the Globe into Land and Water, Continents and Islands.
V. The Situation and Extent of Empires, Kingdoms, States, and Colonies.
VI. Their Climates, Air, Soil, Animal, Vegetable, and Mineral Productions, Natural Curiosities, Seas, Rivers, and Lakes.
VII. Observations on the Changes that have been remarked upon the Face of Nature, since the most early Period.
VIII. The History and Origin of Nations, their Forms of Government, Religion, Laws, Revenues, Taxes, Naval and Military Strength
IX. The Genius, Manners, Customs, and Habits of the People.
X. Their Languages, Learning, Arts, Sciences, Manufactures, and Commerce.
XI. The chief Cities, Structures, Antiquities, and artificial Curiosities.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED,

I. A GEOGRAPHICAL INDEX, with the Names of Places alphabetically arranged, and their Latitudes and Longitudes.
II. A TABLE OF COINS, and their Value in ENGLISH MONEY.
III. A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE OF REMARKABLE EVENTS, from the Creation to the Present Time.
IV. AN OBITUARY OF EMINENT AND ILLUSTRIOUS PERSONS, of every Age and Nation.

BY WILLIAM GUTHRIE, ESQ.

THE ASTRONOMICAL PART BY JAMES FERGUSON, F.R.S

A NEW EDITION,

REVISED, GREATLY ENLARGED, AND BROUGHT DOWN TO THE END OF 1812,

BY R. A. DAVENPORT.

LONDON:

PRINTED FOR THOMAS TEGG, 73, CHEAPSIDE;

AND

R. GRIFFIN AND CO., GLASGOW.

1843.

LONDON:
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ADVERTISEMENT.

In the course of the many years which have elapsed since an edition of this work appeared, numerous important political and territorial changes have taken place, and much progress has been made in geographical science; new kingdoms and republics have been formed, and various regions of the globe have been more carefully explored. These circumstances have rendered Guthrie's Grammar almost obsolete. The Publisher has therefore been led to imagine, that the public would receive favourably a reprint of that work, corrected, enlarged, and brought down to the present time—convenient in size, not inelegant in appearance, and so moderate in price as to be obtainable by almost all classes of readers.

However toilsome and useful it may be, the task of compiling, re-arranging, and correcting, is a thankless one; he who undertakes it is generally looked upon as a humble drudge, who deserves little or no praise, and even may think himself fortunate not to meet with blame. The Editor of this edition of Guthrie's Grammar has endeavoured to merit at least exemption from censure. He has largely availed himself of the labours of the best modern geographers—Malte-Brun, Balbi, Ritter, Larenaudiere, Huot, and many others—and of the narratives of recent voyagers and travellers. It might seem like making a parade of research, were he to specify how many works have been consulted; and it would be wearying the reader's patience to enumerate the multifarious necessary alterations which the original has undergone, and the extensive additions which it has received. It will be enough to say, that a very large portion of it is entirely new.

The diminutive size of the Miniature Guthrie may perhaps suggest the idea that it is an abridgment of the octavo edition. This, however, is not the case, it being, in fact, an expansion of it: the octavo contains about 900 pages; this edition, if it were printed in the same manner as that, would extend to between 1200 and 1300 pages.

To assert that his work, especially when it is voluminous, is free from errors, would be presumption *in any writer. The Editor*, however, indulges a hope, that *those into which he may, perhaps, have fallen*, are neither numerous, nor of a

nature to detract materially from the utility of the volume. He must remark that a statement which may appear to be faulty from want of care, is not a so in reality: there are many points upon which statistical and geographical au are far from being in unison; and travellers often differ widely in their de tions of the same countries—the places and customs which are applauded by observer are condemned by another. In such cases an editor must choose bet conflicting opinions; and, though his judgment may be impeached, he mu acquitted of negligence.

London, 4th March, 1843.

North Pole
South Pole
Equator
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Capricorn
Antarctic Circle
Cabul
Thibet
China
Bay of Bengal
Ceylon
Philippine Islands
Sumatra
Borneo
Java
New Holland
New South Wales
Van Diemens Land
Kerguelens Land
Sandwich Land
Madagascar
Tobolsk
Tartaria
Delhi
Calcutta
Ormus
Mecca
Azof
Sea of Okhotsk
Kamtschatka
Japan Isles
Cape of Good Hope
Ladrone Is.
Philippine Islands
Magindanao
Celebes
Papua
Amboyna
Hindostan
Persia
Desert of Cobi
Nankin
Canton
Formosa
Tartary
Sea of Japan
China Sea
Sunda Is.
Bay of Bengal
Andaman Is.
Maldive Is.
Socotra
Gilolo
Ternate
Timor
Amsterdam
Sharks Bay
Sponders Is.
Trewan
Chatham
Marion Is.
Crozet Is.
S. Pauls
Cape Horn
Falkland Is.
Tristan d'Acunha
Gough Is.
Bouvet Is.
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Van Diemens Land
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Hudson's Bay
Newfoundland
Labrador
Terra Firma
Mexico
Peru
Brazil
Chile
Patagonia
Tobolsk
Tartaria
Persia
Arabia
Africa
Madagascar
Cape of Good Hope
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J. Bury sc

INTRODUCTION.

PART I.

OF ASTRONOMICAL GEOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

FIGURE AND MOTION OF THE EARTH, THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE, THE PLANETS, COMETS, AND FIXED STARS.

nce of Geography, in the more extenification of the word, is so closely conith that of Astronomy, that it will be r to begin this work with a summary he system of the world, and a brief of the order and revolutions of the bodies.

rth was long considered to be an exten, of unknown thickness, beneath which abodes of the spirits of the dead—the f Elysium and Tartarus. The heavens, the sun, moon, and stars appeared to ly from east to west, were conceived to great distance from it, and to be only for its use and ornament. More attenrvation, however, soon showed that the a of a globular figure. Thus, when a iling, the tops of the masts first become a distance; the setting sun may be r seen from the top of a hill, when it o those below to have sunk beneath the for the same reason, aeronauts who late in the day, have seen the sun ; and the shadow of the earth in a lunar s of a circular figure. But it is needsist on these proofs, since the frequent of different navigators round the world, time of Magalhaens, or Magellan, whose circumnavigated the globe between the 9 and 1522, to that of the repeated f captain Cook, have fully demonstrated orm of the earth is globular.

herical figure of the earth being ads motion was rendered much more prohe very nature of its form; and, besides, verable argument for that motion was om considering, that, if the earth did round the sun, not only the sun, but nets and stars, must *move round the ow, as astronomers, by calculations n the principles of geometry, can* ascertain, very nearly, the distances of the heavenly bodies from the earth and from each other, it appears that, if we should conceive these bodies to move round the earth, we must suppose them endowed with a motion or velocity so immense as to exceed all conception, whereas all the appearances in nature may be better explained by imagining the earth to move round the sun in the space of a year, and to turn on its own axis once in twenty-four hours.

In the course of twenty-four hours, therefore, the earth moves from west to east. The inhabitants on the surface of it, like men on the deck of a ship, who are insensible of their own motion, and think that the banks move from them in a contrary direction, will, however, conceive that the sun and stars move from east to west in the same time of twenty-four hours in which they, along with the earth, are moving from west to east. When we have once gained a clear conception of this diurnal motion of the earth, we shall easily be enabled to form an idea of its annual motion round the sun; for, as that luminary seems to have a diurnal motion round our earth, which is really occasioned by the daily motion of the earth round its own axis, so, in the course of a year, he seems to have an annual motion in the heavens, and to rise and set in different points of them, although these appearances are caused by the annual motion of the earth in its orbit or path round the sun, which orbit it completes in a year. Now, as we owe to the diurnal motion the difference of day and night, so to the annual we are indebted for the difference in the length of the days and nights, and in the seasons of the year.

DIFFERENT SYSTEMS OF THE UNIVERSE.—Thales, the Milesian, who, about 600 years before *Christ*, first taught astronomy in Greece, had made a sufficient progress in this science to calculate eclipses, or the interpositions of the

moon between the earth and the sun, or of the earth between the sun and the moon. Pythagoras, a native of Samos, flourished about fifty years after Thales, and was equally well acquainted with the motions of the heavenly bodies. He conceived an idea, which there is reason to believe had never been suggested before, namely, that the earth itself is in motion, and that the sun is at rest. He found that it was impossible, in any other way, to explain consistently the heavenly motions. His system, however, was so opposite to all the prejudices of sense and opinion, that it never was widely diffused in the ancient world. The philosophers of antiquity, despairing of being able to overcome ignorance by reason, endeavoured to adapt one to the other, and in some measure to reconcile them. Ptolemy, an Egyptian philosopher, who flourished 138 years after the birth of Christ, supposed that the earth was fixed immovably in the centre of the universe, and that the seven planets, the moon being considered as one of the primaries, were placed near to it. Above them he placed the firmament of fixed stars, then the crystaline orbs, then the *primum mobile*, and, last of all, the *cælum empyræum*, or heaven of heavens. All these vast orbs he imagined to move round the earth once in twenty-four hours, and also to perform other revolutions round it, in stated and periodical times. To account for these motions, he was obliged to conceive a number of circles, called eccentrics and epicycles, crossing and interfering with each other. This system was universally maintained by the peripatetic philosophers, who formed the most considerable sect in Europe, from the time of Ptolemy to the revival of learning in the sixteenth century.

At length Copernicus, a native of Poland, a bold and original genius, adopted the Pythagorean or true system of the universe, and published it in the year 1543. This doctrine had remained so long in obscurity, that the restorer of it was considered as the inventor; and the system obtained the name of the Copernican Philosophy. But Europe was still immersed in ignorance, and Copernicus had many opponents. Tycho Brahe, in particular, a noble Dane, sensible of the defects of the Ptolemaic system, but unwilling to acknowledge the motion of the earth, endeavoured, about the year 1586, to establish a new system, which was still more perplexed than that of Ptolemy. It allows a monthly motion to the moon round the earth, as the centre of its orbit, and makes the sun to be the centre of the orbits of Mercury, Venus, Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn. The sun, however, with all the planets, is supposed to be whirled round the earth in a year, and even once in twenty-four hours. This system, notwithstanding its palpable absurdity, met with many advocates. Longomontanus, and others, so far refined upon it, as to admit the diurnal motion of the earth, though they insisted that it had no annual motion.

After a darkness of many ages, the first dawn *of learning and taste began about this time to* appear in Europe. Astronomy began to be cultivated by learned men, in different countries. About the year 1610, Galileo, a Florentine, introduced the use of telescopes, which afforded new arguments in support of the motion of the earth, and confirmed the old ones. The science had, indeed, been nearly stifled in its infancy, by the fury and bigotry of the clergy, and Galileo was obliged to renounce the Copernican system as a damnable heresy. The happy reformation of religion, however, placed a great part of Europe beyond the reach of the papal thunder. It taught mankind that the Scriptures were not given for explaining systems of natural philosophy, but for a much nobler purpose—to render us just, virtuous, and humane; that, instead of opposing the word of God, which, in speaking of natural things, suits itself to the prejudices of weak mortals, we employ our faculties in a manner highly agreeable to our Creator, in tracing the nature of his works, which, the more they are considered, the more they afford us reason to admire his glorious attributes of power, wisdom, and goodness. From this time, therefore, noble discoveries were made in all the branches of astronomy. Not only the motions of the heavenly bodies were clearly explained, but the general law of nature, according to which they moved, was discovered and illustrated by the immortal Newton. By this law of Gravity, or Attraction, any body falls to the ground, when disengaged from that which supported it. It has been demonstrated, that this law, which keeps the sea in its channel, and the various bodies which cover the surface of this earth from flying off into the air, operates throughout the universe, retains the planets in their orbits, and preserves the whole fabric of nature from confusion and disorder.

THE COPERNICAN SYSTEM.—In the solar system of Copernicus, as confirmed and demonstrated from geometrical principles, by Sir Isaac Newton, the sun is placed in the centre, and round him revolve the seven planets, the names of which are, beginning with the nearest to the sun, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the Georgium Sidus, by foreign astronomers called Uranus. The last was discovered by Dr. Herschel, with his telescope of great size and power, 40 feet in length, and 4½ in diameter, in the year 1781. Though it was not till then known as a planet, there are many reasons to suppose that it had been seen before, but had been considered as a fixed star. From the steadiness of its light, from the augmentation of its diameter by high magnifying powers, and from the change which he had observed in its situation, Dr. Herschel first concluded that it was a comet; but in a little time, he, with others, determined that it was a planet, from its vicinity to the ecliptic, the direction of its motion, and its being stationary at the time and in the circumstances which correspond with similar appearances in other planets. When the moon is absent, it may be seen by the naked eye; and the discovery of six satellites attending it con-

fers upon it a dignity, and raises it to a conspicuous situation among the great bodies of our solar system.

It may here be observed, that another planet was discovered on the 1st of January, 1801, by Piazzi of Palermo, who called it Ferdinandia, in honour of his Sicilian majesty. It has its orbit between those of Mars and Jupiter. According to the latest observations, its period is 4 years 222 days. Its distance from the sun is to that of the earth as 267 to 100, consequently above 250 millions of miles. It is not visible to the naked eye, and is so small, that glasses of a very high magnifying power will not show it with a distinctly defined diameter: Dr. Herschel, however, estimated its diameter at 160 English miles.

Another planet has been added to the number previously known, by Dr. Olbers, of Hamburgh: it is likewise situated between Mars and Jupiter. It has been named Pallas. Its distance from the sun is to that of the earth as 280 to 100, or nearly 270 millions of miles. It is extremely small, its diameter being calculated at only 116 miles. Two other planets have been discovered, styled Juno and Vesta; but they are so small, that they may rather be called asteroids than stars. It has been supposed, and the supposition is far from improbable, that these small planets are fragments of a larger one, which has been shattered by some unknown cause.

The magnitudes, annual periods, and mean distances from the sun, of the several planets, are given in the Table subjoined. Their relative distances may likewise be thus stated in a manner more compendious and easy to be remembered. If the distance of the earth from the sun be supposed to be divided into ten parts, the distance of Mercury will be four such parts, that of Venus seven, that of Mars fifteen, that of Jupiter fifty-two, that of Saturn ninety-five, and that of the Georgium Sidus one hundred and ninety.

Beside these seven planets, there are eighteen which move round four of these in the same manner as the former do round the sun. Of these our earth has one, called the moon; Jupiter has four, which were discovered by Galileo, and Simon Marius, a German astronomer; Saturn has seven, of which Cassini discovered four, Huygens one, and Herschel two; and the Georgium Sidus, as we before observed, has six. They are called moons, from their resemblance to our moon; and sometimes secondary planets, because they are attendants of the primary orbs. Saturn has also the singular appendage of several rings, which are suspended at a considerable distance above the planet.

The orbits described by the planets are not exact circles, but ellipses or ovals; hence, the same planet is not always at the same distance from the sun; and the distance which is exactly between the greatest and least distance, is called the mean distance.

In the following Table, the inclinations of the axes of the planets to their orbits are given; and the meaning of this term it may be necessary to explain. We have already said that the annual motion of the earth occasions the diversity of seasons; but this would not happen were the axis of the earth exactly parallel to, or in a line with the axis of its orbit, because then the same parts of the earth would be turned toward the sun in every diurnal revolution; which would deprive mankind of the grateful vicissitudes of the seasons, arising from the difference in length of the days and nights, produced by this inclination of the axis. The axes of several others of the planets are in like manner inclined to the planes of their orbits, and the angle of their inclination is given in the following Table.

A TABLE OF THE DIAMETERS, PERIODS, &c., OF THE SEVERAL PLANETS IN THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Names of the Planets.	Diameters in English miles.	Mean distances from the sun, as determined from observations of the transit of Venus in 1761.	Annual period round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			Y. D. H.	D. H. M.			° ′ ″
Sun	890,000			25 14 0		3,318	8 0 0
Mercury	3,245	36,841,468	0 87 23	unkn.	109,699	unkn.	unkn.
Venus	7,743	68,891,496	0 224 17	0 23 22	80,295	1,043	15 0 0
Earth	7,942	95,173,000	1 0 0	0 23 56	68,243	1,042	23 29 0
Moon	2,162	ditto	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2 10 0
Mars	4,220	145,014,148	1 321 23	1 0 40	55,287	556	0 0 0
Jupiter	89,800	494,990,976	11 315 14	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0 0
Saturn	79,600	907,956,130	29 174 2	0 10 16	22,101	22,400	28 0 0
Georgium Sidus	30,900	1,815,912,260	83 150 18	unkn.	15,000	unkn.	unkn.

COMETS.—Beside the primary and secondary planets already enumerated, there are other bodies which revolve round the sun. These are called *Comets, and appear occasionally in every* part of the heavens. Descending from the distant parts of the system, with wonderful rapidity, they surprise us with the singular appearance of a luminous train, or tail, which accompanies them,

become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a short stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear. Though some of the ancients had more just notions of them, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the atmosphere, (like those we often see in it,) and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phenomena with precision. Hence, this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The prevailing doctrine is, that they are solid compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in proportional times, by radii drawn to the common centre. They move about the sun in very eccentric ellipses, and are of much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify or dissipate any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest to the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red-hot iron, and that, being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only 575. It is doubted, however, by some persons, and on no slight grounds, whether comets have really the density and heat which are usually attributed to them. Comets are far more numerous than the planets which move in the vicinity of the sun. From the reports of historians, as well as from modern observations, it has been ascertained that more than 450 have been already seen; but those whose orbits are settled with sufficient accuracy to ascertain their identity when they may reappear, are not more than sixty. The orbits of most of these are inclined to the plane of the ecliptic in large angles, and the greater number of them approach nearer to the sun than to the earth. Their motions in the heavens are not all in the order of the signs, or direct, like those of the planets; but the number whose motion is retrograde is nearly equal to that of those whose motion is direct. Till lately, all which have been observed have been supposed to move through the ethereal regions and the orbits of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions; but recent observations lead to a belief that a slight retardation takes place. Of all the comets, the periods of only three were till recently known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and, of these, that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable. This comet, at its greatest distance, is about 11,200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the centre of the sun is about 490,000 miles, being less than one third part of the sun's semi-diameter from his surface. In that part of its orbit which is nearest to the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently *40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out* into empty space, naturally suggests to our imagination the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and go round the sun. In 1818 and 1826, two singular comets were discovered, which bear the name of Encke and Biela, their discoverers: their periods are remarkably short, that of Encke's comet being only twelve hundred days, and that of Biela's, six years and three quarters.

A comet, which excited extraordinary and even anxious attention, was discerned by M. de Flauguergues, a French astronomer, in March, 1811; and it was seen in England in the summer and autumn. On the 11th of July it was in its ascending node, at a distance of 138 millions of miles from the sun. The more nearly it approached the fountain of light and heat, the more its luminosity, magnitude, and length of tail, increased. It was for some time observed near the Ursa Major. On the 22nd of October it was at an equal distance from the earth and the sun. From that day to the 19th of November it made such progress as removed it 98 millions of miles and a half farther from the earth. Its diameter could not be accurately measured, from the density of the surrounding atmosphere; but it was supposed to be much larger than the moon. The length of its tail, at one time, was computed at 45 millions of miles. In the year 1825 a comet appeared, not more remote from the sun, at one time, than twice the distance of the earth. It was scarcely noticed by the inhabitants of our world; and it is not improper to add, that astronomers candidly confess their ignorance of the real nature and use of comets in the system.

THE FIXED STARS.—Having thus briefly surveyed the solar system, which, though great in itself, is small in comparison with the immensity of the universe, we proceed to the contemplation of those other vast bodies called the Fixed Stars. These are distinguished by the naked eye from the planets, by being less bright and luminous, and by continually exhibiting that appearance which we call the twinkling of the stars. This has been supposed to arise from their being so small, that the interposition of the least body, of which there are many constantly floating in the air, deprives us of the sight of them: when the interposed body changes its place, we again see the star, and this succession, being perpetual, occasions the twinkling. This explanation, however, is by no means satisfactory. But a more remarkable property of the fixed stars, is their never changing their situation with regard to each other, as the planets, from what we have already said, must evidently be always changing theirs.

The first observers of the heavens, in the early ages of the world, divided the stars into different assemblages or constellations, each of which they supposed to represent the image of some animal or other terrestrial object. These constellations have, in general, preserved the names which were given to them by the ancients, by whom twenty-one northern, and twelve southern

were reckoned: but the moderns have increased the number of the northern to thirty-six, and that of the southern to thirty-two. Beside these, there are the twelve signs, or Constellations of the Zodiac, as it is called from the Greek word signifying an animal, because almost all these signs represent some animal.

As to the number of the fixed stars, though, in a clear winter's night without moonshine, they seem to be innumerable, yet, when the whole firmament is divided into constellations, not more than a thousand can at any time be seen with the naked eye. Since the invention of telescopes, indeed, the number of the fixed stars may be considered as immense, because, the greater perfection we arrive at in our glasses, the more stars there always appear to us. Mr. Flamsteed has given us a catalogue of about 3000 stars. These are called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of the telescope. The late Dr. Herschel, to whose ingenuity and assiduity the astronomical world is so much indebted, has shown what magnificent discoveries may be made by improvements in the instruments of observation. "In passing rapidly over the heavens with his new telescope," says M. de Lalande, "the universe increased under his eye; 44,000 stars, seen in the space of a few degrees, seemed to indicate that there were 75 millions in the heavens." But what are all these when compared to those which fill the whole expanse—the boundless fields of ether? Indeed, the immensity of the universe must contain such numbers as would exceed the utmost stretch of the human imagination; for who can say how far the universe extends, or point out those limits where the Creator "stayed his rapid wheels," or where he "fixed the golden compasses?"

The immense distance of the fixed stars from our earth, and from each other, is, of all considerations, the most proper for raising our ideas of the works of God; for, notwithstanding the great extent of the earth's orbit or path (which is at least 190 millions of miles in diameter) round the sun, the distance of a fixed star is not sensibly affected by it; so that the star does not appear to be nearer to us when the earth is in that part of its orbit nearest to the star, than it seemed to be when the earth was at the most distant part of it, or 190 millions of miles farther removed from the same star. The star nearest to us, and consequently the largest in appearance, is the dog-star, or Sirius. Modern discoveries make it probable, that each fixed star is a sun, having planets and comets revolving round it, as our sun has the earth and other planets revolving round him. Now, the dog-star appears 27,000 times less than the sun; and, as the distance of the stars must be greater in proportion as they seem less, mathematicians have computed the distance of Sirius from us to be two billions and two hundred thousand millions of miles. A ray of light, therefore, *though its motion is so quick as to be commonly thought instantaneous, takes up far more time in travelling from the stars to us, than we do in making a* long voyage. A sound, which, next to light, is considered as the quickest body we are acquainted with, would not arrive to us thence in 50,000 years; and a cannon-ball, flying at the rate of 480 miles in an hour, would not reach us in 700,000 years.

The stars, being at such immense distances from the sun, cannot receive from him that strong light which they have, or that brightness which makes them visible to us; for the sun's rays must be so scattered and dissipated before they reach such remote objects, that they can never be transmitted back to our eyes, so as to render those objects visible by reflexion. The stars, therefore, shine with their own native and unborrowed lustre, as the sun does; and since each particular star, as well as the sun, is confined to a particular portion of space, it is evident that the stars are of the same nature with the sun. Modern observations, however, show many remarkable peculiarities in the fixed stars, among which are the difference of colour, and the revolution of some of them round others.

It is exceedingly improbable that the Almighty, who always acts with infinite wisdom, and does nothing in vain, should create so many glorious suns, fit for so many important purposes, and place them at such distances from each other, without proper objects near enough to be benefited by their influences. Who ever imagines that they were created only to give a faint glimmering light to the inhabitants of this globe—especially since there are myriads of myriads of stars which are not visible without the assistance of a good telescope, and therefore, instead of giving light to this world, can only be seen by a few astronomers—must have a very superficial knowledge of astronomy, and a mean opinion of the divine wisdom, since the Deity could have given our earth much more light by a single additional moon.

Instead, then, of one sun and one world only, in the universe, as the unskilful in astronomy imagine, that science discovers to us such an inconceivable number of suns, systems, and worlds, dispersed through boundless space, that if our sun, with all the planets, moons, and comets belonging to it were annihilated, they would be no more missed by an eye that could take in the whole creation, than a grain of sand from the sea-shore; the space they possess being comparatively so small, that it would scarcely be a sensible blank in the universe, although the Georgium Sidus, the extreme planet, revolves about the sun in an orbit of 10,830 millions of miles in circumference, and some of our comets make excursions of more than ten thousand millions of miles beyond the orbit of the Georgium Sidus; and yet, at that amazing distance, they are incomparably nearer to the sun than to any of the stars, as is evident from their keeping clear of the attracting power of all the stars, *and returning* periodically, by virtue of the sun's attraction.

From what we know of our own system, it may be reasonably concluded that all the rest are with

equal wisdom contrived, situated, and provided with accommodations for rational inhabitants; for, although there is an almost infinite variety in the parts of the creation which we have opportunities of examining, a general analogy connects all the parts into one scheme, one design, one whole.

Since the fixed stars are prodigious spheres of fire, like our sun, and at inconceivable distances from each other as well as from us, it is reasonable to conclude that, like that luminary, they were created for the most important and beneficial purposes—to bestow light, heat, and vegetation, on a certain number of inhabited planets, retained by gravitation within that sphere which is assigned to the activity of each.

What a sublime idea does this suggest to the human imagination, limited as are its powers, of the works of the Creator! thousands and thousands of suns, multiplied without end, and ranged all around us, at immense distances from each other, attended by ten thousand times ten thousand worlds, all in rapid motion, yet calm, regular, and harmonious, invariably keeping the paths prescribed to them; and these worlds peopled with myriads of intelligent beings, formed for endless progression in virtue and felicity!

If so much power, wisdom, goodness, and magnificence be displayed in the material creation, which is the least considerable part of the universe, how great, how wise, how good, must He be, who made and governs the whole!

CHAPTER II.

OF THE DOCTRINE OF THE SPHERE.

HAVING, in the foregoing chapter, treated of the Universe in general, in which the earth has been considered as a planet, we now proceed to the Doctrine of the Sphere. In treating this subject we shall consider the earth as at rest, and the heavenly bodies as performing their revolutions round it. This method cannot lead the reader into any mistake, since we have previously explained the true system of the universe, from which it appears, that it is the real motion of the earth which occasions the apparent motions of the heavenly bodies. There is also an advantage in this mode, as it perfectly agrees with the information of our senses. The imagination, therefore, is not put on the stretch: the idea is easy and familiar; and, in delivering the elements of science, this object cannot be too much attended to.

N.B.—In order more clearly to comprehend what follows, the reader may occasionally turn his eye to the annexed plate of the Artificial or Armillary Sphere.

The ancients observed, that all the stars turned (in appearance) round the earth, from east to west, in twenty-four hours; that the circles which they described in those revolutions were parallel to each other, but not of the same magnitude, those which pass over the middle of the earth being the largest, while the rest diminish in proportion to their distance from it. They also observed, that there were two points in the heavens which always preserved the same situation. These points they termed Celestial Poles, because the heavens seemed to turn round them. In order to imitate these motions, they invented what is called the Artificial, or Armillary Sphere, through the centre of which passes an axis, whose extremities are fixed to the immovable points called poles. They farther observed, that on the 20th of March, and 23rd of September, the circle described by the sun was at an equal distance from both the poles. *This circle, therefore, must* divide the earth *into two equal parts, and on this* account was called the Equator. It was also denominated the Equinoctial Line, because the sun, when moving in it, makes the days and nights of equal length all over the world. Having also observed, that from the 21st of June to the 22nd of December, the sun advanced every day toward a certain point, and, having arrived there, returned toward that from which he had set out, from the 22nd of December to the 21st of June, they fixed these points, which they called Solstices, because the direct motion of the sun was stopped at them, and represented the bounds of the sun's motion by two circles, which they named Tropics, because the sun no sooner arrived there, than he turned back. Astronomers, observing the motion of the sun, found its quantity, at a mean rate, to be nearly a degree (or the 360th part) of a great circle in the heavens, every twenty-four hours. This great circle is called the Ecliptic; and it passes through certain constellations, distinguished by the names of animals, in a zone, or belt, called the Zodiac, within which the moon and all the planets are constantly found. It touches the tropic of Cancer on one side, and that of Capricorn on the other, and cuts the equator obliquely, at an angle of twenty-three degrees twenty-nine minutes, the sun's greatest declination. To express this motion, they supposed two points in the heavens, (equally distant from and parallel to this circle,) called the Poles of the Zodiac, which, turning with the heavens, by means of their axis, described the two polar circles. In the artificial sphere, the equinoctial, the two tropics, and two polar circles, are cut at right angles by two other circles called Colures, which serve to mark the points of the solstices, equinoxes, and poles of the zodiac. The ancients also observed that, when the sun was in any point of his course, all the people inhabiting directly north and south, as far as the poles, have noon at the same time. This gave occasion to imagine a circle passing through the poles of the world, which they called a Meridian, and

which is immovable in the artificial sphere, as well as the horizon, which is another circle representing the bounds between the hemispheres or half-spheres, or that which is above, and that which is below it.

CHAPTER III.

DESCRIPTION AND USE OF THE TERRESTRIAL GLOBE.

THE Terrestrial Globe is a representation of the surface of the earth, on an artificial globe or ball, on which the several countries and places are laid down according to their relative situations, and to which the articles of the sphere before described are transferred. This section, indeed, chiefly comprehends a transfer of the celestial circles to the representation of the terraqueous globe.

AXIS AND POLES OF THE EARTH.—The Axis of the earth is that imaginary line passing through its centre, on which it is supposed to turn round once in twenty-four hours. The extreme points of this line are called the Poles of the earth, and are exactly under the two points of the heavens called the North and South Poles.

CIRCLES OF THE GLOBE.—These are usually divided into the greater and less. A Great Circle is that whose plane passes through the centre of the earth, and divides it into two equal parts or hemispheres. A Less Circle is that which, being parallel to a greater, cannot pass through the centre of the earth, or divide it into two equal parts. The greater circles are six in number, the less only four.

EQUATOR.—The first great circle is the Equator, by navigators called the Line. The poles of this circle are the same with those of the world. It passes through the east and west points of the earth, and divides it into the northern and southern hemispheres. It is divided into 360 degrees, the use of which will soon appear.

HORIZON.—This great circle is represented by a broad piece of wood encompassing the globe, and dividing it into the upper and lower hemispheres. Geographers distinguish the horizon into the sensible and rational. The former is that which bounds the utmost prospect of our sight, when we view the heavens around us, apparently touching the earth or sea. This circle determines the rising or setting of the sun and stars in any particular place; for, when they begin to appear above the eastern edge, we say they rise; and, when they go beneath the western, we say they are set. It is obvious that each place has its own sensible horizon. The other horizon, called the rational, encompasses the globe exactly in the middle. Its poles (that is, two points in its axis, each ninety degrees distant from its plane, as those of all circles are,) are called the Zenith and Nadir—the former exactly above our heads, and the latter directly under our feet. The broad wooden circle which represents it *on the globe, has several circles drawn upon it; of these the lowest is that which exhibits the number of* degrees of the twelve signs of the zodiac, or thirty to each sign. Next to this are the names of these signs, together with the days of the month. Beside these, there is a circle representing the thirty-two rhombs, or points of the mariner's compass.

MERIDIAN.—This circle is represented by the brass ring on which the globe hangs and turns. It is divided into 360 degrees, and cuts the equator at right angles; so that, if we reckon from the equator each way to the poles of the world, it contains four times ninety degrees, and divides the earth into the eastern and western hemispheres. This circle is called the Meridian, because, when the sun comes to the south part of it, it is then *meridies*, or mid-day, and then the sun has its greatest altitude for that day, which is therefore called its meridian altitude. Now, as the sun is never in its meridian altitude at two places, east or west of one another, at the same time, each of these places must have its own meridian. There are commonly marked on the globe twenty-four meridians, one through every fifteen degrees of the equator.

ZODIAC.—The Zodiac is a broad circle, cutting the equator obliquely. In the middle is supposed another, called the Ecliptic, from which the sun never deviates in his annual course, and in which he advances thirty degrees in every month. The twelve signs of the Zodiac are:—

1. Aries	♈	. .	March.
2. Taurus	♉	. .	April.
3. Gemini	♊	. .	May
4. Cancer	♋	. .	June.
5. Leo	♌	. .	July.
6. Virgo	♍	. .	August.
7. Libra	♎	. .	September.
8. Scorpio	♏	. .	October.
9. Sagittarius	♐	. .	November.
10. Capricornus	♑	. .	December.
11. Aquarius	♒	. .	January.
12. Pisces	♓	. .	February.

COLURES.—If we imagine two great circles passing through the poles of the world, and one of them through the equinoctial points Aries and Libra, and the other through the solstitial points Cancer and Capricorn, these are called the Colures; one the equinoctial, the other the solstitial Colure. These are all the great circles.

TROPICS.—If we suppose two circles drawn *parallel to the* equinoctial, at the distance of *twenty-three* degrees thirty minutes from it, *measured on* the brazen meridian, one toward

the north, the other toward the south, these are called Tropics, from the Greek word signifying *a turning*, because the sun appears, when in them, to turn backward from his former course. One is called the Tropic of Cancer, the other of Capricorn, because they pass through the first points of these signs.

Polar Circles.—If two other circles are supposed to be drawn at the like distance of twenty-three degrees thirty minutes, reckoned on the meridian from the polar points, these are called the Polar Circles. The northern is called the Arctic, because the north pole is near the constellation of the Bear; the southern the Antarctic, because opposite to the former. And these are the four minor circles.

Zones.—After the four less circles were known, it was observed that the earth, by means of them, might be divided into five portions, and consequently that the places on its surface might be distinguished according as they lie in one or other of these portions, which are called Zones, from the Greek word signifying a girdle; being broad spaces, like swathes, girding the earth.

The Torrid Zone is a portion of the earth situated between the tropics. It was so called by the ancients, because they conceived that, being continually exposed to the perpendicular, or direct rays of the sun, it was rendered uninhabitable, and contained nothing but parched and sandy deserts. This notion, however, has long since been refuted. It is found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail almost throughout the torrid zone, render the earth not only habitable, but so fruitful, that in many places they have two harvests in a year; all sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes the most perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls. In short, the countries of Africa, Asia, and America, which lie under this zone, are in all respects the most fertile and luxuriant.

The two Temperate Zones are comprised between the tropics and polar circles. They are called temperate, because, meeting the rays of the sun obliquely, they enjoy a moderate degree of heat.

The two Frigid Zones are enclosed within the polar circles. During the greater part of the year, it is extremely cold in those parts; and everything is frozen so long as the sun is under the horizon, or only a little above it. However, these zones are not quite uninhabitable.

Climates.—Beside the division of the earth into hemispheres and zones, geographers have also divided it into Climates, which are narrower zones, each included between parallels of latitude, at such a distance from each other, that the length of the longest day under that nearest to the pole is increased by half an hour. As the length of the day under the equator is always twelve hours, and that of the longest day under the polar circles twenty-four hours, it is evident that there must be twenty-four of these climates between the equator and either pole. Within the polar circles, where the longest day is always more than twenty-four hours long, the climates are reckoned by the increase of the day by months, till we reach the pole, where the whole year consists only of six months day and six months night. Of these climates, therefore, there will be six, making the whole number, on each side of the equator, thirty.

We here insert a Table of Climates, which will show the length of the longest day in most of the principal places in the world.

TABLE OF CLIMATES.

Clis.	Lat. D. M.	Breadth D. M.	Lo. Da. H. M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
1	8 25	8 25	12 30	I. Within the first Climate lie the Gold and Silver Coasts in Africa; Malacca in the East Indies; Cayenne and Surinam in South America.
2	16 25	8 0	13 0	II. Here lie Abyssinia in Africa; Siam, Madras, and Pondicherry, in the East Indies; Strait of Darien, between North and South America; Tobago, Granada, St. Vincent, and Barbadoes, in the West Indies.
3	23 50	7 25	13 30	III. Contains Mecca in Arabia; Bombay, part of Bengal; Canton in China; Mexico, Bay of Campechè, in North America; Jamaica, Hispaniola, St. Christopher's, Antigua, Martinique, and Guadaloupe.
4	30 20	6 30	14 0	IV. Egypt, and the Canary Islands, in Africa; Delhi, in India; the Gulf of Mexico, and East Florida, in North America; the Havanna, in the West Indies.
5	36 28	6 8	14 30	V. Gibraltar; part of the Mediterranean Sea; the Barbary Coast; Jerusalem; Ispahan; Nankin in China; California, New Mexico, West Florida, Georgia, and the Carolinas, in North America.
6	41 22	4 54	15 0	VI. Lisbon; Madrid; Minorca, Sardinia, and part of Greece; Asia Minor; part of the Caspian Sea; Samarcand, in Great Tartary; Peking, in China; Corea, and Japan; Williamsburg, in Virginia; Maryland, and Philadelphia, in North America.
7	45 29	4 7	15 30	VII. Northern provinces of Spain; southern parts of France; Turin, Genoa, and Rome; Constantinople, and the Black Sea; the Caspian Sea, and part of Tartary; New York and Boston.
8	49 1	3 32	16 0	VIII. Paris; Vienna; Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Canada.

Cli.	Lat. D.	M.	Breadth D.	M.	Lo.Da. H.	M.	Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in every Climate North of the Equator.
9	52	0	2	59	16	30	IX. London, Prague, Dresden, Cracow; the southern provinces of Russia; part of Tartary; the northern part of Newfoundland.
10	54	27	2	27	17	0	X. Dublin, York, Hanover, and Warsaw; Holland; Tartary; Labrador; and New South Wales.
11	56	37	2	10	17	30	XI. Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow.
12	58	29	1	52	18	0	XII. The southern part of Sweden; Tobolsk.
13	59	58	1	29	18	30	XIII. Orkney Isles; Stockholm.
14	61	18	1	20	19	0	XIV. Bergen, Petersburg.
15	62	25	1	7	19	30	XV. Hudson's Strait, North America.
16	63	22		57	20	0	XVI. Siberia, and the southern part of West Greenland.
17	64	6		44	20	30	XVII. Drontheim.
18	64	49		43	21	0	XVIII. Part of Finland.
19	65	21		32	21	30	XIX. Archangel, on the White Sea.
20	65	47		26	22	0	XX. Hecla, in Iceland.
21	66	6		19	22	30	XXI. The northern parts of Russia and Siberia.
22	66	20		14	23	0	XXII. New North Wales, in North America.
23	66	28		8	23	30	XXIII. Davis' Strait.
24	66	31		3	24	0	XXIV. Samoieds.
25	67	21	1 Month.				XXV. The southern part of Lapland.
26	69	48	2 Months.				XXVI. West Greenland.
27	73	37	3 Months.				XXVII. Zembla Australis.
28	78	30	4 Months.				XXVIII. Zembla Borealis.
29	84	5	5 Months.				XXIX. Spitzbergen, or East Greenland.
30	90	0	6 Months.				XXX. Unknown.

Quadrant of Altitude.—In order to facilitate the performance of several problems, such as finding the altitude of the sun, measuring the distances and bearings of places, &c., globes are provided with a pliant narrow brass plate, divided into ninety degrees, which screws on the brass meridian, and turns every way. This plate is called the Quadrant of Altitude.

Hour Circle.—This is a small brass circle, fixed under the brazen meridian, divided into twenty-four hours, and having an index moveable round the axis of the globe.

Latitude.—The latitude of any place is its distance from the equator toward either pole, reckoned in degrees of the general meridian, and is northern or southern according as the place lies to the north or south of the equator. No place can have more than ninety degrees of latitude, because the poles, where the reckoning of the latitude terminates, are at that distance from the equator.

If circles be supposed to be drawn parallel to the equator through every degree, or every subdivision of a degree of latitude, these circles are called Parallels of Latitude.

Longitude.—The Longitude of a place is its distance from the first meridian, in degrees of a circle passing through it parallel to the equator; and it is reckoned either east or west. The first meridian is an imaginary semicircle drawn through any particular place from pole to pole. The situation of the first meridian, or the place from which the longitude is taken, is arbitrary. Formerly the meridian of Ferro (the westernmost of the Canary islands) was made, in general, the first meridian; but at present, the English astronomers usually reckon from the meridian of London, or rather that which passes through the Observatory at Greenwich; the French, from that of Paris, &c. No place can have more than 180 degrees of longitude, because, the circumference of the globe being 360 degrees, no place can be remote from another above half of that distance; but formerly the French and other foreign geographers, in conformity with an *ordonnance* of Louis XIII., reckoned their longitude from Ferro, only to the east, from the 1st to the 360th degree, or quite round the globe. The degrees of longitude are not equal, like those of latitude, but diminish in proportion as the meridians incline, or their distance contracts as they approach the pole. Thus, in sixty degrees of latitude, a degree of longitude is only one half of the length of a degree on the equator. The number of miles contained in a degree of longitude, in each parallel of latitude, may be found in the following Table:—

A TABLE,

Showing the Number of English Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude, in each Parallel of Latitude from the Equator.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles.	100th Parts of a Mile.
0°	69	20	23	63	70	46	48	07	68	25	92
1	69	19	24	63	22	47	47	19	69	24	80
2	69	16	25	62	72	48	46	30	70	23	67
3	69	10	26	62	20	49	45	40	71	22	53
4	69	05	27	61	66	50	44	48	72	21	38
5	68	95	28	61	10	51	43	55	73	20	23
6	68	82	29	60	52	52	42	60	74	19	07
7	68	68	30	59	92	53	41	64	75	17	91
8	68	52	31	59	32	54	40	67	76	16	74
9	68	35	32	58	69	55	39	69	77	15	57
10	68	14	33	68	04	56	38	69	78	14	39
11	67	93	34	57	37	57	37	69	79	13	20
12	67	69	35	56	69	58	36	67	80	12	02
13	67	43	36	55	98	59	35	64	81	10	82
14	67	14	37	55	26	60	34	60	82	09	63
15	66	84	38	54	53	61	33	55	83	08	43
16	66	52	39	53	78	62	32	49	84	07	23
17	66	17	40	53	01	63	31	42	85	06	03
18	65	81	41	52	23	64	30	33	86	04	83
19	65	43	42	51	42	65	29	24	87	03	62
20	65	03	43	50	61	66	28	15	88	02	41
21	64	60	44	49	78	67	27	04	89	01	20
22	64	16	45	48	93						

PROBLEMS PERFORMED BY THE GLOBE.

PROB. 1. *To rectify the Globe.*

The globe being set upon a true plane, raise the pole according to the given latitude; then fix the quadrant of altitude in the zenith; and if there be any mariner's compass upon the pedestal, let the globe be so placed that the brazen meridian may stand due south and north, according to the two extremities of the needle, allowing for its variation.

PROB. 2. *To find the Longitude and Latitude of any place.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and the degree it is under is the latitude; then observe the degree of the equator under the same meridian, and you will have the longitude.

PROB. 3. *The Longitude and Latitude of any place being given, to find that place on the Globe.*

Bring the degree of longitude to the brazen meridian; find upon the same meridian the degree of latitude, whether south or north, and the point exactly under that degree is the place desired.

PROB. 4. *The Latitude of any place being given, to find all those places that have the same latitude.*

The globe being rectified (PROB. 1.) according *to the latitude of the given place,* and that place being brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark exactly above the same; and, when you turn the globe round, all places passing under the said mark have the same latitude with the given place.

PROB. 5. *Two places being given on the Globe, to find the distance between them.*

If the places are under the same meridian, that is, have the same longitude, their difference of latitude, reckoning 69½ miles to a degree, will give the distance.

If they have the same latitude, but differ in longitude, their distance may be found by their difference of longitude, reckoning the number of miles in a degree of longitude in their common parallel of latitude, according to the Table given above.

If they differ both in latitude and longitude, lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both the places, and the number of degrees intercepted between them will give their distance from each other.

PROB. 6. *To find the Sun's place in the Ecliptic at any time.*

The month and day being given, look for the same upon the wooden horizon; and opposite the day you will find the sign and degree in which the sun is at that time; which sign and degree being noted in the ecliptic, the same is the sun's place, or nearly, at the time desired.

PROB. 7. *The month and day being given, as also the particular time of that day, to find those places of the Globe to which the Sun is in the meridian at that time.*

The pole being elevated according to the latitude of the place where you are, bring the said place to the brazen meridian; and, setting the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day, in the given place, turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII; then fix the globe in that situation, and observe what places are exactly under the upper hemisphere of the brazen meridian; for those are the places desired.

PROB. 8. *To know the length of the day and night in any place of the earth at any time.*

Elevate the pole (PROB. 1.) according to the latitude of the given place; find the sun's place in the ecliptic (PROB. 6.) at that time; which being brought to the east side of the horizon, set the index of the horary circle at noon, or the upper figure of XII; and, turning the globe till the western side of the horizon be touched by the given place of the ecliptic, look upon the horary circle; and, where the index points, reckon the number of hours to the upper figure of XII; for that is the length of the day; the complement of which, to 24 hours, is the length of the night.

PROB. 9. *To know by the Globe what o'clock it is in any part of the world at any time, provided you know the hour of the day where you are at the same time.*

Bring the place in which you are, to the brazen meridian, the pole being raised according to its latitude, and set the index of the horary circle to the hour of the day at that time. Then bring the desired place to the brazen meridian, and the index will point out the hour at that place.

PROB. 10. *A place being given in the Torrid Zone, to find the two days of the year in which the Sun shall be vertical to the same.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and mark what degree of latitude is exactly above it. Move the globe round, and observe the two points of the ecliptic that pass through the said degree of latitude. Find upon the wooden horizon (or by proper tables of the sun's annual motion) on what days he passes through those points of the ecliptic; for those are the days required.

PROB. 11. *The month and the day being given, to find by the Globe those places of the Northern Frigid Zone, where the Sun begins then to shine constantly without setting; as also those places of the Southern Frigid Zone, where he then begins to be totally absent.*

The day given, (which must be always one of those either between the vernal equinox and the summer solstice, or between the autumnal equinox and the winter solstice,) find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and, marking the same, bring it to the brazen meridian, and reckon the like number of degrees from the north pole toward the equator, as there is between the equator and the sun's place in the ecliptic, making a mark where the reckoning ends. Then turn the globe round, and all the places passing under the said mark are those in which the sun begins to shine constantly without setting, on the given day. For the solution of the latter part of the problem, set off the same distance from the south pole upon the brazen meridian toward the equator, as was in the former case set off from the north: if you then mark as before, and turn the globe round, all places passing under the mark are those where the sun begins his total disappearance from the given day.

PROB. 12. *A place being given in either of the Frigid Zones, to find by the Globe for what number of days the Sun constantly shines upon the said place, and on what days he is absent, as also the first and last day of his appearance.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and, observing its latitude, elevate the globe accordingly; count the same number of degrees upon the meridian from each side of the equator, as the place is distant from the pole; and, making marks where the reckonings end, turn the globe, and carefully observe what two degrees of the ecliptic pass exactly under the two points marked on the meridian. The northern arch of the circle, or that comprehended between the degrees marked, being reduced to time, will give the number of days when the sun constantly shines above the horizon of the given place: and the opposite arch of the said circle will exhibit the number of days in which he is totally absent, and also will point out which days those are. And in the interval he will rise and set.

PROB. 13. *The month and day being given, to find those places on the Globe, to which the Sun, when on the meridian, shall be vertical on that day.*

The sun's place in the ecliptic being found, (PROB. 6.) bring the same to the brazen meridian, on which make a small mark exactly above the sun's place. Then turn the globe; and those places which have the sun vertical in the meridian, will successively pass under the said mark.

PROB. 14. *The month and day being given, to find upon what point of the compass the Sun then rises and sets in any place.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the place, and, finding the sun's place in the ecliptic at the given time, bring the same to the eastern side of the horizon, and it will show the point of the compass upon which he then rises. *By turning the globe* till his place coincides with *the western side* of the horizon, you may also see upon that circle the exact point of his setting.

PROB. 15. *To know by the Globe the length of the longest and shortest days and nights in any part of the world.*

Elevate the pole according to the latitude of the given place, and bring the first degree of Cancer, if in the northern, or of Capricorn, if in the southern hemisphere, to the eastern side of the horizon. Then, setting the index of the horary circle at noon, turn the globe about till the sign of Cancer touches the western side of the horizon, and observe upon the horary circle the number of hours between the index and the upper figure of XII, reckoning them according to the motion of the index; for that is the length of the longest day, the complement of which, to 24 hours, is the extent of the shortest night. The shortest day and longest night are only the reverse of the former.

PROB. 16. *The hour of the day being given at any place, to find those places of the earth where it is either noon or midnight, or any other particular hour, at the same time.*

Bring the given place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at the hour of the day in that place. Then turn the globe till the index points at the upper figure of XII, and observe what places are exactly under the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian; for in them it is mid-day at the time given; which done, turn the globe till the index points at the lower figure of XII; and whatever places are then in the lower semicircle of the meridian, in them it is midnight at the given time. In the same manner we may find those places which have any other particular hour at the time given, by moving the globe till the index points at the hour desired, and observing the places that are then under the brazen meridian.

PROB. 17. *The day and hour being given, to find by the Globe that particular place of the earth to which the Sun is vertical at that time.*

The sun's place in the ecliptic being found, and brought to the brazen meridian, make a mark above the same; then (PROB. 10.) find those places of the earth in whose meridian the sun is at that instant, and bring them to the brazen meridian; which done, observe that part of the earth which falls exactly under the aforesaid mark in the brazen meridian; for that is the particular place to which the sun is vertical at that time.

PROB. 18. *The day and hour at any place being given, to find all those places where the Sun is then rising, or setting, or in the meridian; consequently, all those places which are enlightened at that time, and those which have twilight, or dark night.*

This problem cannot be solved by any globe fitted up in the common way, with the hour-circle fixed upon the brass meridian, unless the sun be on or near either of the tropics on the given day. But, by a globe fitted up with the hour-circle on its surface below the meridian, it may be solved for any day in the year, according to the following method:—

Having found the place to which the sun is vertical at the given hour, if the place be in the northern hemisphere, elevate the north pole as many degrees above the horizon as are equal to the latitude of that place; if the place be in the southern hemisphere, elevate the south pole accordingly, and bring the said place to the brazen meridian. Then, all those places which are in the western semicircle of the horizon, have the sun rising to them at that time, and those in the eastern semicircle have it setting: to those under the upper semicircle of the brass meridian it is noon; and to those under the lower semicircle it is midnight. All those places which are above the horizon are enlightened by the sun, and have the sun exactly as many degrees above them as they themselves are above the horizon. That this height may be known, fix the quadrant of altitude on the brazen meridian over the place to which the sun is vertical; and then, laying it over any other place, observe what number of degrees on the quadrant are intercepted between the said place and the horizon. In all those places that are 18 degrees below the western semicircle of the horizon, the morning twilight is just beginning; in all those places which are 18 degrees below the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the evening twilight is ending; and all those places that are lower than 18 degrees, have dark night.

If any place be brought to the upper semicircle of the brazen meridian, and the hour-index be set to the upper figure of XII, or noon, and then the globe be turned round eastward on its axis, when the place comes to the western semicircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of the sun's rising at that place; and when the same place comes to the eastern semicircle of the horizon, the index will show the time of the sun's setting.

To those places which do not go under the horizon, the sun sets not on that day; and to those which do not come above it, the sun does not rise.

PROB. 19. *The month and day being given, with the place of the Moon in the Zodiac, and her true latitude, to find the exact hour when she will rise and set, together with her southing, or coming to the meridian of the place.*

The moon's place in the Zodiac may be found by an ordinary almanac; and her latitude, which is her distance from the ecliptic, by applying the semicircle of position to her place in the zodiac. For the solution of the problem, elevate the pole (PROB. 2.) according to the latitude of the given place; and the sun's place in the ecliptic at the time being found, and marked, as also the moon's place at the same time, bring the sun's place to the brazen meridian, and set the index of the horary circle at noon; then turn the globe till the moon's place successively meet

ith the eastern and western side of the horizon, s also the brazen meridian; and the index will oint at those various times the particular hours f her rising, setting, and southing.

GEOGRAPHICAL OBSERVATIONS.

1. The latitude of any place is equal to the levation of the pole above the horizon of that lace, and the elevation of the equator is equal o the complement of the latitude, that is, to hat the latitude wants of 90 degrees.

2. Those places which lie on the equator have o latitude, it being there that the latitude begins; and those places which are situated on the first meridian have no longitude, it being there that the longitude begins. Consequently, *that* particular place of the earth where the first meridian intersects the equator, has neither ongitude nor latitude.

3. All places of the earth equally enjoy the enefit of the sun, in respect of time, and are equally deprived of it.

4. All places upon the equator have their days and nights equally long, that is, 12 hours each, at all times of the year; for, although the sun declines alternately from the equator toward the north and the south, yet, as the horizon of the equator cuts all the parallels of latitude and declination in halves, the sun must always continue above the horizon for one half of a diurnal revolution about the earth, and for the other half below it.

5. In all places of the earth between the equator and poles, the days and nights are equally long, viz. 12 hours each, when the sun is in the equinoctial: for, in all the elevations of the pole short of 90 degrees, (which is the greatest,) one half of the equator will be above the horizon, and the other half below it.

6. The days and nights are never of an equal length at any place between the equator and polar circles, except when the sun enters Aries and Libra; for, in every other part of the ecliptic, the circle of the sun's daily motion is divided into two unequal parts by the horizon.

7. The nearer any place is to the equator, the less is the difference between the length of the days and nights in that place, and the more remote, the contrary; the circles which the sun describes in the heavens every 24 hours being cut more nearly equal in the former case, and more unequal in the latter.

8. In all places lying upon any given parallel of latitude, however long or short the day and night may be at any one of those places, at any time of the year, it is then of the same length at all the rest; for, in turning the globe round its axis, (when rectified according to the sun's declination,) all those places will keep equally long above and below the horizon.

9. The sun is vertical twice in a year to every place between the tropics; to those under the tropics, once in a year; but never anywhere else; for there can be no place between the tropics, but that there will be *two points in the ecliptic* whose *declination from the equator is equal to* the latitude of that place; and there is only one point of the ecliptic which has a declination equal to the latitude of places on the tropic which that point of the ecliptic touches; and, as the sun never goes without the tropics, he can never be vertical to any place that lies without them.

10. In all places situated exactly under the polar circles, the sun, when it is in the nearer tropic, continues 24 hours above the horizon without setting, because no part of that tropic is below their horizon; and when the sun is in the farther tropic, it is for the same length of time without rising, because no part of that tropic is above their horizon. But at all other times of the year, it rises and sets there as in other places, because all the circles that can be drawn parallel to the equator, between the tropics, are more or less cut by the horizon, as they are farther from, or nearer to, that tropic which is all above the horizon; and when the sun is not in either of the tropics, its diurnal course must be in one or other of those circles.

11. To all places in the northern hemisphere, from the equator to the polar circle, the longest day (and consequently the shortest night) is when the sun is in the northern tropic, and the shortest day is when that luminary is in the southern tropic, because no circle of the sun's daily motion is so much above the horizon, or so little below it, as the northern tropic, and none so little above it, or so much below it, as the southern. In the southern hemisphere, a contrary effect is observable.

12. In all places between the polar circles and poles, the sun appears for some number of days (or rather diurnal revolutions) without setting, and at the opposite time of the year without rising; because some part of the ecliptic never sets in the former case, and as much of the opposite part never rises in the latter; and the nearer to, or the more remote from the pole, these places are, the longer or shorter is the sun's continuing presence or absence.

13. If a ship should set out from any port, and sail round the earth eastward to the same port again, let her perform her voyage in what time she will, the people in that ship, in reckoning their time, will gain one complete day at their return, or count one day more than those who reside at the same port, because, by going contrary to the sun's diurnal motion, and being more forward every evening than they were in the morning, their horizon will get so much the sooner above the setting sun, than if they had remained for a whole day at any particular place; and thus, by cutting off from the length of every day a part proportionable to their own motion, they will gain a complete day at their return, without gaining one moment of absolute time. If they sail westward, they will reckon one day less than the people do who reside at the same port, because, by gradually following the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, they will keep *him each particular day* so much longer above the horizon as answers to that day's course,

and thereby cut off a whole day in reckoning, at their return, without losing one moment of absolute time. Hence, if two ships should set out at the same time from any port, and sail round the globe, one eastward and the other westward, so as to meet at the same port on any day whatever, they will differ two days in reckoning the time, at their return. If they sail twice round the earth, they will differ four days; if thrice, then six, &c.

OF THE NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

The constituent parts of the Earth are two, the land and water. The parts of the land are these: a Continent, Island, Peninsula, Isthmus, Promontory, Cape, Coast, Mountain, &c. The land is divided into two great continents (beside the islands,) viz. the eastern and western continents. The eastern is subdivided into three parts, viz. Europe, on the north-west; Asia, on the north-east; and Africa (which is joined to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez, 60 miles over,) on the south. The western continent consists of North and South America, joined by the Isthmus of Darien, nearly 70 miles broad.

A Continent is a large portion of land, containing several countries or kingdoms, without any entire separation of its parts by water; as Europe. An Island is a smaller part of land, surrounded by water; as Great Britain. A Peninsula is a tract of land, encompassed by water, except at one narrow neck, by which it joins the neighbouring continent; as the Morea in Greece: and that neck of land which so joins it is called an Isthmus. A Promontory is a hill or point of land stretching itself into the sea, the end of which is called a Cape; as the Cape of Good Hope. A Coast or Shore is that part of a country which borders on the sea. Mountains, valleys, woods, deserts, plains, &c., require no description.

The parts of the Water are Oceans, Seas, Lakes, Straits, Gulfs, Bays or Creeks, Rivers, &c. The Waters are divided into three extensive oceans, (besides smaller seas, which are only branches of these,) viz. the Atlantic, the Pacific, and the Indian Ocean. The Atlantic or Western Ocean divides the eastern and western continents, and is 3000 miles wide. The Pacific divides America from Asia, and is 10,000 miles over. The Indian Ocean lies between the East Indies and Africa, being 3000 miles wide.

An Ocean is a vast collection of water, without any entire separation of its parts by land; as the Atlantic Ocean. A Sea is a smaller collection of water, which communicates with the ocean, confined by the land; as the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. A Lake is a large collection of water, surrounded by land; as the Lake of Geneva, and the lakes in Canada. A Strait is a narrow part of the sea, confined between shores, and opening a passage out of one sea into another; as the Strait of Gibraltar, or that of Magellan. This is sometimes called a Sound; as the strait into the Baltic. A Gulf is a part of the sea running up *into the land, and surrounded by it except* at the *passage by which it communicates with* the sea or ocean. If a gulf be very large, it is called an Inland Sea; as the Mediterranean: when it does not go far into the land, it is called a Bay; as the Bay of Biscay: if it be very small, a Creek, Haven, Station, or Road for ships; as Milford Haven. Rivers, canals, brooks, &c., need no description; for these smaller divisions of water, like those of land, are to be met with in almost every country. But in order to strengthen the remembrance of the great parts of the land and water which we have described, it may be proper to observe, that there is a strong analogy or resemblance between them. The description of a continent resembles that of an ocean; an island encompassed with water resembles a lake surrounded by land. A peninsula of land is like a gulf or inland sea. A promontory or cape of land is like a bay or creek of the sea; and an isthmus, whereby two lands are joined, resembles a strait, which unites one sea to another.

OF THE TRUE FIGURE AND DIMENSIONS OF THE EARTH.

Though we have hitherto spoken of the earth as a spherical or globular body, it is necessary to observe, that it is not a perfect sphere. Its true figure was long the subject of great disputes among philosophers. Sir Isaac Newton showed, from mathematical principles, that the earth must be an oblate spheroid, or that it was flatted at the poles and jutted out toward the equator, so that a line drawn through the centre of the earth, and passing through the poles, would not be so long as a line drawn through the same centre, and passing through the east and west points. Cassini asserted precisely the reverse, when he maintained that its diameter was lengthened toward the poles. In order to decide this question, the king of France, in 1736, sent out some able mathematicians to Lapland, to measure the length of a degree of latitude at the polar circle: and likewise others to Peru, to make the same admeasurement near the equator. Their observations confirmed the opinion of Sir Isaac Newton beyond dispute, and proved that the earth is flatter toward the poles than near the equator. The nature of Sir Isaac's reasoning may be in some measure elucidated by the simple experiment of fixing a ball of soft clay on a spindle, and whirling it round; for we shall find that it will project toward the middle, and flatten toward the poles. From his theory, he determined that the polar diameter of the earth must be to the equatorial as 229 to 230, or about 35 miles shorter. Maupertuis, and the other French mathematicians who went to Lapland, deduced, from their mensuration of a degree, that the equatorial diameter is 7942 miles, and the polar 7852 miles; so that the former exceeds the latter by 90 miles.

According to these calculations, the circumference of the earth under the equator will be 24,951 miles, which, multiplied by the diameter, will give 198,160,842, the number of square miles (sixty-nine and a half to a degree) in the spherical surface of the earth; and this number, multiplied by one sixth of the diameter, will give

8,774, the number of cubic miles in its ents.

e subjoin Table exhibiting the super- ents in square miles, sixty to a degree, and unknown parts of the world, of ible earth, the four quarters conti- ewise of the great empires, and prin- ds, placed as they are subordinate to r in magnitude. This Table must not upon as being strictly correct, but an approximation, and as affording an e relative magnitudes of the specified s.

	Square Miles.
e	148,510,627
unknown parts	117,843,821
able World	30,666,806
	2,749,349
	10,257,487
	8,576,208
	9,153,762
mpire under Darius	1,650,300
mpire at its utmost height	1,610,000
	4,864,000
	1,298,000
	652,960
ersian	800,000
xclusive of Settlements in and Gibraltar	317,196
tates	923,000
ISLANDS.	
	228,000
ar	168,000
	129,000
	118,000
itain	77,343
	68,400
	58,500
	43,260
l Fuego	42,075
o	39,200
	38,400
	38,250
da	36,000
dland	35,500
	27,730
	27,457
	17,000
	11,900
	10,400
	9,400
	7,800
	6,600
	6,300
	6,000
	6,000
	5,400
	4,000
	3,600
	3,220
co	3,200
	2,520
	1,935
	1,400
	1,400
as	1,300

	Square Miles.
Teneriffe	1,272
Gothland	1,000
Madeira	960
St. Michael	920
Sky	900
Lewis	880
Funen	768
Yvica	625
Minorca	580
Rhodes	480
Cephalonia	480
Amboyna	400
Pomona, Orkney	324
Scio	300
Martinique	280
Lemnos	220
Corfu	194
Providence	168
Man	160
Bornholm	160
Wight	150
Malta	150
Barbadoes	140
Zante	120
Antigua	100
St. Christopher's	80
St. Helena	80
Guernsey	50
Jersey	43
Bermuda	40
Rhode	36

To these islands may be added the following, which have lately been discovered, or more fully explored. Their exact dimensions are not ascertained.

New Holland	Friendly Islands
New Guinea	Sandwich Islands
New Zealand	Navigators' Islands
New Caledonia	Palaos, or Pelew Islands
New Hebrides	Marquesas
Otaheite and the Society Islands.	Foster, or Davis' Island.

Before conclude this part of the Introduction to our work, it will be proper to give brief explanation of the nature and c of winds and tides.

WINDS.—The earth which live is rounded by a fine invisible fluid, which extends several miles above its surface, and is called air; the whole mass of which is denominated the atmosphere. It is found by experiments, that a small quantity of air is capable of being expanded, so to fill a very large space, or of being compressed into much smaller compass than it occupied before. The general cause of the expansion of air is heat; that of its compression, cold. Hence, if any part of the air or atmosphere receive a greater degree of cold or heat than it had before, its parts will be put in motion and expanded or compressed. But when air is put in motion, we call it wind, in general; and *breeze, gale, or storm*, according to the quickness or velocity of that motion. Winds, therefore, which are commonly considered as things

extremely variable and uncertain, depend on a general cause, and act with more or less uniformity in proportion as the action of this cause is more or less constant. It is found, by observations made at sea, that, from thirty degrees of northern latitude to thirty degrees south, there is a constant east wind throughout the year, blowing on the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and called the Trade Wind. This is occasioned by the action of the sun, which, in moving from east to west, heats, and consequently expands, the air immediately under it, by which means a stream or tide of air always accompanies it in its course, and occasions a perpetual east-wind within those limits. This general cause, however, is modified by a number of particular causes, the explanation of which would be too tedious and complicated for our present plan.

The winds called the Tropical Winds, which blow from some particular point of the compass without much variation, are of three kinds: 1. The general Trade Winds, which extend to nearly thirty degrees of latitude on each side of the equator in the Atlantic, Ethiopic, and Pacific Seas. 2. The Monsoons, or shifting trade-winds, which blow for six months in one direction, and during the other six months in the opposite. These prevail mostly in the Indian or Eastern Ocean, and do not extend above two hundred leagues from the land. Their change is at the vernal and autumnal equinoxes, and is accompanied with terrible storms of thunder, lightning, and rain. 3. The Sea and Land Breezes, which are another kind of periodical winds, that blow from the land from midnight to midday, and from the sea from about noon till midnight; these, which are occasioned by the change of temperature, do not, however, extend above two or three leagues from the shore. Near the coast of Guinea, the wind blows nearly always from the west, south-west, or south. On the coast of Peru the wind blows constantly from the south-west. Beyond the latitude of thirty north and south, the winds, as we daily perceive in Great Britain, are more variable, though they blow oftener from the west than any other point. Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitude of Cape Verd and that of the easternmost of the Cape Verd Islands, there is a tract of sea condemned to perpetual calms, attended with terrible thunder and lightning, and such rains, that this sea has acquired the name of the Rains.

Tides.—By the Tide is meant that regular motion of the sea, according to which it ebbs and flows twice in twenty-four hours. Sir Isaac Newton was the first who satisfactorily explained the cause and nature of the tides, by his great principle of attraction, in consequence of which all bodies attract each other, in proportion to their masses and distance. By the action of this power, those parts of the sea which are immediately below the moon must be drawn toward it; and, consequently, wherever the moon is nearly *vertical, the sea will be raised, which occasions the flowing of the tide there. A similar* cause produces the flowing of the tide likewise in those places where the moon is in the nadir, and which must be diametrically opposite to the former; for, in the hemisphere farthest from the moon, the parts in the nadir, being less attracted by that planet than the other parts which are nearer to it, gravitate less toward the earth's centre, and consequently must be higher than the rest. Those parts of the earth, on the contrary, where the moon appears on the horizon, or ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, will have low water; for, as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, the waters in their neighbourhood will press toward those places, to maintain the equilibrium; and, to supply the place of these, others will move the same way, and so on to the places ninety degrees distant from the zenith and nadir, where the water will be lowest. By combining this doctrine with the diurnal motion of the earth, above explained, we shall be sensible of the reason why the tides ebb and flow twice in a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours and fifty minutes.

The tides are higher than the ordinary rate twice every month, that is, about the times of new and full moon, and are called Spring Tides; for, at these times, the actions of the sun and moon are united, and draw in the same straight line; and, consequently, the sea must be more elevated. At the conjunction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they conspire to raise the waters in the zenith, and, consequently, in the nadir; and at the opposition, or when the earth is between the sun and moon, while one occasions high water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same. The tides are less than ordinary, twice every month, about the first and last quarters of the moon, and are called Neap Tides; for, in those quarters the sun raises the waters where the moon depresses them, and depresses where the moon raises them; so that the tides are only occasioned by the difference by which the action of the moon, which is nearest to us, prevails over that of the sun. These effects would be uniformly produced, were the whole surface of the earth covered with water; but since there are a multitude of islands and continents which interrupt the natural course of the water, various appearances are to be met with in different places, which cannot be explained without considering the situation of the shores, straits, and other objects that have a share in causing them.

Currents.—There are frequently streams or currents in the ocean, which set ships a great way beyond their intended course. Between Florida and the Bahama Islands, a current, called the Gulf Stream, always runs from south to north. A current runs constantly from the Atlantic, through the Strait of Gibraltar, into the Mediterranean. A current sets out of the Baltic Sea, through the Sound or Strait between Sweden and Denmark, into the British Channel, so that there are no tides in the Baltic. About small islands and head-lands in the middle of the ocean, the tides rise very little; but in some

bays, and about the mouths of rivers, they rise from 12 to 50 feet.

CONSTRUCTION AND USE OF MAPS.

MAPS.—A map is a representation of the earth, or a part of it. A map of the world is a delineation in perspective of the globe, as it would appear to an eye placed in a particular point. The circles bounding such a map represent the brass meridian, and the curve lines, running across at every ten degrees, show the latitude north or south of the equator. The top and bottom are the north and south poles; and the curve lines uniting them are other meridians passing through every tenth degree of the equator, and showing the longitude east or west from the first meridian. The straight line intersecting these meridians, and passing through the centre, is the equator, or equinoctial; at proper distances from which, on each side, are curve lines representing the tropics and polar circles.

Maps and charts, especially the latter, are sometimes drawn on what is called Mercator's Projection, so called from the inventor, Gerard Mercator, an eminent geographer in Flanders, who, about the middle of the sixteenth century, published a map of the world on this construction. In these maps the meridians and parallels are straight, and the former equidistant from each other. The degrees of longitude in every parallel are the same, while the degrees of latitude are all unequal, being lengthened toward the poles. Charts drawn on this plan are particularly of use to navigators, because the rhombs, which point out the bearings of places, and consequently the courses to be steered to arrive at them, are all straight lines.

In maps of particular countries, the top is generally considered as the north, the bottom as the south; and the east is consequently on the right hand, and the west on the left. Where this rule is not followed, a *fleur-de-lis* is usually placed on some part of the map, pointing toward the north, by which the other points may be easily known. From the top to the bottom of the map are drawn meridians, or lines of longitude, and from side to side parallels of latitude. The extreme meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of longitude and latitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distance, &c., of places may be found. Thus, to find the distance of two places, (suppose London and Paris,) by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which shows that London is 210 miles distant from Paris. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from each other, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels; and, by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described by black lines, and are wider near the mouth than toward the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours the depth of the water is expressed by figures denoting fathoms.

MARINER'S COMPASS.

This instrument, of such essential use in navigation, was the invention of Flavio Gioia, of Amalfi, in the kingdom of Naples, about the year 1302; but no particular account has been transmitted of the manner and circumstances of this important discovery. It seems, however, to have been long previously known to the Chinese. Though it was then applied to navigation, it does not appear that, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, there was any apprehension of its pointing other ways than due north and south. Its variation is said to have been first perceived by Columbus, in the voyage in which he discovered the West Indies. It was afterward found not only to differ in different places, but to vary at different times in the same place. The variation at London, in the year 1576, was 11° 15′ east; from which time it diminished till, in 1657, it became 0.0; after which it turned westerly, and has continued increasing, yet very slowly, to the present time.

If the magnetic needle be so suspended that it can freely move vertically, the north end will, in this part of the world, dip, or incline toward the horizon. This is called the dipping-needle. As we approach the southern parts of the earth, the dip will diminish, and at length the needle will become horizontal; and, in proceeding more southerly, the south end will dip.

LENGTH OF MILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.—There is scarcely a greater variety in anything than in this sort of measure: not only those of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those of the same country vary in the different provinces from each other, and from the standard. Thus, the common English mile differs from the statute mile, and the French have three sorts of leagues. We shall here give the miles of several countries, compared with the English.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

The Russian verst is little more than ⅝ of a mile English.

The Scotch and Irish mile is about 1¼ English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about 3¼ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 English.

The French common league is near 3 English

The *English* marine league is 3 English miles

PART II.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF GEOGRAPHY.

The origin of Geography is contemporaneous with the first development of commerce and agriculture; but its progress dates only from the period when the intercourse of one country with another became frequent enough to give men an interest in knowing the connexion of places already traversed, their reciprocal positions, the objects of exchange which they could furnish, and the roads which must be taken to reach them.

In the infancy of civilization, when the intercourse of nations or tribes with each other was surrounded by obstacles, geography, like history, became the common receptacle of all fabulous and popular traditions. The animated and energetic imagination of the early ages of the social state spread over every sort of knowledge a poetical varnish. Caprice, or chance, imposed names; vanity created imaginary monuments; ignorance imagined inflamed zones, bottomless gulfs, and endless rivers. All that could not be explained was attributed to supernatural power; honour was derived from chimerical dangers; everywhere the marvellous took the place of truth.

During this obscure and uncertain epoch, the primitive systems bore the stamp of the ages in which they originated, and resembled each other. Each people naturally believed itself to be placed in the centre of the world. The Indians made Mount Meru or Meros the centre of the earth, as the Greeks did with respect to Mount Olympus. This unknown earth was supposed to be a huge disc, bounded on all sides by an inaccessible ocean, and at the end of this imaginary world were placed the Fortunate Islands and the Pigmies. Some enormous mountains and mysterious columns upheld the vault of heaven.

From agricultural and sedentary tribes, hostile to commerce and navigation, we derive no knowledge as to the earliest efforts of geography. The Phœnicians, whose fleets traversed the Mediterranean, and sometimes reached the main ocean, knew something of the ancient world; but those discreet navigators, actuated by a mercantile and jealous policy, carefully concealed their discoveries, their enterprises, and their colonies.

The Hebrews seem to have been placed in the ancient world, to reveal its mysteries. It is they who preserved for us the oldest geographical notions of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, *Arabians, and neighbouring countries. Nevertheless, in the books of Moses,* and his successors, *we must look only for indications* of the primitive seat of the nations of Western Asia. Moses, and the posterior writers, whom we will not separate, place the second cradle of the human race in the branches of Taurus, which are spread through Armenia and Kurdistan, the most central of all the countries anciently peopled. They show us the sons of Shem, under the shepherds' tents; those of Ham, devoted to industry and commerce; and, to the north of those two races, the warlike empire of the children of Japhet. The Hebraic geography indicates the original identity of almost all the ancient people of the banks of the Euphrates, a part of Asia Minor, Syria, and Arabia; it shows us, in Javan and Media, the father of the Ionians and Medes; it tells us of the antique empires of the Assyrians and Chaldeans, whose remembrance is preserved to us only by the people whom they subjugated; it names their immense capitals, Babylon and Nineveh, which already received into their walls captive princes, distinguished personages, and numerous caravans from eastern lands; it points out to us, to the south of those empires, several people delighting in liberty, and wandering from country to country as they were prompted by their restless disposition; it distinguishes the Edomites, known to the Greeks under the name of Idumæans; the Midianites, from very ancient days addicted to commerce; the Nabaloths, or Nabathæans of the Greeks and Romans, who derived their descent from Ishmael; the Homerites, whose happy and powerful empire long flourished in Yemen; lastly, the Hebrews, related to all those tribes, and, like them, rich in flocks, kings of their deserts, fathers of numerous families, envying in no respect the monarchs of the earth, and asking from Heaven only a little shade, a fountain, and verdure.

The writings of these same Hebrews speak to us of Egypt (Chamia) and of the African coasts of the Arabian Gulf. They throw a strong light upon the ancient state of Palestine, the theatre of one of the oldest physical revolutions recorded in history. In that country, and in Syria, flourished, long before Athens, the walled cities of Damascus, Hamath, Hebron, and Jericho. There the traces of an old civilization are met with in all parts. Tyre, the queen of the seas, named by the Hebrew writers of the time of David, had for several centuries been preparing that industrial greatness, the picture of which is traced by the prophet Ezekiel, at an epoch when Rome, under the first of the Tarquins, was changing its huts into houses.

Associated with the commercial enterprises

of the Tyrians, the Hebrews were introduced into the colonies of Carthage and Utica. The alliance of Solomon with the queen of Sheba, or Meroe, enabled them also to obtain a knowledge of central Africa, from which Meroe received caravans. The most ancient monument of Judea is, nevertheless, silent upon that vast country, which is still so imperfectly known to us. We must, therefore, restrict the positive sphere of Hebraic geography within limits which do not extend beyond Caucasus, on the north, the Grecian archipelago on the west, Western Persia on the east, and the entrance of the Arabian Gulf on the south.

The writings of the Babylonians, Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Carthaginians, have not come down to us. The Romans and Greeks alone have transmitted to us their discoveries. Let us, then, pass over the nine centuries which divide Moses from Homer, and take from the shield of Achilles, as from the most ancient of maps, the parent idea of the geography of those remote ages.

The ocean stream surrounds there the disk of earth, covered by a solid vault, a firmament under which the stars of day and night roll on cloudborne cars. The round of this Homeric earth is divided by the Pontus Euxinus, the Ægean Sea, and the Mediterranean, into two parts, the one northern, the other southern, to which, at a later period, Anaximander applied the names of Europe and Asia. Greece and its isles occupied the centre of the globe, and Mount Olympus the centre of Greece. The Peneus, with its silvery waters, bounded the Greek nations to the north. The Pelasgian Plain seems to be that which later received the name of Thessaly. To the west, Etolia, under the name of Calydon, is known by the poet, as well as the kingdom of the prudent Ulysses, Cephalenia, Ithaca, and Zacynthus. The isle of Scheria, the abode of the voluptuous Phæacians, is already out of the limits of Greece. The poet makes it nearly a neighbour of the ocean. To the south he points out the numerous tribes of Bœotia and Attica, under the name of Athenes, and Peloponnesus under that of Argos. He mentions the small state of Pylus, governed by the wise Nestor, the city of Lacedæmon, or Sparta, and most of the isles of the Archipelago. To the north, he shows us the vast regions of Thrace; but he has no idea of the Danube, which, a century later, is spoken of by Hesiod, under the appellation of Ister. The southern coasts of Italy are seen by him in distant obscurity. He peoples Sicily with wonders; and yet it is obvious that the shores of that large island were not wholly unknown to him, though he gives their position incorrectly enough. "Sicily, according to his system," says M. Gosselin, "turns one of its three points to the north, the other towards the east, and the third towards the west; so that its northern side becomes its western. This misplacing of the triangle of Sicily is precisely repeated in all the systems of Greek geographers, and forms one of the *elementary bases, without which it is impossible to comprehend the ancient geography.*"

The western part of the Homeric map of the globe does not belong to the real world. It is there that the father of fable indicates the floating island of Eolus, and the enchanted isles of Circe and Calypso: it is there that he places, near the entrance of the ocean, the abode of the unfortunate Cimmerians, who lived amidst thick darkness; and in the ocean itself he fixes the Elysium, the asylum of eternal felicity. These amiable fictions, adorned with the colours of a harmonious poetry, had a powerful influence on the march of geography. They were long held in respect. In proportion as the west became known, attempts were made to identify the newly discovered countries with the imaginary lands of the bard of Achilles. Two centuries after his death, his Circe was believed to be found, either on the Tartessian shores, or on those of the Tyrrhenians, visited by Colœus of Samos. Still later, the Roman voyagers thought that they recognised his Elysium in the Canary Islands. As to the Cimmerians, since neither to the east nor west could be found those luckless men, who were deprived of the light of day, sooner than Homer should be accused of an error, the step was taken of removing them into the north. The habit of reconciling the indications of past ages with posterior discoveries evidently arose from the necessity of justifying the great poet.

It is on the theatre of the combats of the Iliad that he abandons marvellous geography, for the scrupulous exactness of a historian. Modern explorers have vindicated him by their researches. He describes, with strict precision, the city of Ilium, Mount Ida, the Simois, the kingdom of Troy, with its nine provinces, in which he includes the Lycians, Dardanians, Leleges, and Cilicians, vassals of Priam. Though he does not name the Euxine, he describes its shores; but at the extremity of the Black Sea he falls back again into the land of fable. Colchis appears to him in dim distance, where he places the palace of the sun, and the scene of the loves of that god with a daughter of the ocean. To the south of Troy he finds himself at home again, and names several nations of Asia Minor, among which may be remarked the Pelasgians, Mœonians, and Phrygians. We see that the Phœnicians, whose principal city was Sidon, are not unknown to him, so correctly does he describe their industry and their mercantile spirit. The men of ancient Egypt pass in his eyes for children of Esculapius, who cured even the maladies of the mind with a beverage which lulled all pain to sleep. He knew that there existed a Thebes, with a hundred gates, and a great river, (the Nile,) which he called Egyptos. From Egypt to the Strait of the Columns, the distance in his system is not great; there is hardly room for the Syrtic Gulf, which the poet knew under the name of Libya. Lastly, at the eastern and western extremities of his chart of the world, he stations the Ethiopians, *in company with* the Pygmies. Subsequently, *under the name of* Ethiopians were comprehended *the Persians, the* Bactrians, and the Indians, and *all the people* who were discovered to the east-

ward and westward. Thus for ages errors succeeded each other. The famous Itinerary of the Argonauts was nothing more than putting into action the ideas of Homer relative to the communication of the Phasis with the ocean. Nevertheless, the travelling route, among the poets, changed with the progress of geography. It was slow; and the cosmography of Homer, which seems to have been that of the Greeks, his contemporaries, would have prevailed for a longer time, but for the intestine wars, and the commercial movement, which displaced the following generations. The shores of the Black Sea were known by the Megarean and Milesian colonies; Sicily and Great Greece saw their fertile coasts peopled by the men of Corinth. The Phocæans traversed the shores of Sardinia, Corsica, and Gaul, and established themselves at Marseilles. Colœus passed the Strait of the Columns, and made known a part of Southern Spain. The Greeks stole from the Phœnicians some of their nautical charts; and it was perhaps by the help of such documents that Anaximander, a disciple of Thales, traced the first known map of the world, on which, if Plutarch may be credited, he represented the earth as a cylinder. Other philosophers gave it either the form of a drum, or that of a boat, while others preferred the cubic figure, or represented it as a high mountain, the basis of which was infinitely extended, while the stars enlightened the different parts as they circulated around it.

While the Ionian philosophers, whose maps no doubt reproduce the disfigured knowledge of a more learned people, were thus groping about in the dark, there appeared one of those extraordinary men who give to the sciences a new direction, by supporting their progress upon observation. Herodotus, of Halicarnassus, the distinguished citizen of a small commercial republic, and perhaps himself a merchant, was the man so superior to his contemporaries. He was born about five centuries after Homer, and travelled in the three parts of the world which were then known. He penetrated among the Pæonians, (the present Servians,) visited Greece and the Greek colonies on the Euxine, measured the extent of that sea from the Bosphorus to the Phasis, traversed the countries between the Borysthenes and the Hypanis, reached Babylon and Susa to the east, and saw a large part of Persia. On the south, his journies led him to the extremity of Egypt; he then visited the colony of Cyrene; and, finally, terminated his career in southern Italy, where he probably completed his admirable history, into which he introduced all the geographical ideas which he had been able to obtain with regard to distant lands. Towards the east, they stop at the Indus; towards the north-east, at the Himalaya Mountains, and include Little Bokhara; to the north, they extend as far as the Kirghese Steppes, and to the country of yellow amber, at the mouth of the Vistula; to the north-west they reach the Sorlingæ Isles, or Cassiterides, and the *southern coast of Albion; to the west*, the Sacred *Cape, or Cape St. Vincent, in Iberia; and* Cape Soloe, or Cape Spartel, in Africa; and, lastly, to the south, the mountains of Abyssinia, and the Desert of Sahara. Errors, however, still predominate in this new mass of knowledge. Herodotus knew only the names and respective situations of Arabia, Iberia, Celtica, or Gaul, the isles of Albion, and Cassiterides. He had ideas equally uncertain as to the other northern countries of Europe. He mentions Illyria in a vague manner, and Rome is still unknown to him.

Herodotus did not pretend to form a system from his own discoveries and the information which he collected; he does, indeed, laugh at Homer's Ocean Stream; but, when he wishes to give some positive and general sketches, he does not the less remain under the influence of the poet. He admits, with hesitation, three parts of the globe, and believes Europe to be longer than Asia and Libya, or Africa, both together. He imagines the last extends in the same direction as Asia; that is to say, that it terminates far to the north of the equator. According to the explanation of Herodotus, the earth no longer appears as a round disk, but as an undefined plain.

If, however, the outline of that earth deviates infinitely from its real figure, the truth shows itself fully in a great number of details. Herodotus wonderfully forwarded the geography of the banks of the Ister, the Borysthenes, the Tanais, and the countries to the north-east and south-east of the Euxine. It is obvious that he had received exact information as to the territories on the Indus, Cashmere, and Bactriana, and that numerous commercial connexions subsisted between them and the merchants in the Greek colonies of the Pontus Euxinus, who were in high repute for their activity, enterprising spirit, and perseverance.

It was doubtless to the Indian caravans that he was indebted for his correct and precise ideas on the Caspian Sea, and the measurements which he gives of its extent; measures of which the exactitude has been demonstrated by the learned Gosselin. He describes Egypt with perfect clearness; beyond it, he speaks from the reports of the Egyptian priests, and the indications afforded by caravans. The information which he gathered follows three lines of direction: one pursues the course of the Nile, and reaches perhaps the eleventh degree of latitude; the other, commencing at the temple of Ammon, loses itself in the desert; the third proceeds along the shore of the Mediterranean, as far as Carthage; but none of them goes to the Joliba of the moderns. It would be rash even to extend too far to the west of Fezzan the knowledge possessed by Herodotus.

We will not pause upon the asserted voyages of Phœnician navigators, ordered by Nechos, king of Egypt, or on the travels of five young Nasamonians in the interior of Africa; both may, in reality, be disfigured traditions of some enterprise of a prior age; but, such as they are presented to us by Herodotus, they will not bear a critical examination. This is not the case with

voyage of Hanno, nearly contemporary with
rodotus, which was undertaken by order of
rthage. in the most flourishing period of its
mmercial prosperity. Its principal purpose
s the founding of colonies beyond the Strait
the Columns. Relying upon some itinerary
asures which are given by Polybius, M. Gos-
in limits the course of the Carthaginian navi-
ors to Cape Non, to the south of the empire
Morocco.

Towards the same epoch, it was not the Cartha-
inians alone who trod in the path of discovery.
e work of Scylax proves that the Greeks also
rsued the same career. They explored the
ast of the Pontus Euxinus, the Mediterranean,
d Western Africa, as far as the Isle of Cerné.
doxus, of Cnidus, likewise composed a Uni-
sal Itinerary of the World. Ephorus, of Cuma,
nded geographical details with his historical
rks, and was the first who divided the human
cies into four races: Indians, to the east of
ster; Ethiopians, to the west of winter; Celts,
the west of summer; and Scythians, to the
t of summer. Before these writers, the im-
rtal Hippocrates, who had travelled in Scy-
a, Thessaly, Colchis, Asia Minor, and perhaps
ypt, composed the most ancient work which is
ant, on physical geography. In his Treatise
Airs, Waters, and Places, the learned physician
ides the world into two parts, and always op-
es Europe to Asia, comprehending in the latter
ypt and Libya. This is the Homeric system
ain. Books alone did not enlighten the world.
ophon, leading back to their country his ten
ousand brethren in arms, procured for the
eeks new information as to the countries
ich now compose Kurdistan and Armenia.
e speculations of the Greek philosophers,
wever, confused the notions which were ac-
ired. Those notions would, perhaps, have
en wholly disfigured by the lamentable efforts
the systematic spirit, but for the happy in-
uence of the writings of Aristotle, who recog-
sed, probably after Eudoxus, the spherical form
the earth, its curvature, and its circumference,
stimated at 400,000 stadia. He believed, like
olumbus, that the shores of Spain were not very
r distant from those of India. The details of
hat he knew display error by the side of truth.
is map of the globe terminates at the Indus,
wards the east, and, on the river Tartessus or
uadalquiver, to the west. The Riphæan moun-
ins bound the world to the north, and Libya to
e south.

His disciples inherited his taste. Dicearchus
scribed Greece, he measured its mountains,
d was the first who treated upon orology as a
stinct branch of science. Theophrastus ad-
nced the progress of physical geography.
nally, the royal pupil of Aristotle, Alexander
e Great, bore to the banks of the Hyphasis
at love of real knowledge with which his
aster had inspired him. His conquests made
e Greeks more accurately *acquainted with the*
astern parts of Asia. He was accompanied by
ginears, whose business it was to measure exactly the marches of his army; the heads of these engineers, Diogaetes and Baton, published the results of this vast labour, and their work is the source which was resorted to by all subsequent geographers who wished to determine the extent of those countries, and the respective positions and distances of places. A fleet, commanded by Nearchus and Onesicritus, explored the coast of Mekran, and of the Persian Gulf.

After the death of the Macedonian hero, the banks of the Ganges were reached by Seleucus Nicanor. The admiral, Patrocius, navigated on the Indian Ocean and the Caspian Sea. The Greeks became enterprising; they added a genius for commerce to their other superior qualities; they penetrated into the southern parts of Hindoostan. The fleets of Ptolemy completed the exploration of the coasts of that peninsula; a knowledge was obtained of the extensive island of Taprobana, or Ceylon, with which the Grecian kings opened a direct commerce, by the ports of Myoshormos and Berenice. Geographical notions abounded, from all parts, in the court of Ptolemy Evergetes. A native of Cyrene collected them, two hundred and sixty years before the Christian era. Aided by these materials, the great Eratosthenes at length created a complete system of geography. The limits of the world then known to the librarian of Alexandria, were probably Thinæ, or Tenasserim, to the east; but his certain knowledge went no farther than the mouth of the Ganges: with respect to the sources of the Nile, he seems to have been possessed of information as exact as that of the moderns: to the west and the north, he knew that which Pytheas knew: on the western coast of Africa, he followed Herodotus. His chart of the Arabian coasts, of the Gangetic part of India, the isle of Albion, Thulé, and the upper course of the Nile, shows the great geographical progress made by the Greeks, since the time of Herodotus.

That progress was not confined to the navigation of the Indian coasts; commerce had already opened a route across central Asia; it penetrated by Northern Persia into Northern India, and reached Pallbothra, by descending the Ganges; other caravans turned the Imaus, or Belur mountains, to enter Serica. It is to be regretted that the works of Agatharcides, of Cnidus, have not come down perfect to us; he appears to have visited the Greek establishments on the Ethiopian and Arabian coasts; and, if Diodorus owes to him his curious details on Meroe, Hipparchus, perhaps 140 years before Christ, drew from his writings the idea of a great central land, which united Eastern Africa with India. To this illustrious learned man of the Alexandrian school, we are indebted for the foundations of a purely astronomical geography, and, probably, the first idea of geographical projections; but celestial observations were then rare, and, *in filling* up the gaps with hypotheses, *Hipparchus* increased the errors of the map of *Eratosthenes*, which he wished to rectify. Fifty years before him, the travels of Polybius, who

was retained as a hostage by the Romans, made the latter better acquainted with a part of their conquests. Being a man who looked to certainties alone, he denied the discoveries of Pythias, solely because the narrative of them was full of contradictions. He refuted the error of those who believed the torrid zone to be uninhabitable, but he narrowed too much the limits of the known world. Two centuries of wars and victories in Macedonia, Syria, Numidia, Arabia, Britain, and the Gauls, extended considerably the circle of geographical discoveries, and confirmed or perfected a great number of those which Polybius had rejected. Hibernia, or Ireland, was again recognised, of which Pytheas, Eratosthenes, Polybius, and Hipparchus had not admitted the existence, though it had been ascertained several ages before, by Carthaginian navigators. By the help of these new documents, and his own observations, Possidonius thought himself able to rectify the system of Eratosthenes. He committed great errors; he enclosed the habitable world in a very long ellipsis, pointed at both ends, which he compared in shape to a sling. He probably, from the relation of Eudoxus, of Cyzicus, believed in the possibility of circumnavigating Africa, and rejected the theory of Hipparchus, which considered the Indian Ocean as an inland sea.

Julius Cæsar, meanwhile, had thrown light on the geography of the Gauls, and begun the discovery of Germany and the coasts of the British Isles. In the age of Augustus, Germanicus visited, as a conqueror, Dalmatia, Bosnia, Servia, and Bulgaria, which had never been well known by the Greeks. The Roman eagle reached the banks of the Elbe.

The description of the great empire was completed by Agrippa, whose map, exposed under the portico, showed the immense extent of that empire.

At the same epoch Strabo composed his geography, a vast deposit of the knowledge of his predecessors and of his own observations.

It is obvious that he had carefully consulted Dicearchus, Polybius, Eratosthenes, Hipparchus, and Possidonius; and extracted from, or commented on, a great number of other authors. His work offers at once a very minute description of Greece, and Asia Minor, in which countries he had travelled, and rapid sketches of the other known nations. A correct topographer, and a scrupulous and modest critic, in the first part, Strabo, in the other, is often only an unfaithful compiler, and a partial and superficial judge; the limits of his certain knowledge, to the north, are, Ierne or Ireland, and the mouth of the Elbe: he owns that all beyond that river, and to the north of the mouth of the Tanais, or Don, is unknown to him; he refuses to believe in the existence of Thulé, because the earth is not inhabitable at 4000 stadia to the north of Britain: towards the east, a copyist of Eratosthenes, Taprobana, or Ceylon, and Thinæ, or *Tenasserim, seem to him the extremities of the world: as to Africa, his knowledge goes no* further on the eastern coast than to Noticornu, near Bandel-Kaus, and on the western coast to the Bambotum Fluvius, (perhaps the river Nun, to which Polybius advanced.) In the opinion of Strabo, these coasts turn, the one towards the east, the other towards the west, to the latitude of twelve and a half of our degrees; it is there that he places to the west his Etheopes Æthecrii; to the east, the region Cinnamomifere; between these two countries he leaves only a narrow space, into which, repelled by a burning and mortal atmosphere, the voyager cannot enter; he adopts the opinion of the Alexandrian school as to the junction of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, at the extremity of that of Africa, shortened by one half; and this opinion, which was preserved in the west of Europe during the middle age, as is clear from the planisphere of Sanuto, and some other maps of the same epoch, no doubt determined the bold Portuguese navigators to attempt the passage by the Cape of Good Hope.

Strabo had scarcely completed his description of the world, before it was no longer on a level with discoveries. The Roman armies, terrible geographical missioners, never stopped. Very soon, one of the fleets of the empire turned the peninsula of Jutland, or Cimbric Chersonesus, and discovered the isle of Funen, or Scandia. The Gulf of Finland was at last reached. The Ebudes, or Western Isles, and the Orcades, were approached at the time of the expedition of the emperor Claudius. Some years later, the south of Albion was displayed to the sight of Agricola; and, in making the circuit of Caledonia, his fleet obtained a knowledge of Thulé, the chief of the Shetland isles, which Pytheas seems to have confounded with Iceland, of which he had also heard. Yellow amber became the mania of the Roman ladies, and speculators immediately began to traverse the interior of Germany, of which only the frontier and the coast had hitherto been known. Far from his antique forests, and under a milder sky, Hippalus discovered the nature of the monsoons; and, confiding himself to the fidelity of the winds, dared to sail straight from Africa to India, and open more prompt and easy communications. New lights respecting Africa arose from the expeditions of the consul Paulinus, in Sildjimessa, and of Cornelius Balbus, in Fezzan, among the Garamantes. The limits of the Great Desert began to be ascertained, and various oases presented themselves to the view of the conquerors. All this information, acquired subsequently to Strabo, is to be found in the Natural History of Pliny, who seems to be unacquainted with the geography of his predecessor, but to have known several others, precious fragments of which he has preserved.

On reading his work, we find that we have lost that complete description of the Roman empire, by Agrippa, which has already been mentioned, the commentaries of king Juba on Africa, the relation of Statius Sebosus, concerning the Fortunate Isles, and the Memoirs on India, by

lay has no fixed principles as to the
tent of the earth; he floats between
and Eratosthenes: his ideas as to the
tness of the three parts of the world
d by the following figures: Europe,
f the continent; Asia, 1-4th 1-14th;
-5th 1-60th. Knowing little of the
e different Greek, Egyptian, and
tadia, he estimates them all at eight
oman mile. Hence arise numberless
rs which are increased by his want
dgment. But, in the midst of them,
recious ideas are for the first time
ther!

elegant pen of Pomponius Mela,
arly at the same epoch, geography
r in exactness nor certainty. Like
rlects to compare; he confounds old
itions. He reproduces the system
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of the Caspian with the ocean. His
Oxus is tolerably laid down; he knew
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Baltic, and that Scandinavia is
the neighbouring islands. Hero-
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rist, the Periplus of Hanno. He
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Niger, or Nuchul, in Ethiopia; and
portant observation: "While other
towards the ocean, this directs its
rds the east and the centre of the
here it is lost, without its being
its course ends." Might it not be
la guessed, eighteen hundred years
te in which our knowledge of the
ill within a few years?

it century of the Christian era pro-
s that nautical and commercial Itine-
s known under the title of the Perip-
rythræan Sea, and the geographical
by Dionysius Periegetes, written in
eek verses, which bespeak that the
reader of Homer. Another Itinerary,
of Charax, gives many geographical
ve to the Parthian empire. Towards
he same century, the wants of luxury
mmerce into Upper Asia, and as far
which a merchant, named Titianus,
bsequently some imperfect notions.
man expeditions it was learned that
ded towards the south much further
erally supposed. Marinus of Tyre
e works of authors who had written
and formed a complete body of geo-
which are discussed the new maps
by him. We know his works only
:ts of Ptolemy.

ginning of the second century, the
Trajan, while they aggrandized the
empire, extended equally the bounds of geography. Dacia and Mesopotamia were well known. To this epoch also belongs the origin of some of those celebrated Itineraries, which the masters of the world caused to be composed, to direct the march of their armies, and the possession of which by an individual was high treason. The Itinerary of the emperor Antoninus, which, without proof, is attributed to Ethicus, seems to be a union of old and new road-guides. The Itinerarium Hierosolymitanum appears to be a road-map given to some imperial functionary. The fragment which we possess gives, in the greatest detail, the route from Bourdeaux to Jerusalem. Lastly, the Table of Peutinger, much more considerable than the preceding, and which Mannert supposes to belong to the reign of the emperor Severus, comprehends in its singular outline, not only the Roman empire, but the furthest limits of the earth which were then known, especially to the east. We see there the country of the Seres, the mouth of the Ganges, the Island of Ceylon, and roads laid down even in the heart of India.

We at last reach the epoch when the geography of the ancients sought to support itself on scientific foundations. It is in the hands of Ptolemy, who raises it to the dignity of a mathematical science. The work of this celebrated man is only an elementary and geometrical picture, where the figure and size of the earth, and the position of the places, are determined. The division of the countries is merely indicated, and it is rarely that the author adds an historical note. His text, as it has come down to us, seems to have been often disfigured by the negligence of transcribers and editors. But, though many grave errors must be attributed to them, there are a great number which really belong to the geographer himself; they seem to derive their origin from the measures which he employs. We see that he has mistaken the extension which he ought to have given to the longitudes; he has falsified them to the amount of 2-7ths. Such is the opinion of the learned Gosselin, who establishes it by the irresistible force of calculation.

Nevertheless, in spite of these defects, the work of Ptolemy rises like a brilliant pharos in the midst of the night of time. It shows us in detail countries which had never seen the eagles of Rome, and which, for ten subsequent centuries, were never spoken of but upon the faith of its descriptions. When stripped of its errors, it offers to view the whole geographical knowledge of the second century of the Christian era.

If we begin the exposition of that knowledge by a reference to Africa, we shall find that the form of that part of the world is entirely changed by Ptolemy. He does not, like Pliny and Strabo, admit the communication of the Atlantic with the Erythræan Sea; he thinks that the western coast of that continent, after having formed a gulf of moderate depth, extends indefinitely *between the* south and west, while the eastern, *beyond Cape* Prasum, rejoins the Asiatic coast *to the south of* Catigara. The interior of his

Africa presents a great mass of confused notions, amidst some new truths, and some new information which had reached Alexandria, then the seat of great geographical labours. Ptolemy is the first who announces positively the existence of the river Niger; he rejects every hypothesis which identifies that river with the Nile, and he places on its banks Tucabath Nigira, the metropolis of Ta Gana and Panagra. It appears certain that his acquaintance with this quarter of the globe did not go beyond our Joliba; and that, like his predecessors, he confounded the rivers which flow from the Atlas with the countries in the neighbourhood of his Niger. This was one of the consequences of his erroneous system, as to the extent of Africa from south to north.

The Asia of Ptolemy offers three principal points: the Indian coasts before and beyond the Ganges, the route to Serica, and the form of the Caspian Sea. It is plain that he was acquainted with many provinces, cities, and mountains, on this side of the Ganges, but beyond this his outline indicates a vague groping in the dark. He gives to India a singular shape: it has no longer anything peninsular in it. His Taprobana, or Ceylon, is of immoderate magnitude; his golden Chersonesus is distinguished by a great river, which divides into three branches before it falls into the sea; his river Senus, in the country of the Sines, is perfectly represented by the course of the river Tenasserim; his other river, Serus, answers to that of Pegu; and his Magnus Sinus may be recognised in the Gulf of Martaban. He knew that the Caspian is not a gulf of the Northern Ocean; that it is even very distant from that ocean; but he gives it a very incorrect form. The position of his Serica, is evidently to the north of India, and may be identified with Thibet, a part of little Bukharia, Cashmire, and some other valleys of the mountainous countries which give rise to the Indus and the Ganges. His Europe differs certainly from that which is known to us; but is much more extensive than the same continent as laid down by his predecessors. It comprehends Spain, Gaul, Ireland, Britain or Albion, and the western isles of Scotland; to the north, the Shetland Isles, the principal of which, Mainland, is perhaps the Thulé of Ptolemy and other Roman writers. In the north, he stops at the Cimbric Chersonesus, (Jutland;) he places to the eastward, four isles, under the name of Scandiæ Insulæ, one of which seems to resemble Scania, or the Isle of Funen, perhaps the Basilia of Pytheas. The Scandinavia of the middle ages, Sweden and Norway, were not discovered till long after Ptolemy. The table land of Russia, then covered with forests, and which contains the source of the Volga, and of the Don or Tanais, as far as the sources of the Kama; and then Mount Algydin, which supplies the sources of the Oby, continue to the east of Cape Perrispa the limits of the world as far as it was known by the ancients. In this *part, Ptolemy astonishes us by an exact description of the course of the Volga.* The Hyperboreans appear to him to be too celebrated to allow of their being blotted out entirely; and he places them, at hap-hazard, in the middle of Russia; he however banishes the name of Scythia from his Europe; but he exteuds Sarmatia from the Tanais to the Vistula and the Carpathian mountains, without considering as Sarmatians all the people who inhabit this vast space. In general, the Slavonian tribes are obscurely indicated by the geographer, but he describes Dacia more in detail than his predecessors. We may say as much with respect to England, the western coasts of Gaul, and the northern coast of Spain. At this epoch, by some inexplicable singularity, it happened the geography of those countries, so distant from Rome, seems to have made more progress than that of Italy itself; the whimsical form which Ptolemy gives to Italy shows that science has its caprices, and that unknown causes may accelerate its march, where it would seem that it must naturally remain stationary.

Subsequent to the publication of Ptolemy's work, the wars of the barbarian nations with the Romans, both in the east and west, produced some new ideas with respect to the northern parts of Europe. The marches of Septimus Severus, from the banks of the Euphrates and the Tigris, into the mountains of Caledonia, or Scotland, where he was the first who penetrated, in the year 209, added to the information acquired relative to the east and north. A part of these new notions, which have escaped the ravage of ages, are found preserved in the Itineraries of which we have spoken, and in the histories of Ammianus Marcellinus and Procopius. The first gives us, on the nations of Germany and Sarmatia, details for which we vainly seek in Tacitus, Pliny, or Ptolemy; and Procopius furnishes us, as to the tribes of the Black Sea and the neighbourhood of the Caucasus, with information the more valuable from his having himself collected it on the spot. In the sixth century, the north of Europe was enlarged; Sweden and Norway were revealed in the west. This was the last step which ancient geography made in its progress; we must require no more from it. The Roman empire fell to pieces under the blows of the northern and eastern barbarians; ancient civilizations gradually disappeared amidst the darkness of the middle age; from time to time geography threw out some uncertain and deceptious gleams: it took the colours of ignorance. The ideas of Cosmas, a writer of the sixth century, are still more fantastical than those of Homer; his system differs from that of the Greek poet, by the square figure which he assigns to the earth, which he makes a plane surface surrounded by a wall. This cosmography, adopted by many Christian writers, is a monument of the great influence which the poetical geography of Homer exercised over the systems of the most remote generations. To this period belong the makers of abridgments. It is Martian of Heraclea, and Agathemerus, who preserve for us fragments of the lost works of the first and

cond centuries. It is Festus Avienus, a frigid
itator of the beautiful verses of Dionysius
riegetes, who, without being aware of it,
nders an eminent service to the critical history
geography, by inserting in his Ora Maritima,
ough in a confused manner, the traditions
the Carthaginians, relative to the voyages
hich their navigators had performed along the
ores of Spain, Albion, and the Gauls. We
can also some useful particulars in the geo-
aphy of Ethicus, preserved by Orosius, in
rious Notices of the Provinces, and in the
ographical dictionaries of Vibius Sequester
r the Roman world, and Eusebius for the
laces mentioned in Holy Writ. Jornandes has
ansmitted to us some valuable knowledge re-
pecting the migrations of the Goths and Huns,
d details as to the geography of the north and
st of Europe, in the sixth century. In the
ghth, a Goth, whose name is unknown, but
o is commonly called the "Geographer of
venna," gives a description of the world as it
as known in his time; and, in reading him, we
e astonished to observe the great number of
ographers who are lost to us, but to whom he
fers as his authorities.

In the meanwhile, as early as the seventh
ntury, the pilgrimages of the Christians had
gun to revive the spirit of observation. The
rks of the Fathers of the church mention a
reng of pious travellers. This is a mine which
s not been sufficiently worked, and which,
en with reference alone to geography and the
story of nations, contains treasures.

As early as the fourth century, St. Jerome
rms that there came to Jerusalem pilgrims
om India, Ethiopia, Britain, and Hibernia. At
ater period, Adaman composed a description
the *holy places*, from what had been related
him by St. Arculph. The relations of the
grimages of Willibald, (730,) and of Bernard,
French monk, (780,) to the holy sepulchre,
also geographical monuments of the middle
e, as well as the journey of Haiton, from
ssil to Constantinople. Even maps belonging
this barbarous age are mentioned. St. Gall,
e founder of the celebrated abbey which bears
s name, and who lived in the seventh century,
ossessed one of these maps, which a historian
the convent describes as *mappam subtili*
ere—an elegantly designed map. The three
ver Tables of Charlemagne are well known,
which were represented the whole world,
d the cities of Rome and Constantinople; and
rangel even cites a manuscript in the Turin
rary, composed in 787, which contains a chart,
hich is the more valuable because it comprises
the then known world, and may serve to
olidate the geographer of Ravenna.

Let us quit for a moment the men of the west,
nt beneath the yoke of ignorance, and turn to
people whose genius, awakened by Mahomet,
lighted the torch of science and literature in
cient Asia, the birthplace of civilization, and
ose it shone *equally on those African lands*
ich have since become the seat of barbarism.

Geography is indebted to the Arabs for a new impulse and new discoveries. From the period of their first conquests, the caliphs ordered their generals to furnish descriptions of the conquered countries. In 833 the caliph Mamoun caused to be measured, by the three brothers Ben Schaker, a degree of latitude, in the desert of Sangiar, between Racca and Palmyra. This measurement, repeated near the city of Kufa, served to determine the magnitude of the earth. Without pausing on the journey of the eight Arabs of Lisbon, known by the name of *almagrurins*, or wanderers, a journey the result of which is uncertain, we remark, from the ninth century, among the votaries of Islamism, a taste for adventurous ramblings, and a passion for discoveries. Then, two zealous observers, Wahad and Abuzeid, traversed and described, from 851 to 877, the most remote countries of Asia, which had escaped the knowledge of the ancients. The narrative of their journey, translated into French by Renaudot, was regarded with incredulity till its authenticity was perfectly demonstrated by de Guignes. Unfortunately, the lapse of time, ignorance of the language, and a thousand other circumstances, have made us lose most of the geographical monuments of the Arabians; a great number of them are known to us only through those persons who have availed themselves of them. Some of their writers have, however, reached us, either in extracts or complete. We will remark that the tenth century gave birth to the works of Massoudi, full of curious details upon Africa, India, and Middle Asia; that, in the same century, Ebn Haukal traced pictures, equally instructive and interesting, of all the countries subjected to the religion of the prophet, and treated superficially the parts inhabited by the Nazarenes or Christians, because *his love for wisdom and regular governments left him nothing to praise or to cite among those nations.* The twelfth century shows us Edrisi, usually denominated the Nubian geographer, possessed of all the science of his compatriots, and the knowledge of the west, united at the court of Roger, king of Sicily. The thirteenth century was enriched by the Marvellous Pearl of Ebn al Wardi, a work full of curious details on natural history, and on the geography of Africa, Arabia, and Syria; but very concise on Europe, India, and Northern Asia. In the fourteenth century we meet with other celebrated names. More methodical than his predecessors, Abul Feda, instead of merely imitating them by proceeding confusedly from east to west, described each country in a separate chapter, gave the latitudes and longitudes of each place, in tables arranged according to the climates, expatiated on mathematical geography, and most considerable seas, rivers, and mountains, of the world, and cited his authorities.

In publishing the Wonders of Omnipotence on Earth, El Bakoui delighted to describe the places *which had* witnessed the glory of true believers, *and the cities* celebrated for the monuments of *their genius*, and their schools of learning. Ebn

Batuta, an intrepid traveller, twice traversed Africa in two opposite directions, from the north to the south, and from the east to the north-east; he visited the mysterious Timbuctoo, and the country of Melli; and his representations agree, in almost all points, with the most recent of the modern travellers.

This list of Arabian geographers, or travellers, in which we have inscribed only the most eminent and important, ends in the fifteenth century with Leo, whose description of Africa, an inexhaustible mine of curious information, connects in some measure the geography of the middle age with modern geography.

On collecting into a whole the knowledge of the Arabs, we find that it was of consequence only with respect to the Mussulman countries, visited by their merchants, or conquered by their arms. In Asia, they bring out Arabia from its obscurity, they add new notions to those which existed as to Syria and Persia; they expatiate on the countries to the north of India, and it was from them that were derived the only ideas which we had relative to ancient Bactriana, and Transoxiana, or Marawalhnar, the remotest Arab state to the north; they revealed the real figure and extent of the Caspian from south to north; they dwelt upon the provinces by which it is surrounded; traced a commercial line from Samarcand to Can-fu in ancient China; comprehended also the southern shore of the Persian Gulf, the Maldive Isles, Madagascar, Ceylon, Java, Sumatra, and the Moluccas; became indistinct and uncertain beyond the Ganges; and are of no authority respecting the north of Asia, in those icy countries where the great rivers of the Obi, the Yenesei, and the Lena, water the Tunguisian deserts.

With Europe the Arabs were much less acquainted; with the exception of Spain, the Mediterranean isles, and the parts of Italy in which they had planted their standard, they had but very disjointed notions of the rest. Yet it is difficult to conceive how they contrived to collect precise notices on Ireland, Paris, England, the duchy of Sleswick, and a portion of Russia, while they showed themselves utterly ignorant of the neighbouring countries.

It is in Africa that their geography has a solid importance. The Arabs spread themselves from Egypt to the Straits of Gibraltar, and to the west, passed Cape Bojador, which so long stopped the Portuguese. From the tenth century, they frequented Eastern Africa, from Egypt to Cape Corrientes. Melinda, Mombaza, and Sofala, flourished as early as the twelfth century. Modern geographies supply no later information than that of the Arabs, with respect to interior Africa. They knew the great river of Nigritia, which they almost identified with the Nile, but only at its source; and in the first part of its course they directed it towards the west, and most frequently placed its mouth in a sea or in the ocean, at the distance of a day's journey from a certain *isle called Ulil, which plays a great* part in their *system. The source of our Joliba* seems to have been unknown to them; it is entirely out of the sphere of their excursions to the south-west, which did not extend beyond Jinné. To the west, Edrisi mentions the Zuuhagi, a tribe which gave its name to the river Senega or Senegal. The Rio do Ouro, under the Arabic denomination of Wadimel, and the country of Meghzara, with the city or Isle of Ulil, terminate the Arabian geography to the west, as does the country of Lamlan or Lamlen to the south.

In the interior of Soudan, that geography indicates to us the cities of Tocrur, celebrated for gold-mines; Sallah and Berassa, peopled by an exceedingly brave race of blacks: Gana and Timbuctoo, rendered powerful by their commerce. Eastward of the last city, it extends as far as Bornou; to the south, it reaches the country of Melli, and, on that side, also, the mountains of Kong, the kingdom of Dahomy, and some other points of maritime Guinea. There is nothing to show that the Sierra Leone coast, Kuranko, Sulimana, Kissi, and Sangara, were ever visited by Arabian travellers. Their writers are silent concerning those countries.

It is to be regretted that, while they were enlarging on all sides the world known by the ancients, the Arabs did not introduce into their writings that clearness and precision of which the Greeks and Romans had furnished them with models. Political and religious despotism checked among them the soaring of thought, and the spirit of investigation. They translated Ptolemy, whose insufficiency their discoveries rendered obvious. Where those discoveries did not enlighten them, they took Strabo and Pomponius Mela for guides, and went astray. Their astronomical observations were not correct enough to reform the geographical system of the men of the Alexandrian school. They endeavoured to determine the latitudes of places by the duration of the longest days; they divided into climates the world as it was known in their days, and each climate into a certain number of regions. The Itineraries alone served them to fix the respective distances; their maps were not laid down according to any projection. In their hands positive geography made but little progress. Their brilliant enterprises, their adventurous expeditions, seemed to promise more extensive results.

We must now quit the Arabian camps, the beautiful regions of the east, and turn our view towards other countries, less favoured by nature. A people no less fanatic and brave than the armed apostles of the prophet, the people of Odin, re-appear upon the scene, under the name of Normans, Varegues and Ostmen; it takes the sea for the theatre of its exploits, and in the barks of Scandinavian pirates sail instructed navigators and voyagers eager to make discoveries. The memory of the services which they rendered to geography has been preserved to us by king Alfred, by Adam of Bremen, by the Heims-Kringla, an historical work from the pen of Snorro, written in the twelfth century, by various other Icelandic chronicles, and by

! the two brothers, the Zeni. The
d a knowledge of the northern re-
he perspicuous and precise extract
llandvian relations, which Alfred the
ed in his Anglo-Saxon version of
he first shows the Norwegian Ohter
i voyages from Halgoland, in Nor-
ia on the east of the White Sea,
her side, along the Norwegian and
ts, by the Sound, to the city of
· Sleswick. The other relation is
Dane Wulfstan, from Sleswick to
mmercial city in the country of
ssia.
nprehends in Scandinavia the fol-
ries:—Biarmia, Finnmarkia, Quin-
, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark.
ncient name to designate all the
i countries, which were inhabited by
:ems to have been that of Manna-
)untry of men,) a name which the
atin energetically translated by the
f these words, *the manufactory of*
rce.
iption of the Baltic by Wulfstan,
r Alfred, is much more complete
Eginhard, who was acquainted only
:ern extremity. Wulfstan mentions
under the name of Witland. The
r, like his compatriots, gives the
of Estians to all the tribes who live
f the Vistula. The Scandinavians
:ribe Poland, which is called Pulina-
Sagas. It is the Wislaland of Al-
:try of the Vistula.
ninth century, the most distant
e North Sea were visited by the
Distant as it is from their country,
Ireland very early, perhaps as far
seventh century. They founded
gdoms of Dublin, Ulster, and Con-
h were long tributary to them; they
xactly known the Orkney and Shet-
hey settled in Caithness, the most
trict of Scotland. They conquered,
ebudes of the ancients, which are
ng the western coast of Scotland,
ere dependencies of Norway till
ess or chance led them, in 861,
isles, a distant archipelago, which
nounce other lands. About the
heir navigators landed on Iceland,
ems not a little extraordinary, they
true circumference of it in a man-
ees with the modern observations
onomers. Indefatigable mariners,
nused; about 982 they reached the
enland. It has been asserted that
as well as Iceland, was known
riod; but nothing is more uncer-
supported by proof. What seems
table is, that it was peopled by
Icelanders; that their establish-
precarious; that two *towns were*
arda, and Hrattalid; that the most
most southern part of the west
coast of Greenland alone deserves, from its vivid summer verdure, its groves of birch, and the perfume of its flowers, the name of Green Land, which it received from the Icelanders. It is, consequently, here that we must place one of the two Scandinavian colonies. For the other, we must seek to the north of Cape Desolation. Ruins of hamlets and churches still exist, to support the probability of these two identities.

Here rises to view a question of far greater importance—Did the Normans discover America before Columbus?

The histories of Snorro, those of Torfæus and Jonas Arngrim, the old annals of Iceland, by Hawk, and the dissertations of Suhm, have preserved the memory of the discoveries made by Leif, son of Eric Rauda, and by the Icelander Biorn. In the year 1001, the latter, seeking his father in Greenland, was driven by a tempest far to the south-west, where he discovered a flat country, quite covered with wood, and extremely fertile. He returned, Lief joined him, and the bold adventurers found again the recently discovered coast. The air appeared mild to Greenlanders; the sun remained eight hours above the horizon on the shortest day, which marks about forty-nine degrees of latitude. This land, in which the wild vine grew, was named Vinland, or the vine country. Establishments were formed there, but nothing indicates that they were lasting; they were, however, still existing in the first half of the twelfth century, an epoch when a bishop, Eric, went to Vinland, to convert his fellow countrymen, who were yet Pagans.

Where now are we to seek for this country of Vinland? The narratives of the old historians to which we have referred, seem to place it on the coast of North America. It is to the narratives of the brothers Zeni, and the map of their navigation, that we must look for a solution of this difficult question.

The noble Venetians, of whom we speak, visited again, either in 1380, or from 1391 to 1392, the country discovered by the Scandinavians, or at least collected a description of it, which, notwithstanding much obscurity, seems to confirm the Icelandic relations. From the learned researches of Buache and Eggers, it seems that the Frisland of the Venetian brothers must be the Feroe archipelago. The countries to which the Zeni give the names of Engroneland and Grolandia may apply to the south-east coast of Greenland, inaccurately laid down and enormously extended on the map of the Venetians. As to the two coasts named Estotiland and Droceo, indicated, in the same map and relation, as being more than a thousand miles to the west of Frisland or Feroe, and to the south of Greenland, it would seem that this position, and the particularities of their discovery, agree perfectly with Newfoundland, and to the Scandinavian colony of Vinland. This theory has been learnedly *discussed by Malte-Brun*; and we agree with him, *that the new world* was visited by the people of the *north, about* the year 1000 of the Christian era.

CHAPTER II.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF GEOGRAPHY. (*Continued.*)

To bring under one point of view the enterprises and geographical labours of the Arabs and Normans, we have been obliged to invert the order of time. Let us return to Christian Europe, which was long ignorant of the discoveries and the scientific glory of the Mussulmans, and of the adventurous voyages and the national poems of the men of the north.

I have, I believe, already said, that it would be unjust to be unmindful of the services which were rendered to geography by the clergy of the middle age. Religious zeal then led the pilgrims, like the missionaries, into the most distant lands; and the annalist monks inserted the description of those lands in their writings. On the occasion of a crusade, Emon, abbot of Werum, gives us the Itinerary of the soldiers of the cross, from the Low Countries to Palestine. Saint Boniface made known the people who dwelt to the eastward of the Frank kingdom, and the Slavonians, among whom he went, by order of the sovereign pontiff, to preach the gospel. Assisted by the letters of this courageous apostle, Alfred, in the ninth century, composed the first complete description of the Slavonian countries. The missionaries, and the commanders on the frontiers, made successively known the tribes on the Oder and the Vistula. In the writings of Ditmar of Merseburg, we see appear for the first time the Poles, under the name of Polenia. Attempts were made to plant the vine among the Slavi, whom it had been found impossible to convert. This task was undertaken by Saint Otto. The men of the Isle of Rugen did not treat him as they usually treated strangers, whom they drove from their coast: they received him. The saint, who had never heard of the Baltic, was astonished at the magnitude of that sea. On his side, Anscar, a monk of Corbie, under Louis the Debonnair, opened to the Christians the country of the formidable Normans, and traversed the kingdoms of Denmark and Sweden, which till then were little known. The detailed journal of his labours and his perils is no longer extant. Two centuries subsequently, it was laid under contribution by Adam of Bremen, who, combining its observations with those which he had heard from the mouth of Sueno, king of Denmark, composed a tolerably complete description of the northern kingdoms. Here Jutland is copiously described; the isles of the Baltic, the existence of which was not surmised, are pointed out. Adam of Bremen describes the interior of Sweden, of which only the coasts were known to Ohter and Wulfstan; he names Ostrogothia and Westrogothia, already mentioned by Jornandes, and also Wermeland, and the cities of Birca, Sigtuna, and Skara; he is the first who speaks of Helsingia, which had long *been a desert, and perhaps,* at some unknown *epoch, the abode of the Huns.* He enlarges on the interior of Russia, of which till then nothing but the name had been revealed. He speaks of Kiow, its capital; though in the Sagas the Russian empire, is called Gardavike, and Holmgard, now Novogorod, is mentioned as the principal city of that rising empire. He extends his description to the British isles, and, copying the fables of antiquity, he applies them to the countries which he had not seen; an example followed by the men of the middle age, as a tradition of the manner of Homer and the Greek geographers. We find the same mania in the Description of Wales, and in the Picture of Ireland, by Gerald Barry, (Giraldus Cambrensis,) who lived under Henry II.; his ducks growing upon trees, his fish with golden teeth, and his monsters half man and half bull, are specimens of his credulity.

To this obscure period belongs the work of Dicuil, an Irish monk. It contains an extract of the measurements of the Roman empire, which were made under Theodosius, and some particulars on the Nile and the Scotch isles. This book was first given to the world by Walkenaer, and has been commented on by Letronne.

The clergy, meanwhile, masters of public instruction, and the kings of the feudal ages, encouraged geographical studies; William of Wykeham was one of the protectors of that science while it was yet in its infancy. Warton has cited the following directions, given by the good prelate, in his letters of foundation of a new college at Oxford:—"In winter, when, in consequence of the festival of the Lord, or of his mother, or of some saint, a fire is lighted for the brothers, in the great hall, the said brothers and the scholars may, after dinner and supper, amuse themselves in a decorous manner, by singing hymns, and other blameless pastime; as likewise by conversing quietly on *the poetry of the chronicles of the various kingdoms and wonders of the world,* and upon all that constitutes the ornament of the clergy." We know with what admiration was received the public reading, thrice repeated, of Giraldus's Picture of Ireland. We know, also, the especial care which William caused to be taken with respect to the description of his conquest. The Doomsday Book, the most ancient of statistical records, is a proof of it: that work contains a circumstantial account of the soil and the inhabitants of England, its products and its forces, its riches and its industry, at the close of the eleventh century (1080-1083)—with the exception of the principality of Wales, and the counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Durham. The description of the March of Brandenburg, made from 1375 to 1377, by order of the emperor Charles IV., is a counterpart of the registry which was formed by the orders of William.

bable, however, that geography would remained in a languishing state, con- n the limits of our Europe, had it not ie great revolutions of Asia, which, by ou the scene a multitude of tribes till own, brought them into connexion en of the west, and induced the latter tary and China. Their attention was attracted by the conquests of the rho advanced as far as into Poland, d Hungary. On the other hand, the rinces had lavished immense riches, umerous armies, in their sanguinary They found themselves on the point ntirely the fruit of so many sacrifices, :xpelled from Jerusalem. Those long iven them a much better knowledge ntal countries. They conceived the nding in Genghis Khan a support Turks and Arabs, and of keeping him istance from Europe, which trembled nd of his victories and his ravages. the chief motives of the missions y kings and sovereign pontiffs, to ai, to Ruysbroek or Rubruquis, and or Anselm. Their zeal and their piety :d by the image of Religion in tears, and bedience to the voice of that daughter that those pious missionaries, who de- ach as learned moderns, the gratitude hers, traversed unarmed the coun- enty barbarous tribes, and fearlessly themselves to a ferocious conqueror, aining with blood at once the banks ag-ho and those of the Vistula. vels did not equally enrich geography. celin (1245) did nothing for it. The monk, whose relation has not reached s nearly silent with respect to Syria, lia, Persia, and Khowaresm, which he He scarcely mentions the eastern e Caspian, which was the limit of his rsion; and the details of his sojourn Mongols are of trivial interest. It is the narratives of Carpini and Rubru- a we possess in a perfect state, and be a faithful picture of the Mongol That which the Arabians and the authors had previously written, re- he countries which they visited, was known in Western Europe. They first who taught it anything relative f central Asia, as far as the Chinese Carpini enters into some details upon . Cumania, a south-eastern portion of ag the Black Sea; he places on the ires of the Caspian a nation to which e name of Bisermines, a name which eans only Mussulmans. The precise by no means clear of his Naymans, a be, which later travellers pretend to governed by the priest John, or n. Carpini is the first who mentions . The same traveller *speaks of the l, tributary to Kashgar, and gives the veral Mongol tribes; the names do* not agree with those given by Halton, but that is not a decisive circumstance against Carpini. He merely appears to have mistaken some subordinate hordes for principal tribes. His Bastarcas, the neighbours of Russia, are evidently the Bashkeirs, and his Kergis, the Circassians. His Chazares or Ghazari must be sought for in Southern Russia, or the Crimea; to the Georgians he gives their ancient name of Iberians; he speaks of Armenia; and he names the Catea, and other Caucasian tribes. But where must we look for his Parossites, neighbours of the Samoyedes, and not far from the Russians; those poor Parossites, who, not being able to eat, in consequence of the smallness of their mouths and stomachs, were obliged to subsist upon the steam of the victuals which they dressed!

The Itinerary of Rubruquis blends in several points with that of Carpini. But the countries visited by the monkish ambassador of St. Louis are more numerous, and his remarks much more important. He took his way by the Crimea, where he discovered the remains of the ancient Goths who spoke German: he visited the Russian provinces along the Volga and the Caspian Sea, then devastated by the Mongols; and he advanced into the deserts between the Don and the Volga, where he found the Mordwines, whom he calls the Moxels, and described as being Pagans. It is almost impossible to identify his excursions in the countries watered by the Sar Daria, and equally so to determine the real position of the country of Organon, which Malte-Brun proposes to place in a valley, near Lake Balcati. Karakorum, the celebrated capital of Cathay, the mere name of which terrified all Asia, was the limit of the travels of Rubruquis. He returned to Europe by the route which he traversed on leaving it; that is, by the countries in the neighbourhood of the Caspian and Armenia.

Of all the travellers of the middle age, Rubruquis affords the most ample information with respect to Prester-John. He gives this name to prince Unkhan, a Nestorian Christian, who resided at Karakorum, and reigned over the Mongol tribes of Merkeit and Keraït. But it is the mass of new knowledge, which he put into circulation, that rendered his narrative valuable to Europe in the middle age. He demonstrated that numerous tribes, and a vast country, occupied a part of the globe which ancient geographers had covered with the waves of the ocean. The Eoüs, that fabulous sea of antiquity, disappeared for ever. The Caspian became an immense insulated lake. His mind was continually bent upon the observation of manners and customs. He was the first to tell that the Mongolian khans drew a considerable produce from the saline lakes of the Crimea; and that koumis, the favourite beverage of their subjects, was procured from the fermentation of mares' milk. He was acquainted, before Marco Polo *was, with the spirit called arrack, distilled from rice; and he describes, with the exactness of a modern naturalist, the grunting oxen of the*

country of Tangut, and the wild asses, so fleet in their pace, of the environs of Karakorum. In Karamania, near Iconium, he remarks the alum works, from which Europe was supplied till the fifteenth century. And he was the first, since Ammianus Marcellinus, who pointed out rhubarb as a medicine.

But of all the travellers of the middle age, the most celebrated is Marco Polo. It is to him that the modern geography of Asia owes its birth; and, though six centuries have since elapsed, it is still from him that it borrows more than one of its chapters. Marco Polo is an authentic witness of that famous Mougol nation, then master of the world; and of that China which was so long the unknown cradle of a very advanced civilization. A judicious observer, though sometimes misled by the ideas of his times, he has bequeathed to us a great number of facts in natural and moral history, bearing on them a stamp of truth to which our knowledge daily renders homage. Simple and sincere, like Herodotus, he often conceals disguised truths under fabulous recitals. In short, by pushing back towards the east the boundaries of Asia, the discoveries of the illustrious Venetian stimulated the genius of Columbus, and led him into the unknown routes where a new world was awaiting him.

The travels of Marco Polo embrace a period of twenty-six years, from 1271 to 1297. He undertook them, in company with his brother and uncle, after the election of Gregory the Tenth. His two relatives had already lived in the East for several years, engaged in commercial affairs. They had visited the banks of the Volga, Sarai, Bolghar, (the residence of one of the grandsons of Genghis Khan,) the great city of Bokhara, and pushed on, beyond the known extremities of the East, to the residence of Kublai, emperor of the Tartars, from whence, by the lesser Armenia, they had returned to Europe. They had promised Kublai that they would revisit his court; they kept their word, and set out, in 1271, with the youthful Polo, the son of Nicolo, who was then nineteen years of age. The Itinerary of this journey is of high geographical importance. It shows us an immense line, traversed in the interior, and also in the east and south of Asia, as well as in the seas which lave the southern coast of that great continent. This line comprehends the countries between the Black Sea and the Caspian, Persia, the territory of the Turkomans, Bokhara, Badakshan, the Belur mountains, Kashgar, the deserts of Lop and Kobi, Pekin, Eastern and Southern China, a part of the Sunda isles, the navigation of their surrounding seas, that of the seas beyond the Ganges, of the Gulf of Bengal, the Malabar coast, the Persian Gulf, &c.

The narrative of Marco Polo is generally the result of personal observation. There are, however, hearsays mingled with the text, and so confounded with it as to cause a difficulty in *distinguishing what belongs to the* traveller from *what he has been told. Hence arises* the uncertainty which exists as to some portions of his route, and several points which he visited. But, such as it is, the text nevertheless remains an abundant mine of facts. Marco Polo displays to us the rich industry of Bagdad, Georgia, Tauris, and Persia, and wonders at their silk manufactures. In Badakshan, the salubrious climate of which cures sick travellers, he points out the beautiful flocks of wild sheep, the agile horses, and the mines which furnish the balas ruby, lapis lazuli, and other minerals. A natural philosopher on the Belur mountains, he remarks that fire, in that rarefied atmosphere, burns with less brightness and vigour. He describes exactly the animal from which musk is obtained, and the great pheasant. His details relative to Bokhara and China are those of a geographer. He had explored most of the provinces of that vast empire; he does not describe them all, but he traces a rapid sketch of the most important cities, of Cambalu or Pekin, of Nankin, and of the city of Quinsai, the largest in the world, whose innumerable inhabitants every day consumed ninety-four quintals of pepper. He mentions the commerce of Canfu with the Indies and Spice Islands. He says nothing of tea, but does not forget porcelain: he gives this name to the cowries of the Maldives, and is astonished at the scarcity of silver in China, and at its high price compared with that of gold. He speaks of paper money, and of the dearness of furs; and mineral coal, or the black stone, as he calls it, does not escape his observation.

The Venetian traveller has noted down some curious particulars with respect to the north of Asia. He was told, that the soil of that northern country, composed of marshes, was buried under snow and ice for the greatest part of the year; that, instead of carriages, the natives made use of small sledges drawn by rein-deer; and, lastly, that valuable furs were found there in abundance. By these features we recognise Siberia.

Marco Polo was the first who spoke of Bengal to Europeans; but, while he praises its fertility, and the excellence of its cottons, sugar, rice, and indigo, he seems to confound it, as well as Pegu, with the provinces of Cathay. He describes the cities on the eastern and western coasts of India, but he is silent as to those of the interior; this may perhaps be a voluntary omission, for he knows many things concerning those countries; he is ignorant neither of the Indian castes, nor of the aversion which the Hindoos have for the sea, nor their manner of travelling in palanquins, nor the voluptuous dances of their courtesans, nor the scarcity of horses in those countries. He names Japan Cipangu, from the Chinese denomination Shibyn. He places seven thousand four hundred islands in the sea of Cin; he knows also something, from report, of great Java (perhaps the island of Borneo,) abundant in spices, which the Chinese come to purchase. His little Java, where he remained for five months, is certainly Sumatra, on which he gives a tolerable degree of information. The mention which he makes of the isle

of Malaiur and of the city of that name proves that he had heard of that famous people who had spread so far beyond Malacca. His voyages in the Indian seas appear to have led him to the Nicobar and Andaman isles, the inhabitants of which he signalizes as being cannibals and cruel to strangers. He alludes also to Ceylon, and does not forget the pearl fishery. As to Madagascar and the eastern coasts of Africa, he knows them only from Arabian writers, whose fabulous narratives he repeats with pleasure.

If, even now, the travels of the noble Venetian astonish bold and enterprising men, what feelings of admiration must they not have excited at an epoch when the difficulty of communication was so great. Their importance justifies the details into which we have entered; details the more necessary because the relation of these distant wanderings contains a large part of the geographical knowledge of the middle age. Marco Polo is the Humboldt of the thirteenth century.

On the track of this intrepid traveller, and of the missionaries who preceded him, pressed forward other Italian merchants, among whom Pegoletti (1345) deserves to be mentioned. His itinerary is curious as a commercial route; he points out to us the line which was then followed in conveying merchandise from Azoff to China. This line traverses the middle and central part of Asia, Azoff, Astracan, Saracanco or Saratschick in Tartary, Urghonz in Kharism, Otrar in the neighbourhood of Bokhara, Almalekh (Al Malik) in Little Bokhara, Khami (Kantcheou) near the great wall of China, and Cassai, perhaps Quin-sai now Hang-tcheou. The terminus of Pegoletti in the East appears to have been Cambalu or Pekin, named Gamalecco in the Itinerary. His homeward road, which he equally describes, shows that which the caravans of his time followed, in returning from the Indies to the Mediterranean coast.

Religion, politics, and commerce, those three great movers of all great enterprises, continued, during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, to direct attention towards Central Asia. Among the travellers and geographers of the first part of this period, we distinguish Haïton, Oderic of Portenau, and Mandeville, who have added few truths and many errors to the notions which were gathered together by Marco Polo.

The Oriental History of the first contains a general geography of the principal states of Asia, with the exception of the Ultra-Gangetic peninsula and the adjacent isles. Like Mandeville, he places a kingdom of Tarse between China and Turkestan; he gives the name of Igurs to its inhabitants, among whom we find Christians, who make use of peculiar letters. His picture of Turkestan is full of truth; what he says of the Chinese manners is equally correct; it is obvious that he has laid Rubruquis and other travelling monks under contribution, and has profited by the writings of Mongol authors.

Animated by an ardent zeal, and devoting himself to distant missions, *Oderic of Portenau bent his course toward Asia. Reaching Constantinople*, he crossed the Black Sea, landed at Trebizonde, proceeded to Ormus, and took ship in that part for the Malabar coast, where he sojourned for some time. The islands of Ceylon, Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, successively saw the indefatigable missionary; he disembarked on the southern coast of China, and traversed that vast empire from south to north, to reach Kambaleth (Pekin.) His road home was nearly the same which Marco Polo took in going out. It is rather difficult to follow him through this part of his journey, which ends in Thibet, and adds scarcely anything to the knowledge previously acquired. Some new details respecting the Malabar coast, the culture of pepper, the ancient custom of Indian women to burn themselves with the bodies of their husbands, and the religious practices of the Hindoos, and the penances of their fakirs; this is all that appears worthy of being gleaned from his tiresome narrative. One thing is peculiar to him; it is, that he often affirms on oath the veracity of several of his articles, which, however, do not the less appear to be incredible.

Mandeville, an English knight, wandered in Asia at the same time as Oderic, and the conformity which exists in their relations has made it be supposed that the one copied from the other, or that they both drew from a common source. Nothing was then talked of but the wonders of the East. Mandeville wished to become acquainted with them. He left England in 1327, passed through France, and reached the Holy Land. Far from warring there like a true knight, against the infidels, he served the soldan of Egypt, and followed the great khan of Cathay in his wars against the king of the Manci (Southern China.) His itinerary is the same as Oderic's; he equally lays under contribution the geography of Haïton, and transcribes whole passages from the old chronicles of the times. The contemporary monks are accused of having made some of these additions; perhaps Mandeville himself wished to outdo his predecessors. He takes his monsters from Pliny, and his miracles from the Legend. His recitals offer islands inhabited by giants fifty feet in stature, devils who from mountain tops vomit flames upon poor travellers, and a Tartarian lamb which is engendered by a melon. He places his Prester-John in the city of Susa; and the history which he gives of him seems to be mingled with some Indian traditions. His journey has nothing geographical, except some new particulars with respect to Egypt and Palestine.

If a taste for fables predominates in almost all the relations of the fourteenth century, those of the fifteenth begin to discard the colours of the marvellous. Gonzalez de Clavijo appears at this epoch, as a well-informed and veracious traveller. Despatched on an embassy to Tamerlane, by Henry III., king of Castile, he embarked, on the 21st of March, 1403, for Constantinople, from whence he proceeded, by the Black Sea, to Trebizonde, and through Armenia, the north of Persia and Khorassan, to the city of

Samarcand, nigh which Tamerlane was encamped. He describes pompously the banquets which were given to him by the conqueror; and the picture may serve to give us an idea of oriental luxury and industry at that period. In Clavijo we find very curious particulars concerning the commerce of the East. That of Samarcand was flourishing; the Russians and Tartars went thither, to exchange their furs, linen, and leather, for the silk stuffs, musk, precious stones, and rhubarb of Cathay. Tauris, also, then rich and active, received the same articles and exchanged them for the produce of Europe, which was brought by the Genoese. Sultania was likewise a considerable mart; it was the great magazine of Persia and the Indies; the caravans from the latter country arrived there in the months of June, July, and August. Yezd and Serpi also sent caravans; Khorassan transmitted thither its cotton cloth and its spun cotton; Ormuz, its pearls; and the merchants of Cathay, their precious stones and their beautiful rubies. Clavijo was the first who brought us acquainted with this commercial road between India and Europe. He is, too, the first traveller of the middle age who discarded prodigies from his relation; with respect to some places of Asia that relation is still the only document which we possess.

That of the German Schildberger, who followed Tamerlane in his conquests, too vague and incorrect, throws no great light upon geography. We find more instruction in the travels of Josaphat Barbaro, a Venetian noble, who was sent to Tana by the republic, in 1436, and into Persia to the court of Ussum-Cassam, in 1473. He traversed a great part of Tartary during his first absence, which lasted sixteen years. At a later period, he visited the principal cities of Persia, such as Shiraz, which then reckoned two hundred thousand inhabitants; Yezd, enriched by its silk manufactures; Strava or Estrava (the Astrabad of our days,) active, commercial, and populous. His details on Russia are not deficient in interest. The duchy of that name was then weak and scantily peopled, and Moscow contained vast spaces which were covered with wood. He shows us Georgia declined from its ancient civilization, and preserving no vestige of it except corrupt morals. What he says of the Caucasian tribes is unintelligible; the names are too disfigured in this part of his relation, for us to be able to profit by it.

Barbaro closes the long line of travellers who, from the thirteenth century to the end of the fifteenth, traversed the interior of Asia. It is by combining their partial discoveries, and their different Itineraries, that the geographers of those divers epochs essay to trace out a complete outline of the earth. It was by the aid of these imperfect materials that Martin Sanudo, Pietro Visconti, the brothers Pizigani, Girollo, Pareto, Biacno, Bedrazio, Benincasa, Martin Brasi, the F. Mauros, the authors of the map of *the voyages of the Zeni and Marco Polo*, and some *other geographers whose names* are unknown, constructed those rude maps, on which we find recent indications and old ideas mingled together, perverted by ignorance, and accommodated to the necessity of filling up some gaps or supporting absurd hypotheses. In many of these maps we see Europe, Asia, and Africa represented as a large island, and Africa terminated to the north of the equator by the sea, as it was believed to be by Eratosthenes and Strabo, whose ideas had kept their ground in Western Europe.

The maps of Sanudo and Bianco contain the greatest part of the European states, and trace the three northern states, which are connected with Russia by a very narrow tongue of land. The shape of Asia is quite formless, and the Tartars occupy the north of that part of the world. On other maps, belonging to the epoch in question, we find some indistinct indications of the discoveries made to the west of Europe and Africa, in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries. The mention of an island Antilia, placed to the west of the Canaries, exists on some of these maps, and particularly on those of Bianco, Bedrazio, and Pareto. The learned Buache endeavours to prove that this Antilia is merely one of the Azores isles; and he partly founds his opinion on its being very near to the latter. The map of Bianco may have given rise to this opinion, which, however, seems to be destroyed by the map of Pareto, with which the French geographer was unacquainted. On the latter, Antilia is situated at a very considerable distance from the old world, and quite to the west of the Atlantic Ocean. Hence originates the hypothesis, which is maintained by some well-informed men, that a knowledge of this Antilia, whether true or fabulous, was obtained by Christopher Columbus, and determined him to undertake his immortal enterprise. We shall presently state what was his idea of that distant land, and to what quarter of the earth it was assigned by him.

On the maps of the fourteenth century we likewise see a trace of the western coast of Africa, previously to the Portuguese discoveries, which might lead to a belief that, in doubling Cape Nun or Non, and advancing to the south, those hardy navigators only ploughed a sea which had been visited before. A map of the date of 1346, written in Spanish, presents Cape Bojador as a known point, which had been doubled by mariners. A manuscript, existing at Genoa, preserves the remembrance of an expedition, which sailed about the same time from Majorca, for the mouth of the river named Vadamel or Rui Jaura, probably Rio do Ouro. The Canary Isles appear on this map of 1346, perhaps from the descriptions of the Arabians, and even the island of Madeira is laid down, on another map of 1384, under the name of *Isola de Leguame*, the Forest Isle, which is the real meaning of its present appellation.

But it is time to quit the imperfectly known labours of the middle age, and the epoch of uncertain discoveries; it is time to pay our last tribute of homage to the unfortunate precursors of the Gamas and Columbuses, who were wea-

by the billows of the ocean, or ship-
pon some desert shore. A new career
open to our sight; a new era is on the
mmencing for geography. At the call
Henry, the conquerors of Ceuta, com-
d, pushed forward upon the waves of
c. Having long been in contact with
and familiar with the Arabic language,
ese had gained, from the geographical
that nation, information respecting
ey knew something of the Canary Isles
eral points on the western coast; they
e idea of the gold mines of Guinea. The
the Jew merchants had given them
the interior of the country, the riches
hey vaunted. It was, however, impos-
ıem to penetrate across the continent.
sh populations, exasperated against the
Christians, closed the passage against
the chivalric and adventurous spirit,
spread through all classes, from the
e throne down to the nameless indi-
ı not to be repelled by such an obstacle.
en of prince Henry resolved to reach
of gold and spices, by following the
the ocean.
ın had till then been the boundary of
ı. Tradition announced frightful mis-
o whoever should attempt to double it.
ion vanished, in 1433, before the efforts
ı. About the same time John Gonzales
Tristan Vaz were driven upon the coasts
Santo and Madeira by storms. The
ıd soon witnessed the establishment of
ıt Portuguese colonies, and the Sicilian
e and the Cyprus vine growing on the
ı ancient forests. Other navigators dis-
ıe Azores, which at first were imagined
Antilles of the maps of the cosmo-
and this induced Martin Behaim, in
f the world, to lay down Cathay to the
of them: the discovery of them was
eted till 1450. It was nearly about the
:h that Senegal was found, perhaps for
d time. Five years afterwards, the Cape
ı became one of the conquests of Cada
hose voyages have a genuine scientific
ıo clear and precise are his descriptions,
y does he describe the appearance of
ı, the depth of the sea, and everything
ı be of use to navigation. To him we
ıdebted for a narrative of some of the
ıs of his times, among which must be
that of Pietro da Cintra, who, follow-
: exploration of the African shore, was
ɔ reach the coast of Guinea, and went
ath of Sierra Leone, as far as Cape
. The death of prince Henry did not
p to the impulse which he had given.
did not cease to inspire the Portuguese.
was opened; to arrive at the goal re-
ly common perseverance. Each year
he knowledge of some new land. Navi-
hose names are forgotten, reached, in
Prince, St. Thomé, and Annobon isles,
situated under the equator. A year
before, the Gold Coast had been visited by John of Santarem and Peter Escobar; about the same period, Diego Cam reached the mouth of the Zaire; and Alfonso d'Aveiro landed in the territory of Benin, from whence he carried back pimento to Lisbon, where it had long been known. Lastly, in 1486, Bartholomew Diaz attained the southern extremity of the African continent, which he named the Cape of Storms; but the genius of king John saw there the Cape of Good Hope; he gave to it that name of fortunate omen, and soon every doubt ceased to exist as to the possibility of circumnavigating Africa.

The first navigators who landed at Benin, learned from the natives that, at the distance of two hundred and fifty miles eastward of their country, there dwelt a prince who adored the cross. Nothing more than this was necessary to induce a belief that the kingdom of Prester-John, which had so long been sought for, was to be found in Africa. On the faith of this indication, the Portuguese monarch sent successively two monks to Jerusalem, and Covilham and Alfonso de Paiva to Alexandria, to gather information concerning this Christian king. After several journeys in Egypt, to the gold mines of Sofala, to Calicut, and to several commercial cities of the Indies, Covilham transmitted to Lisbon some particulars, not about Prester-John, but, which was of far more value, respecting the rich countries of the East. His despatches were a long while on the road; and, before they arrived, two Portuguese Jews, who had long lived at Calicut and Ormus, gave to the king the most circumstantial information relative to the Indies and their various dependent kingdoms. These documents, in conjunction with the narrative of Bartholomew Diaz, determined the expedition of Vasco da Gama, which, in 1497, was sent forth to discover the Indies. The Cape of Good Hope is doubled; the genius of the storm is vanquished; an unknown sea is entered; the world of the ancients is entirely destroyed; soon a hundred civilized kingdoms, Arabs or Indians, Mahometans or idolaters, balm-breathing isles, and precious aromatics, are about to be disclosed; an entirely new face of nature is on the eve of appearing; and it is a small nation enclosed within a circle of mountains, at the western extremity of Europe, which is to open the path that leads to the land of the sun.

After having passed the southern point of Africa, Gama turned his sails towards its eastern shores. They were known only by the Arabs. They were now for the first time beheld by Europeans. The admiral explored a part of the Caffrarian coast, which he named the Land of Natal; he discovered Mozambique, landed at Mombaza, a commercial city, and visited the kingdom of Melinda, where he first saw some Indian banians.

The fleets which followed in his footsteps successively completed the discovery of Eastern Africa as far as the Red Sea. This period is fertile in geographical conquests, and prodigies of valour. It was during this age of heroic labours

that Cabral arrived at Quilon: that the great Albuquerque discovered the island of Zanzebar; that he expelled the Arabs from Aden, and that he opened the Red Sea to the Portuguese, and procured for them an exact knowledge of its ports and shores. It was during the same period that Tristan d'Acunha explored in detail the island of St. Laurence or Madagascar; that other navigators landed on the coast of Ajan, under which name the Arabs comprehended all the country between the river Quillimance and Cape Guardaful; that Lopez de Segueira appeared on the Abyssinian coast, and that Francis Alvarez made that country better known by the narrative of his embassy.

The rapidity of the Portuguese conquests in Asia was not less wonderful. Calicut saw Gama land in 1498. Between that remarkable year and 1516, less than twenty years, his intrepid fellow-countrymen spread themselves from the states of the Zamorin to China; they visited as conquerors, and often described correctly, some of the maritime kingdoms of Malabar, the Coromandel coast, the Gulf of Bengal, and the peninsula of Malacca; they established themselves at Ceylon, and at the Ankedives and Maldives, and made known Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and most of the Moluccas, as well as a part of New Guinea: traversed the Chinese seas, discovered the islands of Lew-chew, and were driven by storms as far as the shores of Japan.

Such were the results of that enterprising spirit, that contempt of danger, that ardent love of glory, which inspired the descendants of the men who were formed in the school of prince Henry, and led by the Gamas, the Albuquerques, the Perez, the Segueiras, the Castros, the Silveiras, the Andradas, the Almeidas, and so many other captains, who bore the honour of the Portuguese name to that quarter where the immense eastern ocean seems to have fractured into a thousand islands the vast mass of Asia.

While they were following, towards the east, the path of fame and fortune, Spain, in spite of itself, was drawn into the gigantic project of Christopher Columbus.

If the limits to which we are confined would admit of such an excursion, justified by the splendour of a high celebrity, we should pause for a moment on the life of the illustrious Genoese; we should present that life, full of agitation, of glory, and of bitterness, as the link which unites the history of the old world with that of the new; as the most interesting fragment of the annals of human kind; we should delight to retrace the wonders of genius; reflective boldness contending against the prejudices of ignorance; and incalculable services repaid by all the ingratitude of the great ones of the earth. In that narrative would be compressed considerations of the highest order. We should have to speak of an unknown world appearing all at once, and deranging the political combinations and the whole political and commercial system of the ancient continent; giving a new impulse to the movements of civilization; creating in Europe new enjoyments and new wants; and transforming its chivalric spirit into an adventurous cupidity. But the inquiry into such important objects is forbidden to us; and in the memorable enterprise of Columbus our attention must be occupied by the progress of geography alone.

Blind panegyrists have endeavoured to add something to the glory of the illustrious navigator, by representing him as a magician who divined the existence of America. A knowledge of the geographical documents of the time will alone suffice to destroy such a supposition. Columbus, as we have already said, neither had nor could have such an idea; he knew all that was known by the most able men of his period. He thought, as Aristotle, Marinus of Tyre, Ptolemy, and other ancients thought, that the shores of India must approximate tolerably near to the coast of Spain. The cosmographers of the middle age followed this opinion in their defective delineations; and, possessed with another singular idea, namely, that there must exist lands in another part of the globe, to serve as a counterpoise to the known continents, they inscribed at hazard on their maps, in the west of the Atlantic, imaginary lands or islands, to which they gave the name of Ante Insulæ. One of them had the appellation of Antilia, whence is derived the French name of Antilles. These islands did not indicate a new world, but the beginning of Asia. Toscanelli believed them to be separated from Japan, or Cipango, only by a space of 225 leagues; and in his idea, as in that of Columbus, no foreign lands were interposed between Europe and the extremity of the Asiatic continent: this immense interval was filled up by the ocean alone.

It was these unknown waves which Columbus purposed to cross. This generous resolution was the result of a profound conviction. He believed in the spherical form of the earth, and in the truth of Marco Polo's information. As early as 1474, Paul Toscanelli, whom we have recently mentioned, advised the king of Portugal to try the western route in order to reach the land of spices; advice which he supported by a map, which pointed out the probable but very erroneous distances between Europe, the southern provinces of China, and the Indies. The suffrage of such a cosmographer inspired Columbus with new ardour. But that which his genius displayed to him as a demonstrated truth, was considered as the dream of a madman by the heads of contemporary governments. Genoa, his native land, and Venice also, repelled the gift which he wished to make to them, of new realms and immense riches. The king of Portugal endeavoured to keep him inactive, and deceive his confidence. Six years of refusal awaited him in Spain. The stupid ignorance of Ferdinand's ministers and courtiers was stronger than their cupidity. At length, his star gained the ascendant: a priest who had influence with Isabella became his protector. The queen comprehended his idea; and, amidst the joy which was caused by the capture of Granada and the

of the Moors, he was summoned to His services were bargained for; the viral was conferred on him, and three ks, with ninety men, were placed at l. Who knows not, that, after having tend with a mutinous crew, which point of returning to Europe, a feeble through the darkness, revealed to ras navigator another universe; that, 92 and 1498 he discovered the archi- he Antilles, and, in the latter year, to the coast of Terra Firma and the the Orinoco; and that, in 1502, he e shores of the continent from Cape Nos to the harbour of Porto Bello? world knows also, that Columbus he dregs the cup of ingratitude. The nat does not bear his name; and the was the first European who, loaded , traversed that ocean the waves of id been the first to measure.

i of this wonderful discovery awoke ambition. America was regarded as as the region of gold, and the theatre The companions of Columbus, other and a throng of intrepid and cruel , rushed upon it. We will not fol- in the scene of their exploits and ve must confine ourselves to ascer- marily the result of their geogra- ers.

o had accompanied Columbus in his age, returned, in 1499, with Americo Florentine, and a skilful navigator; l the coasts of Guiana and Terra explored them completely. On his to Europe, Americo published the t of the new continent; and the capricious fame bestowed upon him which goes beyond the pretensions test conquerors—that of attaching a vast portion of the globe. As to Americo to the discovery of Brazil, pported by Malte-Brun, it must be unfounded. The portion of the Cape Augustin was not visited by 01, when he was in the service of and, as early as 1500, Pinson and reached the shore of that immense country, which afterwards received the name of Brazil.

Meanwhile, other parts of the American shore were reached at wide intervals. But it was less the land that was sought than a passage, by which the Indies might be reached. It was to find this, that Pinson passed the line and proceeded to the south far beyond the Gulf of Paria; that Giovanni Caboto, a Venetian, penetrated much to the north, where he discovered a large country, which his sailors named New found Land, and sailed along the American coast to Virginia.

It was likewise with the same design that Corte de Real, a Portuguese captain, directed his course, in 1500, towards the shores which Cabot had explored. He visited Newfoundland, examined the river St. Lawrence, and coasted Labrador, till he reached the bay which now bears the name of Hudson, and to which he gave the name of Anian, a strait which the geographers of the sixteenth century considered as leading into the great ocean; the search after which gave occasion for many expeditions, and powerfully contributed to the progress of the geography of the North American coasts. But, at the epoch in question, it was not by the north alone that attempts were made to reach the Indies; the hope of making their way to those isles which are perfumed by the cinnamon and the clove, determined the Spaniards to seek an avenue to the south of the new continent. Solis perished in an enterprise of this kind, after having made known the Rio de la Plata. Magellan, more fortunate, more able, or better informed, discovered the formidable strait which bears his name, and was the first who conducted a European vessel into that immense sea, which, very appropriately, has been called the Pacific Ocean.

That ocean was already known. Vasco Nuñez de Balboa had seen it, in 1513, from the summit of the mountains of Panama. Sacrificing to the mania of the age, he advanced up to his waist in these new billows, and, with his naked sword, thought that he was taking possession, for the king of Spain, of this sea which occupied one-half of the globe. This discovery completed the demonstration that America was not joined to Asia.

CHAPTER III.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF GEOGRAPHY—*Concluded.*

r years had elapsed since the voyage , when vague reports of the great- lence of Mexico excited the cupidity iards. Grijalva, who had been di- plore Yucutan, had discovered, in of the coast of New Spain. Cortez invade this vast country. In the ree years it became his conquest, ay inscribed it *on its maps. Fifteen Peru, covered with corpses and* ruins, was given up by Pizarro to the insatiable ambition of his masters and the investigation of science. Cortez was possessed of splendid qualities; his lofty mind was open to generous inspirations; he displayed infinite zeal in seeking a passage to the north of America, similar to that which Magellan had discovered in the south. *He did not succeed;* but the discovery of California and of the Vermilion Sea is still one of his titles to respect in the eyes of posterity.

From that time it was known that California was an extensive peninsula; an ascertained fact, which, nevertheless, did not prevent some systematical geographers of the seventeenth century from converting it into an island.

The inquiry after the supposed strait was pursued with ardour; it was productive of some real discoveries. Rodriguez Cabrillo, a Portuguese in the Spanish service, pushed to the forty-fourth degree of latitude, and gave a name to Cape Mendocino. Francisco Galli advanced to 47½ degrees, and made known a part of those coasts to which the English of our days give the appellations of New Georgia and New Cornwall. The English now entered upon the career, and began with great success. There is nothing wonderful in this: the intrepid Drake, a consummate mariner, was entrusted with the task of gaining renown for their flag. In 1578 he all at once displayed it on the shores which, before they were really acquainted with them, the Spaniards supposed themselves to possess. Drake traversed the Straits of Magellan; tossed about by tempests, he was driven to the south, where unknown lands met his view. He discovered, under the name of the Elizabethian Isles, the western portion of the Terra del Fuegan archipelago; perhaps he reached the most antarctic point of America, to which, at a later period, the Dutch gave a name. The winds ceasing to retain him in this quarter, which he had no intention to explore, he steered to the northward, and visited the coasts already seen by Galli and Cabrillo, which he allowed himself to denominate New Albion. A learned Frenchman has deprived him of a usurped honour, and compensated for this by restoring to him that which is really his own. This was doing a service to his memory. It is to be regretted that such an investigation was not entered into by the ancient geographers. Had it been done, New Albion would not have appeared on maps with a name which it ought not to bear; and the Elizabethian Isles, sought for in vain out of their proper site, would not have been looked upon as fabulous, and the erroneous opinion that those isles formed a part of the austral continent, would not have continued to be, for many years, one of the errors of science.

Twenty years later, the coasts, as far as Cape St. Sebastian, (42 degrees,) were explored by Sebastian Viscayno, who discovered the harbour of Monterey. One of the ships of his squadron, commanded by Florez, reached the 43rd degree, at the mouth of a river or an opening. Later, this was converted into a strait, which was called Martin d'Aguilar's passage; but neither the passage, nor the river, nor the opening, have ever been seen again.

Such are, with respect to the north-west coast of America, the only discoveries which are historically proved to have been made in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Let us pass to the opposite side, and there trace the progress of geography during the same period.

We have already spoken of the voyages of Cabot and Corte de Real. They were followed by other navigators; and, though their attempts were equally fruitless, the result of them was to enlarge the domain of geography. Ponce de Leon discovered Florida; John Denis and Casmart laid down the map of Newfoundland; Thomas Aubert brought the first savages from Canada; Verazzani, who was in the service of Francis I., navigated the shores of that country, reached the 50th degree of latitude, and returned without establishing a colony there. Jacques Cartier was the first who explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence; he ascended the river as high as three hundred leagues from its mouth, called the country New France, and circumnavigated Newfoundland.

It was now the year 1534, and the Strait of Anian still continued to elude all search. For some time the search was discontinued; but the belief in the existence of the strait remained deeply rooted in the minds of navigators. The career was resumed by the English. Frobisher, in 1577, while seeking for it, rediscovered the southern part of Greenland, which he named West Friesland, and passed through a strait, in the 64th degree of latitude, between some islands in Hudson's Bay; a strait which has mistakenly been transported to Greenland. His fellow-countrymen followed the same track. Gilbert arrived in the harbour of St. John (Newfoundland) and employed himself in examining the country which extends to the southward. The unfortunate Sir Walter Raleigh reached that part of North America, to which the name of Virginia was given in honour of queen Elizabeth. Other navigators of that nation pushed far beyond those latitudes. Among the most fortunate and the most daring is John Davis, who visited the western coast of Greenland, and followed up the discoveries of Frobisher (1585-1587.) In his first voyage he penetrated to the latitude of 66° 40', and discovered an arm of the sea, which is improperly denominated Davis's Strait, it being as large as the Baltic. In another voyage he pushed as far as the Isle of Disco, and found Cumberland Strait to the west. The ice stopped him between Iceland and Greenland, and the furthest point which he reached appears to be Sanderson's Hope, about the 77th degree of latitude. Twenty years after, one of the most celebrated mariners of modern times, Hudson, appeared in those icy seas, and continued the labours of his predecessors. His efforts were rewarded by happy results. In his voyage, he enlarged the knowledge which had been acquired respecting the eastern coast of Greenland; which coast he explored up to the 80th degree. In 1609, he discovered the river which bears his name; and, in the year following, Hudson's Bay, a real inland sea, to which the name of bay is not at all applicable, and is preserved only from habit. It is known that Hudson was deserted by his crew on some unknown coast, and that Thomas Button was sent out in search of him. The journal of the latter navigator has not been published. It appears, however, that he examined some part of Hudson's Bay, discovered the Nelson river, and made important observations on the tides.

s explored, in 1615, by Bylot. In
year he returned thither, to seek
rest passage; William Baffin accom-
pilot. This voyage is one of the
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phy. Bylot and Baffin advanced
's Strait. Directing their course
ey coasted along the shore, dis-
Sound, Cape Dudley Digges, Hack-
Thomas Smith's Sound, Cary Isles,
d Lancaster's Sounds; these navi-
ed to the 78th degree of latitude.
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Those which succeeded were of
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period, (1608,) Samuel Champlain
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g the great *ocean to be explored;*
second voyage of Grijalva, under-
taken by his orders, seems to have had that purpose. The result of it is imperfectly known. It is supposed that he discovered a part of the land of Papua, as it is also believed that Saavedra discovered New Guinea. The voyage of Magellan had demonstrated the possibility of sailing from the American coast to the eastern shores of Asia. It was imagined that, in the western portion of that vast extent of sea, there existed islands rich in gold, and that to the south there was spread out an immense austral continent, which was laid down as more or less distant from the equator, according to the system of the geographical designers.

The expedition, commanded by Mendana, which left Callao, in Peru, on the 10th of January 1568, had less for its object to verify these conjectures, than to reach the Moluccas by the shortest route. Mendana took his way across the great ocean. We will not follow him in his course, which he estimated at 1450 leagues. The discovery of several islands was the reward of his perseverance. In the group which he places between the seventh and twelfth parallels, the land or isle of Guadalcanal, and the isles of St. Christopher, and Isabella, are particularly distinguished. It was on the latter land that was celebrated the first mass that was ever performed in the South Sea isles. This voyage, the most important which the Spaniards had undertaken since the discovery of the New World, gave birth to most of the fables with which their historians amused Europe for more than a century; they did not forget to identify these islands with the golden isles, of whose existence they had been dreaming; they received the name of the Isles of Solomon, and their position was for a long time one of the most uncertain and obscure points of geography. De Brosses, Pingré, and Dalrymple, have made this archipelago travel from the group of Espirita Santo to New Guinea, with which the learned Englishman believes it to be identical. Thanks to the labours of Bunche and Fleurieu, we now know that the Isles of Solomon are no other than Surville's land of the Arsacides, the New Guinea of Shortland, the exploring of which has been completed by the French admiral d'Entrecasteaux. The purpose of Mendana's second voyage was to establish a colony on the Solomon Isles. But so much in its infancy was then the art of determining latitudes and longitudes, that the Spanish navigator could not find again his own discoveries. He had the honour of first naming the Marquesas; he visited the San Bernardo isles, which Byron, in 1769, was pleased to call Danger Isles; and he discovered also the island of Santa Cruz, to which Cartaret, unauthorized, gave the denomination of Egmont Island, the principal of Queen Charlotte's Archipelago.

It was in this last voyage that Quiros, the friend and companion of Mendana, added faith to the idea of an austral continent; an idea which, *as we have seen*, was floating among the *geographers* of the period. Neither Magellan nor Gallego had suspected the existence of such

a continent in that part of the world; an inquiry after it had not been the special object of any voyage; but the discovery of Santa Cruz made Quiros imagine that the unknown land was at length found. It is in the two memoirs which he then presented to Don L. de Velasco, that we find, for the first time, a scientific and profound discussion of this great question, which is no longer one since the voyages of Cook, Surville, and Weddell. Geography is indebted to Quiros for the discovery of numerous islands. The Pacific Ocean no longer seemed an immense desert. Had he been encouraged and supported by a government eager for real glory, and less greedy of gold, Quiros would have been the Christopher Columbus of Oceania. The greatest part of the islands perceived or visited by this able navigator have been recognised. His Dezana is seen in the Osnaburg of Wallis, Boudoir of Bougainville, or Matei of Cook; his Sagitaria island answers to the Otaheite of Wallis and Bougainville; his Nuestra Senora de la Luz, to the Picde l'Etoile of Bougainville, and his Terra Austral del Espiritu Santo is the same with the New Hebrides of Cook.

With this voyage of Quiros is connected that of Louis Vaez de Torres, one of the captains of his squadron. Separated from his admiral by a tempest, on quitting the *austral land* he steered to the west, and, after coasting along a great country for *the space of eight hundred leagues*, he reached the Philippines, where he gave an account of his discoveries. As in this navigation Torres could coast on the south, for eight hundred leagues, no other land than the southern side of New Guinea, it results that he was the first to pass the strait which Cook had no right to call Endeavour Strait.

These were the last efforts which were made by Spain to enlarge the world. Mendana, Quiros, and Torres terminate the list of her intrepid navigators, in the meridian of her power.

Already the Dutch, patient, indefatigable, and coolly daring, had encountered the sea of Ice. Their sails already covered the eastern seas, and they had established numerous factories in India, and the Sunda and Molucca isles. The word factories sufficiently denotes, that it was less the genius of science than of commerce that directed their enterprises. It was in the same spirit that they followed up the Spanish discoveries in the great ocean. The desire of reaching the Moluccas without doubling the Cape of Good Hope gave rise to the celebrated voyage of Le Maire and Schouten round the world (1615.) For the first time the southern extremity of America was navigated; Cape Horn became the counterpart of the Cape of Good Hope. Staten land was discovered, and Le Maire had the honour of giving his name to the strait which separates that land from the continent. The route which led most promptly and safely into the South Sea was found; voyages round the world had ceased to be dangerous. The navi*gation of Le Maire in the* great ocean made *known that sea studded with isles* and shoals, named the Bad Sea, near the Dangerous Archipelago of Bougainville. In the northern part of it he discovered the Bottomless, Waterland and Fly Islands. His course led him between the archipelago of the Friendly Isles and that of the Navigators, where four small islands still preserve the names which were then first given to them: these are the Traitor's, Good Hope, Cocos, and Hoorn isles. It is to be regretted that, by deviating from the line which till then had been followed, the prudence of Schouten prevailed over the zeal of Le Maire; had they continued in the same latitudes, the honour of rediscovering the lands of Quiros, and of reaching the eastern coast of New Holland, would have rewarded their perseverance.

The route of their fellow countryman Tasman (1642) was much better chosen. That great navigator, who was directed to ascertain the extent of the austral continent, different parts of which had already been visited by the Portuguese and some Dutch, justified the confidence which was reposed in his talents. He aggrandized the domain of geography, by the addition of Van Diemen's Land on the north, the island of Van Diemen on the south, the western coast of New Zealand, which he called Stateniand, the archipelago of the Friendly Isles, a group of the Fidjis, and various other islands. He gave the name of New Holland to the north-wes part of that continent, which he first saw; he began the examination of the east, north, north-west, and west coasts of this immense country. He contributed, by his first voyage, to banish the opinion which indefinitely prolonged to the south and west the parts of it which Edel, Leeuwin, Nuyts, and De Witt had previously seen. In his second expedition, he ascertained the southern extent of the great Gulf of Carpentaria, which he had explored, beginning from Van Diemen's bay. We shall soon see that his principal discoveries were completed by Cook and d'Entrecasteaux, and that all the navigators who have followed in his track, have paid homage to his correctness, the prudent course which he pursued, and his profound studies in the nautical art.

The name of Van Diemen, which Tasman gave to some of his discoveries, was that of the governor of Batavia. This statesman deserved such an honour. He was animated by the desire of extending the possessions and the commerce of the company; and geography numbers kim among its protectors. It was he who, after Tasman's first return, (1643) despatched Captains Vries and Schaep towards the north of Japan, with instructions to explore those stormy seas, and make discoveries there. Before this voyage, geographers delineated as they pleased the famous land of Jesso; it was made either a continent, or a large island between Asia and America; and was even joined to what was then called Russian Tartary. Yet, about 1620, the missionaries in China had given some particulars respecting the island of Saghalien, and the existence of a strait called Tessoi. Pere de

Anges had taught us that the island of Saghalien was called the land of Aino Moxori, and that it was separated from Japan; but doubts remained as to its junction with Jesso. At a later period we shall see those doubts removed, by La Perouse and Broughton ascertaining the Strait of Sangaar, such as we now know it.

The discovery of some of the southern Kuriles belongs also to the expedition of Capt de Vries.

Between this last voyage and the first voyages of the Spaniards to the Carolina Islands, to which little attention was paid, there elapsed forty-three years which were barren of discovery. The seventeenth century was on the point of closing in this inactive manner, when Dampier appeared upon the scene, joining the daring of a buccaneer with the science of a geographer. To this celebrated navigator we owe the knowledge of the Bashee Isles, of which he has given a complete description. He discovered, in 1699 and 1700, Sea-dog Bay in New Holland, and visited an extent of three hundred leagues of the north-west coast of that continent, which has since been traversed by Baudin and Captain King. He was the first who passed the strait that bears his name, and which divides New Britain from New Guinea. He added much to our knowledge of this great island, along the northern shore of which he coasted, and he made some other discoveries in this quarter, and on the coast of New Ireland. He reached Ceram by a route which had never before been taken. Such is the sketch of his labours.

During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the people of Western Europe were not alone the seekers of new lands. The spirit of adventure animated also the men of the Icy sea. In 1636 Russian vessels descended the Lena, and coasted the shores of the terrible Northern Ocean. The coasts of the Eastern Ocean were reached in 1639 by Dimitri Koplow; and, in 1646 and 1648, Bomyshlan and Deshnew, proceeding from the Kolyma to the Anadir, doubled Cape Tschukotskoi. These bold expeditions were but little known at the time, and many years elapsed before the maritime discoveries of the Russians were turned to any account.

Let us now recapitulate, in a few words, the names and general labours of the geographers of the epoch with which we have been occupied.

The ideas of the Greeks and Romans, on the form of the earth, vanished from the period when Columbus found a new world, when Gama passed the bounds which had stopped the genius of the ancients, when Magellan succeeded in convincing the multitude that the earth is a globe. Then was felt the necessity of relinquishing the vague method of the authors of the first planispheres, and determining the positions of places, by fixing their distances from the equator on the first meridian; but there was a want of precise observations to execute such a plan.

The system of Ptolemy had taken too deep root to be overthrown at once. Attempts were at the outset made, to accommodate it to the new acquisitions. The nautical remarks of pilots and hydrographers, who had accompanied the early navigators, were made use of, but they were injudiciously employed; there was a want of the science requisite to harmonize partial observations, and these same observations, which were exact when insulated, became blunders in the general maps. The maps of the world, of the brothers Appian, of Ribeiro, and of Gemma Frisius, are the first which represent the newly discovered hemisphere. Sebastian Munster combined in his maps all the discoveries of his age, and received from his contemporaries the name of Strabo, which he certainly did not deserve. Ortelius at last introduced a little order into geography. He led the way in separating ancient from modern geography. He did much for both, and applied erudition even to cartography. The map of the world which he placed at the head of his Theatrum Orbis Terrarum, already displays a system different from that of Ptolemy. Mercator, much less learned than Ortelius, but a better mathematician, employed more boldly the scanty number of observations which had been made in his time. He is the real founder of positive geography among the moderns. He began the edifice upon solid foundations, and left it in the hands of Cluverius, Riccioli, and Varenius. Thanks to those celebrated men, erudition, astronomy, and high mathematical science, became the auxiliaries of geography. It was now easy to see what it would one day be, when, rich in fact, and precise documents, it would quit the route of conjectures. The Sansons, the Blaeuws, and Bureus, followed with success in the path which their masters had opened, and began to pay attention and attend to the details of geographical maps, the external appearance of which became also less fantastical. A secondary branch of science, that of statistics, the beginning of which we have noticed in the middle age, was developed under the pens of Sansovino, Botero, and Davity. Germany did not delay to manifest its superiority in this pursuit. Conring, one of its professors, did more and better than those who had gone before him. The Elzeverian republics, a specimen of the statistical labours of that age, prove that the limits of the science were then equally uncertain and incomplete.

Let us return to the history of discoveries. The eighteenth century is opening. Geography is about to be indebted for its progress to a zeal which is pure from all ideas of conquest, from all mercantile considerations. Noble and perilous enterprises will be undertaken, with no other purpose than to enlarge the stock of knowledge, and to bear to unknown tribes the benefits of our arts and our industry. The spirit of doubt and inquiry, and the genius of civilization, will preside over their researches, and throw light on them with their torches.

About 1722, the belief in the existence of austral lands, a belief which was still in full vigour, prompted the voyage of Roggeween. He imagined that he had found them in his antarctic *New Britain*, which was only one of the Malouines, or Falkland Isles; he thought that the

ice which he met with in the 62nd degree of latitude, belonged to a continent; a second error, which Debrosses adopted at a later period. Roggeween gave the name of Easter Island to a land, supposed to be that which was seen by Davis. Such is the opinion of Cook and Dalrymple, with which Fleurieu does not agree. His navigation in the Bad Sea, made known a group of isles, part of the Palliser Islands of Cook, and subsequently produced nothing but the unimportant discovery of the isles of Bauman, Roggeween, Tienhoven, and Groningen, the position of which is uncertain, but which Fleurieu places between the 8th and 15th southern parallel, and the 158th and 160th of west longitude from the meridian of Paris.

The route of Roggeween was badly chosen; it crossed that of Quiros, and nearly followed that of Schouten. This was making the worst choice. This reproach may be applied also to some of the navigators who succeeded him. It seems as though, by quitting the western line and going abruptly to the north, they had taken pleasure in avoiding New Holland.

Meanwhile, the period destined for great discoveries in the Pacific Ocean is close at hand. Nameless lands are about successively to appear, like a broken archipelago, between Asia and America. Byron, Wallis, Carteret, succeed each other in the career. The exploration of the Malouines, and the discovery of some small islands, such as those of Danger and Disappointment, were the only result of the labours of the first navigators. The second and third held a more important place in the annals of science. Wallis refound, in the beautiful Otaheite, the Sagitaria of Quiros, and he made known the southern chain of the Dangerous Archipelago. Carteret touched at the Santa Cruz island of Mendana, approached the famous isles of Solomon, and was the first who passed through St. George's Channel, between the New Britain of Dampier and the land which since then received the name of New Ireland.

While these fortunate navigators were naming unknown lands, and opening a new route for European vessels, Bougainville, who had spent the early part of his life in camps, and devoted the remainder to gaining a naval reputation, traversed the Dangerous Archipelago of Wallis, and touched on the shores of Otahelte, which he believed to have been hitherto unexplored. This would only have been an additional success: he had enough of others to ensure his glory and entitle him to the gratitude of his country. He was the first Frenchman who, circumnavigating the globe, had enriched science with new discoveries. He made known and named, before any one, the fine archipelago of the Navigators, the Louisiade, the north-west coast and the northern point of the Arsacides or Solomon Archipelago, and found again, in his great Cyclades, a part of the austral land of Espiritu Santo which Quiros had discovered.

It is singular enough, that the idea of an *imaginary island, not far from* America, and rich in the precious metals, should have been reproduced after an interval of two centuries, and given rise to the expedition of Surville, in 1769, as it had occasioned the voyage of Mendana, in 1669; and it is also one of the caprices of fortune that the same error should have led the two navigators towards the same countries. The identity of the Solomon Isles and of the Arsacides seems to be nearly demonstrated. It was in 1769 that Surville discovered the greatest part of the south-east and north-east line of those coasts, of which the opposite side was discovered, in 1788, by Lieutenant Shortland.

The most distinguished navigator of the eighteenth century, he whose fame is thoroughly popular, Cook, now comes to traverse the great ocean, where fate reserves for him the honour of nearly completing the exploration of the fifth portion of the globe. His labours were immense, and their results are of high scientific interest; but it must in justice be stated, that, strictly speaking, he made fewer new discoveries than perfected those which had been made.

His first voyage made New Zealand known in its true aspect; he proved that it consisted of two islands, and gave his name to the channel which separates them. He discovered a part, and carefully explored the greatest part, of the eastern coast of New Holland, from the northern point of the strait, not yet perceived, which divides it from Van Diemen's Island, to the northern extremity of that long line of coast, which then received the appellation of New South Wales.

His second voyage, undertaken to verify the existence of austral lands, nearly resolved a question which had been debated for two centuries. It is ascertained that there exists no land, of any extent, on this side the regions which he reached, up to the seventy-first degree and some minutes of southern latitude. In this memorable voyage he explored several parts of New Zealand, and of Quiros' archipelago of Espiritu Santo; he examined with care all the Society and Friendly Isles, and discovered New Caledonia, the eastern coast of which he explored.

His third expedition also had for its object to settle some weighty geographical questions. The voyages of the Spaniards to the north of California, and of the English in Hudson's Bay, still left in obscurity the northern extremities of America. Nor was there any better information as to the extremities of Asia, where it approaches the New World. The possibility of penetrating into the great ocean from Hudson's Bay, and the existence of a passage by the north of Asia, still remained to be examined. The Russians, whose efforts in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries we have mentioned, had in fact attempted to resolve a part of this problem. They had, in the early years of the eighteenth century, continued their exploratory voyages on the northern coast of Siberia, and perceived an extensive polar land (1724.) Meanwhile, on the map of Ysbrandt Ides (1693) and of Strahlenberg (1736) their discoveries were badly delineated.

Behring, (1728,) after having explored all the northern shores of Kamtstchakta, supplied the first idea as to the separation of the two continents. His second voyage (1741) led him much too far to the south, on the American coast, where he discovered Cape St. Elias; nevertheless, the same uncertainty continued to exist, with respect to the extent of the sea which separated America from Asia. It was even not ascertained whether the lands opposite to Kamtstchatka, of which something was indistinctly known, formed a part of America, or were intermediate isles between the two continents. Such was in Europe the state of the question, when Cook came forward to resolve it. His navigation along the north coast, from 30½ degrees north of Cape Mendocino, to Behring's Strait, was not sufficiently continuous to decide whether America was on this side an unbroken continent; but, as I have elsewhere said, if he did not prove it, he divined it. In his route to the middle of Behring's Strait, he did not lose sight of the American coast, and, had not the ice stopped him in 77° 44′ of latitude, and prevented him from passing onward to the north, he would have explored the polar sea, and ascertained the direction of the northern coast of the New World.

This last voyage of the great navigator increased on other points the mass of geographical knowledge. He resumed the exploration of New Zealand, and of the Friendly and Society islands; he made better known the southern part of the peninsula of Alaashka, and of the Aleutian islands, which were so named by Novosilzoff, in 1745. He discovered the western portion of the Sandwich archipelago, and on this success he particularly congratulated himself; he delighted to dwell in his journal upon the beauty of those islands, and the advantages which they held out to navigators. Far was he from foreseeing that he was eulogizing his tomb, and that he was to fall under the blows of the very men who revered him as a deity! The whole world wept for his tragical end.

Far from cooling the zeal of mariners, this event incited it still more; and to earn fame by maritime discoveries became the ambition of the enlightened people of the continent. Louis XVI., who wished for the happiness and glory of his subjects, and whose geographical knowledge was equally extensive and profound, ordered the expedition of La Perouse, the plan of which he himself drew up. Some of its scientific results have been made public. But the fate of that French navigator and his companions remained, for nearly half a century, one of the mysteries of the tomb. It was at length ascertained, by Captain Dillon, an English officer, that the unfortunate La Perouse was lost, with all his crew, off Vanikoro, one of the Polynesian islands.

The labours of La Perouse, on the American north-west coast (1786) threw new light on those of Ayala, Bodega y Quarda, and Captain Cook. That coast, from Mount St. Elias, near the 60th degree of latitude, was followed from north to south as far as Monterey. *A port, which had escaped the research of Captain Cook, received* the name of Port des Français; and several ports, which till then had been but imperfectly examined, were correctly laid down. The second important point of La Perouse's maritime campaign (1787) was the examination of the Japanese Sea, which includes the islands of that name, and the coast of Eastern Tartary. It was here that science was highly indebted to him. The doubts and uncertainty which hung over this portion of the globe were nearly dispelled. The sea between Tartary and Japan was traversed up to 51½ degrees of latitude. The separation of Saghalien Island from the Tartarian coast, by a channel which becomes narrower and shallower in proportion as it advances towards the north, was at length established. The discovery of the Strait of La Perouse, to the south of Saghalien, completed the demonstration that Jesso is an island, separated on the southward from Japan, by the Strait of Sangaar, which had long been known. Thanks to his investigation, the northern coast of Japan resumed its true position of latitude.

These ports were re-explored by Krusenstern and Broughton. The latter (1797) traversed and defined the Strait of Sangaar, and laid down the coasts of it as we now find them. He proceeded some leagues further to the north than La Perouse, and furnished ample matter for dispute, by maintaining that the strait between Mandshur Tartary and Saghalien did not exist, and that the latter is a peninsula. Some doubt still, indeed, exists, whether Saghalien is not joined to the continent by a narrow sandy isthmus, which may, perhaps, be of recent alluvial formation. Krusenstern did not approach this channel, but he visited that which lies to the north of the mouth of the Saghalien river, and he carefully examined the coasts to the south-east and north of the land of that name, and the western coast of the island of Jesso, which previous navigators had not explored.

That part of his instructions which, in consequence of the loss of La Perouse, was left unfulfilled, was executed by d'Entrecasteaux, during his voyage in search of his unfortunate fellow-countrymen. Our confined space does not allow us to go into the particulars of this memorable expedition. Suffice it to say, that this celebrated navigator thoroughly explored the western coasts of New Caledonia and Bougainville's Island, the northern part of the Louisiad archipelago, and nearly three hundred leagues of the south-west shores of New Holland; that is to say, all Lewin's Land, and almost the whole of Nuytsland. To the south of Van Diemen's Land, he discovered a series of channels, roads, and ports. He established the identity of the Solomon or Mendana isles with the land seen by Surville and Lieutenant Shortland; an identity which had been suspected by Buache, and indicated by Fleurieu.

While he was performing this great voyage, commerce, on its side, did honour to itself by useful labours, and, though occupied in the pursuit of fortune, did not neglect glory. Between 1785 and 1792, Hanna, Lowrie and Guise, Meares

and Tipping, Portlock and Dixon, Barclay, Colnett and Duncan, all Englishmen, Grey, an American, and Stephen Marchand, a Frenchman, drawn to the North American coast by the fur trade, made various discoveries there. Marchand did not confine himself to this; he added some islands to the Marquesas group, and carefully examined the Sandwich and Marian isles. During the same period, Billings and Saritschef, Russians, and Bustamente, Galiano, Martinez, and Haro, Spaniards, explored the same American coasts to the 60th degree. Malaspina elucidated some parts, from 57° 1′ to 59° 34′, and ascertained several positions in the neighbourhood of Nootka. These scattered and fragmentary researches enriched geography, without completely solving the question as to the continuity of the continent. Fate reserved that favour for the persevering zeal of Vancouver.

This able navigator, the companion of Cook in his last voyages, examined with the utmost care all the north-west coast, from the mission of Santo Domingo, on the Californian shore, as far as the minor extremity of Cook's Inlet in 61° 29′ north. He ascertained that, to the north of the 49th degree, the whole coast is bordered by islands of various magnitude, and the inlet of John de Fuca only ended in a strait, which led into the great ocean. In passing along the island of Quadra and Vancouver, he convinced himself that, to the south of Monterey, the country offers a double chain of mountains, of which the ridge nearest to the sea is the lowest. He explored, with minute attention, the archipelagos of King George and the Prince of Wales, the Admiralty Islands, &c. This voyage, in which Quadra, a Spaniard, bore a part, demonstrated that the idea of a north-west passage is chimerical; that there exists no possible point of communication for ships between the great ocean and the interior of the continent, nor practicable channels between that sea and the Atlantic. The negative solution of that problem was not the sole result of his voyage. The exploring of New Holland on a line nearly as extensive as that of d'Entrecasteaux; the discovery of King George's Harbour, and of the isle of Oparo, the natives of which resemble those of the Friendly Islands; and the new examination of the Sandwich Islands, are labours which would suffice to give fame to a less celebrated navigator than Vancouver.

The voyage of Kotzebue connects itself, in one of its most important results, with the last-mentioned expedition. That able officer, of the Russian navy, led the Rurik through Behring's Strait, and found to the east, under the 67th parallel, a bay which extends to the south of the sixty-sixth. We owe also to him the discovery of the Radak isles, which form the north-east extremity of the Mulgraves, the chain which links the Carolines with the islands of austral Polynesia, and which till then had only been seen in passing by.

Let us now quit known and determined shores. *It is on the coast* of New Holland that we must *follow the progress of geography*. Bass and Flinders, animated with an equal desire to increase the stock of knowledge, appeared there at the close of the 18th century. Furneaux, a companion of Cook, had seen, without being aware of it, the large strait which divides Van Diemen's isle from the continent. Bass, by himself, discovered it in 1798. He and Flinders united all the materials necessary for constructing the chart of the new channel, and laid down the coasts of Van Diemen. Both of them had already traced a part of the course of King George's River, and made a plan of it. The exploring of Hervey and Glass House Bays, and, in 1801, 1802, and 1803, of the southern shore of New Holland, Torres Straits, and the Gulf of Carpentaria, place Flinders among the best navigators, and most distinguished hydrographers, of the age.

While Flinders was executing with equal skill and good fortune the operation with which he was entrusted, Baudin, commanding the Geographer and Naturalist, traversed the same shores, and earned fame by explorations not less difficult than those of his English rival, nor less well conducted. The survey of Spencer's Gulf was a counterpart of that of the Gulf of Carpentaria, and disappointed the hopes of the learned, who believed that this vast continent was divided by an arm of the sea.

But it is on the west and north-west coast of New Holland that we must look for the principal labours of the French expedition, those of which the merit and priority cannot be disputed. Its researches on the south coast gave it a right to claim numerous discoveries, mingled, indeed, with many points justly claimed by Flinders and the English navigators. This French voyage enriched every branch of natural history with an almost incredible number of individuals in each of the three branches.

It was reserved to Captain King to do for New Holland that which Vancouver had done for the north-west coast of America. Throughout four years, (1818 to 1822,) he steadily pursued his difficult and toilsome investigations. He traced a safe and easy line of route through Torres Straits, and ascertained a line of coast, to the extent of 690 miles, between Cape Hillsborough and Cape York. The geography of the north and a part of the north-west coast was settled from the Wessel Isles to George the Fourth's Harbour; between Cape Vincent and George the Fourth's Harbour, he pointed out a long series of archipelagos in front of the continent; and his observations on the tides in this quarter led him to conjecture that, in this line of 510 miles, almost unknown, and behind these archipelagos, some great openings might be met with. We must add, that, with respect to the eastern coast of Holland between 21 degrees of latitude and Cape York, Captain King's chart gives new details, which are to be found neither in Cook nor in Flinders. The last navigator had settled the geography between Cape York and the Crocodile Islands, and his outline is preserved in the chart of Captain King, who, between those isles

and the 119th degree of Parisian longitude, has added little to the charts of Freycinet.

The voyage of Freycinet (1818—20) is connected with the progress of the geography of the Marianas, Timor, Ceram, the Moluccas, and the Carolines. Many islands of this archipelago, not laid down on the chart, were visited by the Uranie. A new island, surrounded by dangerous reefs, was discovered, eastward of Tonga, and a great number of positions were rectified, among others, those of Danger, Pylstart, and Howe islands.

The expedition of Captain Duperrey (1822-1825) is connected with the preceding voyage, of which it is in some measure a continuation. The results obtained in this new campaign were of equal scientific importance. If the Coquille, like the Uranie, did not make any of those great discoveries, which were the happy lot of the navigators of the eighteenth century, it was because the chance of meeting with unknown lands was diminishing daily. The great features of the world we are now acquainted with; the details alone are left to our perseverance. We have reached the age of perfected discoveries. It is on the excellence of our scientific methods and instruments that our sailors of the nineteenth century must found their reputation.

The navigation of the Coquille, nevertheless, enriched our maps with some new lands. The Duperrey Isles, d'Urville's Isle, in the vicinity of the Maskill Isles, and the Isle of Clermont-Tonnerre, in the eastern part of the Dangerous Archipelago, are named for the first time. The points reconnoitred and rectified in various quarters are numerous. Among the most important may be mentioned those of the Series Isles, in the Dangerous Archipelago; Ine, Vayag, Syang, and Waigeou, in the Papuan Archipelago; Joyi and Guabé, in the Moluccas; Dog, Volcano, Weter, Babi, Cambi, Ombai, and Penter, belonging to the Timorian Isles; and the isle of Barabora, and some other points of the Society Islands. In this expedition the geography of the Carolines was carefully settled; Strong or Wahan Island, which had been seen by the American captain Crozier, was touched at for the first time by a European vessel; and St. George's Channel, between New Ireland and New Britain, as well as the north-east part of New Zealand, were examined and accurately determined. Such is the dry nomenclature of the principal results of Captain Duperrey's voyage.

While the two French navigators were traversing Oceania and the islands of Eastern Asia, Smith, a captain of the English commercial marine, advanced to the south as far as 62½ degrees, and discovered, under the sixtieth degree of west longitude, a group of islands, which he named the South Shetland; an archipelago without inhabitants, and almost without vegetation, which may be considered as the furthest boundary of animated nature in the south.

The point which *Captain Smith had reached* was soon gone beyond. Captain Weddel, who had before navigated the austral seas, now viewed South Shetland, discovered, to the eastward, the South Orkneys, and then, steering between ice islands arrived, in 75° 15′ north latitude, and about the 33d degree of west longitude, in an open sea, where he saw many whales, and innumerable sea birds.

Since that period, the career of discovery in the austral regions has been vigorously pursued, by the English, Americans, and French; but especially by the English. Almost on the antarctic circle, and at considerable distances from each other, Enderby Land, the Sabrina Isles, la Terre Adelie, the Balleny Isles, and Peter and Alexander Isles have been brought to light. But the most important discovery of all, is that of a much more southern land, extending nearly from the seventieth to the eightieth degree, containing a volcano, 4000 feet high, to which the name of Erebus has been given. To this land, the discoverer, Captain Ross, has given the denomination of Victoria. Geographical inquiries are still being carried on in that quarter.

In recounting the labours of an age which knows no limits to its researches, the transitions must be as rapid as the march of science, and abrupt as the desire of letting nothing escape. Let us hasten therefore from the southern to the northern poles, where courageous efforts are about to succeed each other without intermission. To name Behring, whom we have before mentioned, Morovieff, Offsin, Koskelef, Feodor Menin, Prontschistchef, and Schalauroff, is to indicate sufficiently the share which, during a great part of the eighteenth century, Russia had in exploring the north and north-east coasts of Siberia and the neighbouring isles. The labours of these various mariners extended over a period of forty years, from 1728 till about 1770. It must be remarked, that of all the attempts made by those whom we have noticed, to double Cape Tchoukotskoi, not one had been successful, since that of the Cossack Deschneff, in 1648. These reiterated efforts had, nevertheless, the result of rectifying some very serious errors in the outline of the Siberian coast. A multitude of intermediate points, between the Strait of Walgatz and Cape Schelatskoi, were better determined by these perilous and difficult navigations.

But was it, then, impossible for Europeans to reach Behring's Strait, except by the great ocean, and the passage which had been so sought for by Corte de Real, Hudson, and Baffin, was it, in reality, never to be found? Were the discoveries of the latter navigators imaginary? Where did those of Hudson end to the north and east? Was it with good reason that certain geographers had expunged from their charts the coasts of that sea the limits of which had been laid down by Baffin? What were the boundaries of the eastern coast of Greenland? did they stretch lengthening towards the pole, or, bending *to the west*, could they be turned? Such were *the principal* questions which had been agitated

by the maritime nations of Europe, since the beginning of the eighteenth century.

In seeking to resolve them, Knight, Barlow, and Vaughan (1719-1722) vanished without leaving any traces. Middleton (1741-1748) pushed as far as 66° 14′ north latitude, and the 85th degree of west longitude, and was not more fortunate. His voyage, however, made better known the north of Hudson's Bay, and, especially, the deep inlet between Cape Dobbs and Cape Hope. The examination of the same points by Captains Moore and Smith (1746) is the only result of their navigation, which might have been rendered useful to science, if, directed more to the north, it had reached the Icy strait of Middleton, which has since been ascertained to be the Repulse Bay of our maps. With these attempts are connected those of Hearne and Mackenzie, which, though made by land, were in fact undertaken with a maritime object. The courageous explorers raised two flag-staffs on the shore of the hyperborean ocean, in the sixty-ninth degree of latitude; but what immense intermediate gaps still remained, between the Icy Cape of Cook, Mackenzie's River, Hearne's, and the last ascertained points of Repulse Bay!

If we were writing merely a dry catalogue, other names might be noticed; but here fruitless attempts must be passed over in silence. We must confine ourselves to mentioning, that the voyages of Captain Phipps, and of the Danes Lowenorn, Egede, and Roth, have established the fact, that the eastern coast of Greenland is flanked by a wall of ice, and that eternal winter forbids all approach to it.

It might seem that so great a number of fruitless efforts would have sufficed to banish the north-west passage into the region of impracticable speculations. The hope of penetrating through Baffin's Bay into the polar seas, still, nevertheless, was preserved in England, and it reckoned almost as many partisans among geographers as among experienced mariners. Yielding to the wishes of both those classes, the government ordered the first expedition of Captains Ross and Parry. The result was, the verification of the coasts of Baffin's Bay, such as they had been described by that great seaman. Ross penetrated into Lancaster's Sound, but he had scarcely proceeded ten leagues, when he imagined that he saw his progress prevented by land in the west. He went no further. This idea, though held by an officer of merit, met with unbelievers even in his own vessel, and it was not regarded with favour in England. Parry was accordingly sent out to decide whether it was public opinion or Captain Ross that was in the right. He entered the unexplored Lancaster Sound, which he soon ascertained to be a channel open directly to the west. He passed into that of Barrow, a continuation of the former, discovered Prince of Wales's Inlet, penetrated into it as far as the 72nd degree, then returned to the north, and navigated a polar sea, where Bathurst, Cornwallis, Melville, and other islands, successively *met his view; the ice stopped him* at the 116th meridian, and compelled him to return. The purpose was not attained, but the geography of those high latitudes was entirely changed. The whole region to the north of Lancaster's Sound, and of the south as far as Labrador, was found to be intersected by channels and islands, and Greenland was detached from the continent of America.

Science awaited still further services from Parry. For the third time he quitted England, with Captain Lyon as his companion (1821;) he appeared in Hudson's Bay, and penetrated the Icy Strait of Middleton, as far as Repulse Bay: he first entered Lyon's Inlet, a narrow arm of the sea, which goes deep into the continent, and terminates in Ross Bay. Winter detained him for eight months in an island which bears the name of that dreary season. He quitted it to continue his progress to the north. The point of Melville Peninsula was doubled, and the Strait of the Hecla and Fury, which is intersected by the 70th degree of latitude, and communicates with the polar sea, received the vessels of Parry and Lyon. The 85th degree of longitude was the term of his daring navigation. Its result was, an exact exploration of the old discoveries of Bylot, Baffin, Middleton, and Fox, and of the north-east part of Melville Peninsula. The discovery of the Hecla and Fury strait, and the seeming impossibility of passing it, in consequence of the currents from the west, which brought together enormous masses of ice, seemed to demonstrate that, as an absolute fact, a north-east passage was no longer problematical, but that it must remain useless to navigation, whether it was approached on the northern coast of America, by passing between Melville Peninsula and Cockburn's Island, or by Prince Regent's Inlet, or by other entrances to the west and south of Melville Island.

It is known that, in Parry's fourth voyage, the genius of shipwreck triumphed over the genius of discovery. The Fury and Hecla penetrated to a considerable distance down Prince Regent's Inlet, from Barrow's Strait, but their further progress was stopped by the ice. The Fury was so severely crushed by it, that she was obliged to be abandoned, and Parry had no alternative, but to return home with the Hecla. A daring attempt, which he subsequently made, to reach the pole by passing over the ice with sledges, was obliged to be desisted from, after having been persevered in till the latest possible moment. Ross, also, anxious to retrieve his reputation, resolved once more to explore the northern ocean. He was furnished with means by the munificence of a private individual, (Mr., now Sir Felix Booth,) and, this time, fortune was more favourable to him. Penetrating into Barrow's Strait, he bent his course to the south, and explored a hitherto unexplored line of coast, of several hundred miles in extent, forming the western side of Regent's Inlet. To this, which he believed to be joined to the mainland by a narrow isthmus, he gave the name of Boothia Felix. Recent inquiries have, however, excited doubts whether

it is not really an island. The situation of the north magnetic pole was ascertained, or very nearly so, by his nephew, Commander Ross, who accompanied him. The discoveries of Ross were in danger of remaining for ever unknown. For three winters he was shut up by the ice, and escape seemed to be becoming hopeless, when he and his crew were happily perceived by a whaler, and taken on board. While, after an absence of four years, he was proceeding home, an overland expedition was on its way to the coast in search of him.

Despatched to America (1819) to second by land the efforts of Parry, Franklin made the points explored by Hearne the centre of his operations. He descended the Coppermine river, entered the polar sea, and advanced eastward as far as Coronation Gulf, in 110 degrees west longitude. His second expedition (1825) had a double object. On reaching Mackenzie river, he employed one-half of the force under his orders, under Captain Richardson, in surveying the coast between the Mackenzie and the Coppermine rivers; while, with the other half, he himself proceeded to examine the shores between the Mackenzie river and Cook's Icy Cape. The first part of this exploration was performed with complete success. Franklin himself was about to reach the last point visited by Cook, when his strict instructions compelled him to stop short, about eighty leagues from Icy Cape. While these discoveries were being made, Captain Beechey passed Behring's Strait, and advanced as far as the 156th degree of longitude; thus approaching within about a hundred and sixty miles of the point which had been reached by Franklin.

The next expeditions were undertaken by the Hudson's Bay Company. The result of the first (1837) was to complete the survey of that part of the American coast between the points at which Franklin and Beechey had stopped. This was effectually done. In the following year, a party pushed about 120 miles along the coast, in an eastward direction, opposite to which they saw an extensive insular tract, which they called Victoria Land. But it was in 1839 that the most important of these expeditions took place. In that year, Messrs. Simpson and Dease descended the Coppermine river, bent their way to the eastward, crossed Coronation Gulf, and penetrated as far as 68½ degrees of north latitude, and 98 degrees of west longitude; thus filling up the outline of the coast as far as Boothia. One of the most easterly points to which they advanced had already been visited by Captain Back, when he was sent in search of Captain Ross. He discovered a large river, near the Great Slave Lake, tracked it to its mouth, and found that it terminated in an extensive bay of the Arctic Ocean.

While the obscurity which hung over the northern coast of America was being thus removed, something was also done to diminish that which concealed the eastern coast of Greenland. More than four hundred miles of coast, between the 68th and 75th degrees of latitude, were explored by Mr. Scoresby and Captain Clavering; and more to the southward some further knowledge was obtained by the exertions of Captain Graah, who was sent out by the Danish government. The Greenland eastern coast appears to be deeply indented with bays and inlets; and it is doubtful whether Greenland does not consist of a cluster of islands.

In this rapid and imperfect sketch we have endeavoured to mention the principal explorers of the coasts of the globe. Others have since visited some parts which were indistinctly known. Following up the labours of Weddell, Captains King and Fitzroy have thoroughly investigated the Straits of Magellan, the coast of Terra del Fuego, and the shores of Patagonia. All the coast of South America, between the islands of Santa Catalina and Maranhao, have been laid down by Captain Roussin. The examination of the south-west and south-east coast of Africa has been completed by Captain Owen. Captain Beechey has determined the outline of the northern shore of that continent. The geography of the Mediterranean has been carefully settled by Captain Smythe and other English and French officers. The coast of Aracan has been traced by means of scientific instruments; and that of Siberia, thanks to the recent investigations of the Russians, has taken a new form on their maps. Some of the coasts of this frigid region have been carried back more than a degree to the south.

We are, however, far from having made known all those who have distinguished themselves by partial discoveries, or hydrographical labours; to enumerate them all would go far beyond the limits of an abridgment. We have been compelled to confine ourselves to a selection, taking care, at the same time, not to omit any of the most prominent features of the history of geography. The few pages which now remain, we must devote to the names of the travellers who have penetrated into the inland countries of the globe. It is unnecessary to add, that only celebrated names can find a place in this catalogue. It is by describing each country separately, that we shall trace, in detail, the progress of science.

Asia first presents itself. We will begin with the north. Siberia and Kamstchatka remained long unknown to Europe. Bergen and Brandt were the first who touched upon the subject; Krascheninnikoff, Steller, Gmelin and Muller (1733-1743) supplied the earliest correct information. From 1760 to 1773, Chappe d'Auteroche, Pleisner, S. Gmelin, Guldenstadt, Lepechin, Georgi, and Laxman, visited various parts of them. Patrin (1781) and Sievers (1787) travelled in the Altaï mountains. Lesseps traversed the two countries; and, between 1775 and 1825, Billings, Krusenstern, Golownin, Wrangel, Anjou, Litke, and others, contributed to make known the coasts and interior of those frigid lands; with respect to which the great work of Witsen ought also to be consulted.

The Kerghez esteppe was traversed by Gmelin and Pallas; and, between 1771 and 1820, by Bytschow, Bardanes, Doctor Sava Balochi, Mouravieff, and Meyendorff. The names of Gmelin, Guldenstadt, Julius Klaproth (1807,) Parot, Engelhardt, Freygang, Maschoff (1816,) Dommert, Siegfried, and Eichwald (1824,) and, recently, those of Spencer, and other English writers, stand prominent in the history of the exploration of the Caucasus; as does that of M. de Gamba among the examiners of the country between the Black Sea and the Caspian.

Central Asia has been little visited by Europeans, and its geography is but imperfectly known. Jenkinson in 1578, Blankennagel in 1794, Mouravieff and Meyendorff in 1820, and Moorcroft, between 1821 and 1825, travelled in Bokhara and the Khanat of Khiva. But our latest and best information respecting Bokhara is derived from the valuable work of Burnes. Bergman, in 1802-3, gave a tolerably complete picture of the Kalmuks. Benedict Goes, in 1606, and, in the 18th century, Bell, Pallas, Rehman, Macartney, and Timkoski, explored and described some parts of Mongolia.

To the labours of the missionaries in China, which are to be found in the great work of Duhalde and the Lettres Edifiantes, must be added the relations of Lange, Leimbeckoven, de Guignes, and those of the ancient Dutch embassies (1656,) Russian (1692-1719,) of Macartney (1792-1794,) Amherst (1816,) and Timkoski (1820-21.) The narratives of de Mailla, Peter Nults, Valentyn, Klaproth, Henry Hamel, Purefoy, and Basil Hall, are the sources of our knowledge with respect to Corea, Formosa, Hainan, the Lew-Chew islands, and some other countries which are the tributaries of China.

Our information on Japan is gleaned from a small number of observers: we are indebted for it to the voyages of Caron, about 1630; Kœmpfer (1690-1692,) Thunberg (1770-1779,) Haxmann (1792,) Golovnin (1811-13,) Sievert Levsen, a Dane (1820-21,) and to an interesting volume, recently published, which contains the result of the inquiries of those few Dutch traders who are allowed to live in Japan.

Tachard, in 1686 and 1689; Van Vielt, in 1692; and La Loubere, in 1714, visited the kingdom of Siam. Alex. de Rhodes (1627-46) gave the history of Tonquin. Subsequently, the missionary St. Phalte, and two Englishmen, Baron and the navigator Dampier, penetrated into that country. A statistical account of it, and the adjoining countries, drawn up from the narrative of M. de la Bissachou, a missionary, was published in 1811. Bori, Valerius, bishop of Munden, Poivre, and Rochou, preceded the voyager Barrow (1793) in Cochin-China, where Purefoy sojourned (1800-7,) and which was visited by Roberts (1804,) Finlayson in 1822, White in 1823, and Crawford and Burney in 1826.

Major Symes (1795,) Cox, Franklin, Judson, &c. (1813,) make known the Birmans in general, *and the basin of* the Irawaddy from Rangoon to *Ummerapoora. Since 1824, White,* Snodgrass, Edward Alexander, Trant, and others, have added something to the knowledge which we already possessed of this ultra-Gangetic territory.

The progress of the geography of the interior of New Holland has been considerable within the last twenty years. For this we are indebted to the successive explorations of Oxley, Howel, Hume, Danger, Cunningham, and Jamison, and to the recent valuable labours of Mitchell and Grey.

The letters of Wurmb and Wolzogen, and the narratives of Thunberg and of Stavorinus (1767) threw a new light upon the great isle of Java. Its natural history we derive from the labours of Leschenault, Latour (1803,) and Blume (1825.) Raffles, in his important work, has described Java in all its parts. He has done for it what Marsden attempted for Sumatra, and what Crawfurd effected for the Indian archipelago, and Van Wurmb and Radermacher for the island of Borneo.

It is from the era of the establishment of British power in India that we must date our perfect knowledge of that vast country. In the 17th century, Thevenot, Dellon, and Bernier; and, at a later period, Nieuhoff, Schouten, Langhans, and Graaf, travelled there as intelligent observers. Valentyn singly collected more facts than the whole of his predecessors. Some hundreds of travellers have written on Hindostan, Malabar, the Deccan, the northern portion of the peninsula, &c. But it is especially in the works of Anquetil-Duperron, Tiefenthaler, Wahl, Hodges, Legentil, Paulin, St. Barthelemy, Legoux, Flaix, Sonnerat, Orme, Saint Croix, Buchanan, Fitz Clarence, Mrs. Graham, the abbé Dubois, Franklin, Pappi, Malcolm, Jacquemont, and Bishop Heber, that we find the most correct and recent information. The labour of Rennel remains as a monument of what was known in his time. The last edition of Hamilton contains that which is now known.

Since the commencement of the nineteenth century, Webb, Moorcroft, and Fraser, have explored the sources of the Ganges. Those of the Burhampooter are now eagerly sought for. Boulton, Bedford, and Neufville, are among those who have perseveringly engaged in this undertaking.

The immense chain of the Himalaya, which was crossed in 1624 by Andrada, and subsequently by Bogle and Foster, still, only forty years ago, remained unknown. Since 1815, however, we have seen Herbert, Hodgson, Webb, Hearsey, Fraser, Crawfurd, Moorcroft, and especially the two Gerards, measure its aspiring peaks, the loftiest points of the globe, and mark down the last limits of vegetation. Their labours are narrated in the learned memoirs of Colebrooke, Humboldt, Govan, &c. &c.

A part of Thibet was visited by Andrada in 1624; and, later, by Gerbillon and Desidery. Bogle (1774) penetrated into that elevated region. Turner, in 1784, described Boutan, and journeyed into Southern Thibet. Kirkpatrick (1792,) and Hamilton (1802-14) introduced us into Nepaul; and the details which, in 1812, M. Duvaucel col-

ted with respect to Silhet, may serve to describe
it picturesque and unfrequented country.
Cashmire was known to us as early as the
th century, by the travels of Bernier. The
ete followed by Forster (1782) led him into that
eautiful valley and Afghanistan. The estimable
d too early lost Jacquemont was the last who
re us any information respecting Cashmire.
1819, Elphinstone gave to the geographer the
ments of a description of Caubul. His work
recently been enlarged and improved by him.
Persia, so often visited, is, nevertheless, not
ll known throughout; the north of the king-
m remained for a long while without observers.
nong those of the 17th century, Pietro della
lle (1618,) Herbert about 1630, and Tavernier,
re read with interest before the appearance of
ardin's narrative, which eclipses them all. To
period belong also the travels of Kœmpfer,
er, and Schillinger, the German. The 18th
tury reckons a much greater number of
rellers: Hanway, Otter, Bruguière, Charles
milton, Beauchamp about 1782, W. Franklin
7-1788,) visited this kingdom. Napoleon sent
ach officers to reconnoitre the route which
is to India; and, for defensive purposes, the
ernment of Calcutta confided to Sir John
colm the examination of the countries which
ceased the march of Alexander the Great and
Nadir Shah. The officers who accompanied
spread themselves in various directions;
tain Grant proceeded to Mekran and Ker-
n; Pottinger to Beloochistan; Captain Christie
ersed as far as Herat, in Khorassan; Grant
Fotheringham examined the route from Bag-
to Shuster; and Frederick and Macdonald
ner explored the part of the western fron-
which lies on the side of Kermanshah and
ndan, a line which, subsequently, was still
perfectly investigated by General Malcolm
self. To these travels must be added those
er Porter, Jaubert, W. Ousely, Dupré, Drou-
, Morier, Fraser, Keppel, Alexander, &c. &c.;
we shall then have some idea of the principal
ts which must be consulted to form a picture
Persia.

Of the travellers just mentioned, we find again
majority in Arabia, Palestine, Syria, and Meso-
mia. Some countries of Asia Minor were
ersed by Rauwolf (1540,) Olearius (1547,) de
loque (1668,) Maundrell (1696,) Tournefort,
r, Drummond, Hasselquist, &c. Ottoman
, that which witnessed the glorious days of
, Palmyra, and Balbeck, received Wood, Daw-
, Chandler, Le Chevalier, Richter, Sonnini,
ie, Olivier, Leake, Spencer Stanhope, Hamil-
Beechi, &c. The soil and the men of Arabia
described by Niebuhr, Seetzen, Burckhardt,
more recent men of talent; the site of the
of Semiramis, and the land of the patriarchs,
cted the attentive curiosity of Rich, Edward
erick, Keppel, and Buckingham; Volney
d Syria as a philosophical observer; Cha-
briand sought in Palestine recollections and
rs for his admirable *poem of the Martyrs;*
Lamartine, his equal in fame, has recently
trodden the same ground; Buckingham has likewise gathered new facts there, and delineated with much talent the wandering tribes of the desert; and finally, the labours of Captain Beaufort and Gauthier have contributed to determine mathematically the outline of the shores of Caramania, the Black Sea, and the Archipelago.

These, for the last three centuries, have been the principal explorers of Asia.

Africa has more slowly unfolded itself to the gaze of the observer. On that barbarous continent, Mussulman fanaticism, the sun of the desert, Moorish perfidy, and the aridity of its vast solitudes, perpetually bring Europeans into a struggle with death. The regions of the Atlas, defended by the intolerance of the natives, and the sanguinary despotism of their masters, have only been visited at long intervals. Some captives, and monks who went to console or ransom them, were the first Christians who described those lands of servitude. Since 1720, Mouette, Windus, Shaw, Lempriere, Poiret, Desfontaines, Jackson, Ali Bey (Badia,) Macgill, Blaquiere, Tully, Della Cella, Minutoli, Pacho, Captain Beechey, and others, have successively made known a great part of the countries situated between the Lybian Desert, the Atlas, the Mediterranean, the Straits of Gibraltar, and Egypt.

This last country, the cradle of the most ancient African civilization, became, at an early period, the object of a learned pilgrimage to enlightened men. In the 17th and 18th centuries, we find there Greaves, Lebrun, Shaw, Niebuhr, Maillet, Wansleb, Norden, Bruce, Volney, Olivier, Sonnini, Browne, Hornemann, and many more. But other travellers were led thither by a gigantic project: they formed a part of that celebrated expedition which bore at once warriors to conquer, and scientific men to civilize. Egypt was traversed in all directions, as far as the isle of Philæ, examined in every point of view, measured with arms in hand. The description of this antique land was given as a present to the civilized world. The narrative of Denon, and the accompanying atlas, is connected with the splendid labours of the French scientific men. Other travellers succeeded, to glean after them, or widen the circle of discovery. Hamilton (1801) visited the antiquities of Upper Egypt; Legh (1813) penetrated beyond the cataracts; Light (1814) did not go farther; Burckhardt (1813, &c.) examined Nubia; Belzoni contributed largely to make its antiquities better known; and Edmonstone described two of the oases of Upper Egypt; Wise and others have also distinguished themselves. Between 1815 and 1818, Caillaud directed his steps eastward and westward of the Nile, and reached the oasis of Thebes. Between 1819 and 1822, he saw five other oases, Meroë, the White River, and the south of the kingdom of Senaar, which Rouppel also reached in 1827.

Abyssinia was visited in the 16th and 17th centuries, by Portuguese and German Jesuits, among whom Lobo, a native of Portugal, was one of the most conspicuous. In the 18th, the physician Poncet, the German Hegling, and the

English Bruce, and, in the 19th, Salt, Lord Valentia, Ruppell, and the two D'Abbadies, have again examined it, and described it with more precision.

The narratives of Kolben, Lacaille, and Henry Hopp, which had little more than the Cape of Good Hope for their object, were followed by the scientific observations of Sparmann, Paterson, and Thunberg; the latter comprehends some of the countries to the north and east of the Cape. Less conscientious than them, Le Vaillant seems to have believed that geography also might have its historical romances. Since 1797, Barrow has penetrated to the Orange River, in thirty degrees south latitude; Trutter and Somerville (1801) have reached Letakoo, the capital of the Bushuanas, and Percival, Lichtenstein (1803-6,) Latrobe (1805,) Campbell (1812-21,) Burchell (1813,) Alberti (1814,) Thompson, and numerous more recent travellers, have shed a new light on the interior of this part of austral Africa.

The western countries of the same continent, as we proceed northward, have oftener been visited by dealers in human flesh and blood than by scientific travellers. The Congo, which was first explored by the Portuguese, is imperfectly known to us by the descriptions of Lopez, Battel, Carli, Bruno, Visconti, and Cavazzi, and by the narratives of Grandpré (1786-87,) and of Tuckey (1816.)

From the voyages of Gotard Artus, Barbot, Grazilhier, Landolph, de Flotte, Palisaot de Beauvais, and Henry Nicholls, we derive a great part of what we know respecting Benin. The geography of Guinea and the Gold Coast owes its progress to the narratives of Desmarchais, Loyer, Atkins, Bosman, Barbot, Snelgrove, Meredith, Dalzel, Smith, Wadstrom, Isert, Bowditch, Hutton, Matthew, and Beaver.

Those parts of Senegambia which are nearest to the ocean have seen Brue, Adanson, Saugnier, Lajaille, Durand, Golberry, and lastly, Mollien, Beaufort, Roger, and Gray, explore the countries in the vicinity of the river, and some portions of the interior; and it was by being wrecked on the arid and inhospitable coasts of the Sahara, that Follie, Brisson, Saugnier, Padock, Adams, Riley, and Cochelet, introduced us into the western region of the desert, as far as the confines of the Atlas, and amidst the cruel Moors who wander in those vast solitudes.

But there would be an enormous gap in this list of travellers, if we were to pass over in silence those to whom science is the most deeply indebted, for having devoted themselves to investigate the interior of Africa.

The Portuguese, if we may put any faith in their chronicles, had a connexion with Timbuctoo, previous to the close of the fifteenth century; they speak of an embassy which, in 1530, was sent to the king of that country. Their real knowledge does not, however, appear to have gone beyond Jenné. In the seventeenth *century, the English also endeavoured to penetrate into this same country of* Timbuctoo; Thompson and Jobson could not succeed; the last went no farther than Jerakonda. De Brue, deceived as to distances, advanced, in 1698, to the kingdom of Galam, at the confluence of the Falemeh and the Senegal. A great number of other attempts were fruitless. With the foundation of the African Institution, at London, began a succession of enterprises, systematically formed for geographical purposes. It was by the north that Ledyard and Lucas, its first travellers (1788,) essayed to make their way into the interior; they died at the outset of their journey. Houghton (1791,) who took the western route, perished at Ludamar. Watt and Winterbottom (1794,) wished to reach the Joliba at its source; but did not proceed beyond Teemboo. Mungo Park (1795) saw, at Sego, the Joliba as large as the Thames, and flowing from west to east. Browne (1793-7) took his course towards Darfur, and made that country known. Hornemann (1797-98) had the honourable mission of exploring Fezzan, and accomplished it with success. Connected with the last two countries is the information communicated by Seetzen, which he obtained at Cairo; and the particulars collected by Mr. Jackson belong to the progress of the geography of the interior of Soudan. The second journey of Park, which had so melancholy a termination, removed all doubts as to the existence of Lake Dibbie, and made known a more direct road between Fissia and the Joliba.

Adams, an American sailor (1810) gave a narrative of his journey to Timbuctoo; but it is doubtful whether he really visited that city, though he certainly gleaned some genuine particulars respecting it. Riley (1815) inserted in his narrative some details concerning Timbuctoo, which were communicated to him by the Moor, Sidi-Hamet, who had been there. The idea that the Congo, or Zaire, was the outlet of the Joliba, gave rise to the unfortunate voyage of Tuckey. At the same period, Major Peddie and Captain Campbell died at Kakundy, in endeavouring to ascend the Rio Nuñez, and visit the sources of the great rivers of Senegambia. The efforts of Gray and Dochard had no other result than to improve the topography of Bondoo. Bowditch, in his narrative, gives some curious particulars as to the names and directions of the rivers of Soudan. M. Mollien (1818) travelled in Foota Toro, Bondou, and Foota Jalla, but could not pass the lofty mountains which separate the basin of the Senegal from that of the Joliba. The notices which he procured, pointed out, however, the road to the real situation of the sources of the latter river. Major Laing (1822) approached them, and saw the summit of the Loma, at the foot of which the Niger begins to flow. To this important journey we are indebted for the geography of Timani, Soolimana and Korankoo. Burckhardt and Ritchie expired, the one at Cairo, the other at Mourzouk, at the moment when they were preparing to penetrate into the interior. Captain Lyon continued the investigation of the southern parts of Fezzan,

the Timbuctoo river disembogued
e Gulf of Benin. The question as to
on of the waters of the Tchad with
he Egyptian Nile was solved in the
Such were the principal results of
rable expedition.
tunate issue of this effort led to a
pedition, in 1825, which consisted of
lapperton, Captain Pearce, and Mr.
The route chosen for penetrating
terior was from the Gulf of Benin.
e was, however, an unfortunate one.
n a fortnight, the pestilential climate
xercise its fatal influence; Pearce and
lied, and Clapperton was attacked by
he partially recovered. Accompanied
d Lander, a faithful and intelligent
perton continued his journey. He
ny unknown and large cities, and
ckatoo, where his strength failed, and
der an attack of dysentery. Lander,
tched over him with the tenderest care,
return to the coast by a route which
e led to important discoveries. Cir-
s, however, compelled him to relin-
purpose, and, in consequence, he re-
Badagry, and, soon after, embarked
Coast Castle for England, where he
1828.
rs elapsed before the last and crown-
n was made. In January, 1830, Rich-
r, and his brother John, departed for
e coast, and landed at Badagry in
The travellers pursued their course,
number of populous states, till they

While the Niger was thus being opened to European vessels, other adventurers were labouring to make their way to the mysterious city of Timbuctoo. Here, again, the palm of discovery was borne away by English enterprise. The attempt to penetrate to Timbuctoo was undertaken by Major Laing, an officer of known courage and talent. Proceeding from Tripoli, he bent his course across the desert, by Ghadamis. In the desert, the caravan was surprised, at night, by a band of Tuaricks, and he received twenty-four wounds. He nevertheless recovered, and reached Timbuctoo on the 18th of August, 1826. He remained there a month, when he was compelled to depart. But he never returned to his native land; he was treacherously murdered in the desert, by a villanous merchant, who had engaged to conduct him in safety to the coast. Nearly two years afterwards, Timbuctoo was again visited by a European. This second visitor was one Caillié, a poor and illiterate Frenchman. Much praise is due to the resolution and perseverance of Caillié, but he has added little to our geographical knowledge. Had not the papers of Laing been lost, we might have reaped a rich harvest from his labours; as he was known to have been highly successful in collecting materials, which would have thrown a light upon the geography of that part of Africa.

The progress made by the geography of the New World must terminate this summary. To the travels of Cartier, Champlain, Lescarbot, Lasalle, and Hennepin, we are indebted for the first discoveries made in Canada, Louisiana,

from truth, gives to his narratives all the interest of romantic fiction. But the late work of Catlin transcends all others in its vivid delineation of everything connected with Indian manners, customs, and feelings. The illustrious Jefferson (1782,) in his Notes on Virginia, shows us that state as it then was, and what it was capable of becoming. Mackenzie was the first who traversed North America from east to west, and reached the northern polar ocean. The Columbia had been discovered, in the preceding year, by Captain Robert Grey. Lewis and Clarke, (1805-6,) journeyed in the western part of the Rocky Mountains, to the sources of the Missouri, and the mouth of the Columbia. Hunt and Crooks reached the same point by another route. Stewart, in 1812, ascended the Columbia, and approached the upper tributaries of the Colorado. Michaux (1801) examined, as a naturalist, the Alleghany Mountains. Brackenridge, in 1811, gave new details on the countries which border the Mississippi. The two journeys of Pike (1806-1807) led him towards the sources of the Mississippi, to the west of Louisiana, and to the sources of the Arkansas, Kansas, le Platte, and Yellow Rivers, and a part of New Spain. On the other hand, the two journeys of Long (1818 and 1823) made him traverse the Rocky Mountains, and brought to our knowledge the sources of the river of St. Pierre, and the lakes of Winnepeg and the Woods. Nuttal (1819) described Arkansas, and some other points of the United States. The whole great chain of the American lakes, and the sources and central parts of the basin of the Mississippi, were viewed by Schoolcroft in 1820. At a later period, Beltrami imagined that he had found out the real sources of the great river, and affirmed that, before him, no one had ever passed beyond Red Cedar Lake. Heckwelder occupied himself in investigating the origin of the American tribes; and the ancient monuments on the Ohio found a historian in Caleb Atwater. Volney turned his attention chiefly to the soil and climate of the United States. Almost the whole of those states were traversed by Mellish; Douglas carefully explored the countries in the neighbourhood of the Columbia; and Warden described the entire of the states of the Union. In the seventeenth century the names of some Jesuits, and in our days those of Dumont, Lepage du Pratz, Foster, Baudry de Lozières, Du Vallon, Perrin du Lac, and Timothy Flint, are connected with the history of our knowledge respecting Louisiana.

It is in the writings of the Spaniards that we must first seek for information as to Mexico. The ancient *historiadores* furnish a picture of that country at the epoch of the conquest. Two centuries later (1746) Villa Senor y Sanchez, in his Theatro Americano, raised the veil which concealed New Spain from Europe. Lorenzano carefully described its topography and political state; and Clavigero its antiquities. To these national sources others were joined. The Mexican coasts were traced by the voyages of Dampier and Wafer. Thomas Gage visited a part of the interior; his excursions in the Gualanas made known those mountains; and the account which he gives of Guatimala reveals all the agricultural riches of the country. A faithful and spirited portrait of Mexico is traced by Chappe d'Auteroche. Another Frenchman, Thierry de Mononville, a friend of science and of his country, bore from the American soil the nopal plant, full of the ova of the cochineal insect, and obtained new information as to the country of Oaxaca, the plain of Theguacan, and the botany of the provinces which he had traversed. But, to be thoroughly known by Europe, Mexico awaited the penetrating eyes of Humboldt. His Essay on New Spain, the most complete picture which has been traced of it, left but very little to be added by his successors. Nevertheless, Bullock, Poinsett, Lyon, Ward, and others, have gleaned with success in a field well harvested, and have shown us Mexico free and independent, but not yet happy, rich, and tranquil. Of Texas, which once formed a portion of Mexico, but has become an independent state, an elaborate account has recently been given by Kennedy.

Henry May, Newport, Dudley, Rochefort, &c. had already voyaged in what are called the West Indies, before Dutertre wrote his History of the French Antilles, a model of correctness, and which still recommends itself by its graceful and unaffected style. Towards the close of the 18th century, Bryan Edwards published the history of the whole archipelago, including the Bahamas, which work was subsequently continued, and much enlarged, by Davenport. Charlevoix, and, about the end of the 18th century, Malouet and Moreau de St. Méry, traced the picture of St. Domingo. Labat more particularly directed his attention to Guadaloupe and Martinico, which Chanvalon, and, in our days, Happel Lachesnaye and Moreau de Jonnès also visited, and made much better known. Dauxion Lavaysse and Cullum procured new information respecting Trinidad, Tobago, and Santa Margarita; and Trophane in the 17th century, Long, Brown, and Beckford, in the 18th, and Dallas and Robert Renny in the 19th, described Jamaica in its civil and natural points of view. Catesby, Marter, Shop, and Mackinnon explored the Bahamas, and settled the geography of those islands. Cuba, relative to which the Viagero Universal contains some curious notices, has been completely illustrated. M. de Humboldt gave a perfect picture of its situation at the time when he wrote; and the recent work of Turnbull offers a faithful representation of the colony in its present improved state.

The learned geography of a great part of South America, especially of Columbia and Peru, takes its date from the celebrated travels of the illustrious observer whose name we have just mentioned (1799-1804.) Manners, languages, antiquities, geology, natural history, and astronomical geography, were all comprehended in the researches of Humboldt and Bompland. But let us resume the chronological order.

The histories of Oviedo, Cavallin, Gumilla, Gil-

lius, &c., were, before the travels of Dupons (1801-1804,) the source whence was derived our knowledge of the eastern part of the Terra Firma, which is included in Columbia, since the American revolution. In these later times, the new republic has seen numerous travellers. M. Mollien visited some of its provinces, and describes the banks of the Magdalena. Colonel Hall followed the routes from Varinas to Valencia, and from Araure to Barquesimento. That from Caracas to Bogota was traversed by a traveller for an English commercial house, who was entrusted with a financial mission. To Captain Cochrane (1823) we are indebted for an interesting journal of two years' residence in that country; and to Colonel Hamilton for a similar narrative. The last two travellers explored carefully the valley of Cauca and a part of Choco.

Peru was not scientifically known to us till after the travels of Ulloa, La Condamine, Bouguer, and Jussieu (1735-1736,) Helm (1788,) and Sobreviela and Barcelo (1794.) Hanke (1794,) Stevenson, Hebras, Proctor (1813-1824,) and many subsequent observers, have traversed the same country, respecting which the Peruvian Mercury (1791, &c.) also contains numerous geographical notices.

Ovalle, Vidaure, Havestad, and Molina, have occupied themselves about Chili, which they have painted in much too glowing colours. The natural history of Molina, especially, is full of doubtful facts and exaggerations. It is in the travels of Frezier, Helms, Hebras, Hall, Stevenson, Caldcleugh, Mrs. Graham, Schmidtmeyer, Miers, and Head, that we must seek for the elements of a good geography of Chili; we may add, and also of the plain of the Pampas, and the republic of Buenos Ayres.

Very curious details, with respect to the natives of Patagonia and Araucania, are to be found in the description of Falkner, the voyages of Byron, Cook, Ulloa, Weddell, Fitzroy, and King, and the Relacion del Ultimo Viage al Estrecho de Magallanes.

The history of Charlevoix contains all the information which had been collected in his time, on the whole of Paraguay, and is still worthy of being consulted. The description of Azara, the fruit of twenty years' residence, (1781-1801) furnishes positive and natural geography with a considerable number of new facts. Of late years, something has been added to the store; though the despotism of Francia, the late ruler, for a long while rendered the country nearly inaccessible to foreigners.

The great South American empire, Brazil, was first described by Staden, a German, and Lery, a Frenchman. To the 16th century belong also the voyages of Atkins, Reniger, Forest, Pudsey, Hare, Lancaster, &c. In the 17th, Barlœus, Piso, Margraff, Knivet, Vasconcellos, and Britto-Freyre, wrote upon Brazil, and described its state at various epochs, either under the government of Count Maurice of Nassau, or under the dominion of the Portuguese. The history by Rocca Pitta, drawn up from the chronicles of the Jesuits, contains too many errors to be consulted with confidence. We must come to the travels of Barrow and Lindley to find more certain information and details. The Memoir published by the author of the Precis de la Geographie Universelle contains all that was known of this colony up to 1806; but the real progress of its geography dates only from the day on which its independence was proclaimed, and it began to communicate with the world. Science then entered with ardour upon a path newly opened to its investigations. Freyrois and Sellow, in the train of the prince of Neuwied, explored Brazil as botanists; Mawe proceeded from Buenos Ayres to Rio de Janeiro, by the route of San Paulo, and afterwards directed his course towards Tejuco, in the mining district. Von Eschwege, setting out from Villa Rica, penetrated to the west of the Rio de San Francisco as far as the Rio Abaitá. Koster and Luccock made rural economy the special object of their observations. Young naturalists were sent to Brazil by various powers; Mikan and Schott by Austria; Dolfers and Sello by Prussia; Duvaucel by France; and Spix and Martius by Bavaria. The narrative of the last-named travellers is the most scientific work which had till then appeared upon Brazil; it conducts us to San Paulo, Villa Rica, the whole province of Minas Geraës, and to the Rio Xipoto, and enables us to penetrate into those distant parts, bordering on the ancient Spanish possessions, which, for the first time, were explored by the scientific Bavarians. Denis, Taunay, Henderson, Caldcleugh, and Walsh, must not be forgotten in the catalogue of travellers in Brazil. They have contributed largely to the preceding stock of knowledge. The travels and inquiries of Saint Hilaire have furnished much that is wholly connected with science, and those of Langsdorff have produced an abundant harvest.

The inland countries watered by the Amazons, were first made known by the very rare description of Christopher d'Acuña, the History of Manuel Rodriguez, and the Annals of Pereira de Berredo. La Condamine plunged into a part of these savage regions, and traversed them through an immense extent. His narrative still remains a geographical authority. About the same epoch, Father Toman (1740) travelled between the Orinoco and the Amazons, and pointed out a communication between those two great rivers, the existence of which has been demonstrated by Humboldt. An additional light has recently been thrown on the course of the Amazons, by the exertions of British travellers.

The discovery of Guiana, by the brave and unfortunate Raleigh, very early found exaggerating and credulous historians. Harcourt, Biet, Pierre Barrere, and Edward Bancroft, successively made this immense country known. The Dutch colony of Surinam has been described by Pistorius, Fermin, and Hartsink. Other travellers have equally written upon the subject. Among this number are the Germans Ludwig

and Peters, and the Dutchman Van Berkel. Stedman, the traveller, employed five years in visiting the interior of Dutch Guiana, of which he published the most complete and interesting account. M. Malouet undertook to make the same inquiries, and in part accomplished the same labour, with respect to French Guiana; he procured much information relative to the Gualibis, those natives whom the missionaries vainly endeavoured to convert. The residence of Bolingbroke in Guiana was equally useful to science. This English writer has statistically described the colonies of Demerary, Essequibo, and Berbice. The recent excursions of Schomberck, which he is at this moment continuing, will probably leave but little untold as to British Guiana. We pass over in silence other narratives of less importance.

Such is the incomplete sketch of the progress of geography in Asia, Africa, America, and Australia. Its progress in Europe has been so extensive, and travellers who have contributed to it are in such multitudes, that it would be impossible to give a notion of it within the narrow limits of a summary like the present: nor, indeed, is it necessary, as the result will be seen in the accounts of the various European states.

CHAPTER IV.

ON THE VARIETIES OF THE HUMAN RACE.

The human race, which the majority of naturalists consider as forming an insulated genus, approaches so closely to other mammiferous animals in its general formation, particularly in the construction of the bony fabric, that one learned writer, M. Bory de Saint Vincent, contends that the ouran-outang ought to be admitted into the same class. Taken in mass, the superiority of man, as regards the intellectual faculties, is immense and undeniable; but, nevertheless, if we examine some uncultivated tribes, which hitherto have been almost unsusceptible of being civilized, the difference vanishes to such a degree, that certain races appear to rise very little above the brutes, except as to articulate speech, which establishes a genuine line of demarcation.

Though, says the celebrated Cuvier, the human species appears to be uniform, since all the individuals of it can intermix indistinctly, and produce fertile individuals, we perceive that there are certain hereditary conformations which constitute distinct races.

The learned do not agree in their mode of distributing the variety of the human race. Buffon admits but one species. Linnæus, though holding the same opinion, adopts five varieties: 1. *The brown American*; 2. *The white European*; 3. *The yellow Asiatic*; 4. *The black African*; 5. *The monstrous*. Blumenbach also makes five divisions: 1. *The Caucasian*; 2. *The Mongolian*; 3. *The Ethiopian*; 4. *The American*; 5. *The Malayan*.

The learned professor, M. Dumeril, in his Elements of the Natural Sciences, likewise makes five principal varieties: 1. *The Caucasic*, or *Arab-European*; 2. *The Hyperborean*; 3. *The Mongol*; 4. *The Negro*; 5. *The American*. M. Cuvier recognises in the varieties of the human race only three which are strikingly distinct: 1. *The White*, or *Caucasic*; 2. *The Yellow*, or *Mongolic*; 3. *The Negro*, or *Ethiopic*.

M. Virey, in the Dictionary of Deterville, *recognises but two species*, which he characterizes by the measure of the facial angle, and describes six races: 1. *White*; 2. *Tawny*; 3. *Copper-coloured*; 4. *Dark brown*; 5. *Black*; 6. *Blackish*.

M. Desmoulins raises the number to eleven: 1. *Celto-Scythic-Arabic*; 2. *Mongol*; 3. *Ethiopians*; 4. *Euro-Africans*; 5. *Austro-Africans*; 6. *Malays*, or *Oceanics*; 7. *Papuans*; 8. *Oceanic Negroes*; 9. *Australasians*; 10. *Columbians*; 11. *Americans*.

Bory de Saint Vincent, in his work on Man, proposes a still greater number of divisions. He makes fifteen species: 1. *The Japetic*, subdivided into four races; 2. *The Arabic*, which comprises two races; 3. *The Hindoo*; 4. *The Scythian*; 5. *The Sinic*, or *Chinese*; 6. *The Hyperborean*; 7. *The Neptunian*, divided into three races; 8. *The Australasian*; 9. *The Columbian*; 10. *The American*; 11. *The Patagonian*; 12. *The Ethiopian*; 13. *The Caffer*; 14. *The Melanian*; 15. *The Hottentot*.

Without pretending to decide on the merit of these various classifications, we will adopt the most simple of them, that which separates the human race into three great divisions, with strongly distinctive characters, namely, 1. *The white race*, called *Caucasian*; 2. *The yellow*, or *olive-coloured Mongolic race*; and 3. *The Negro*, or *Ethiopian race*.

The first has its principal centre in Europe, Asia Minor, Arabia, Persia, and India as far as the Ganges, and in Africa as far as, and comprising, the Sahara. The second comprehends all the rest of Asia, and has, in a manner, its focus on the table land of Great Tartary and Thibet. It appears to have originally peopled North America. The last species covers the greatest part of Africa and some islands of New Guinea, the land of Papua, and New Holland. We must refrain from dwelling in this work upon the numerous attempts which have been made, to domonstrate that these three races descend from Shem, Ham, and Japhet.

1. The White, Arab-European, Cauca-

n, to which we belong, is chiefly
ed by the oval form of the head; the
ess whiteness; the nose generally
r nearly so; the mouth of a moderate
hin lips, of a paler or deeper red, but
t; and the teeth placed vertically.
rs are usually regular, which causes
be considered as the most handsome
ble. It is to this that belong the
Lesghian, Mingrelian, and Georgian
o are admired for their beauty. It
e Caucasian that the facial angle is
ped: it is from 80 to 90 degrees.
e is divided into several families
he *Arabian*, comprises the Arabs of
or Bedouins, the Hebrews, the inha-
Lebanon, the Syrians, Chaldeans,
Phœnicians, Abyssinians, Moors, and
lorocco.
nd family, *Hindoos*, includes the in-
f Bengal, the Coromandel coast, the
he people of Candahar, and others.
, *Scythians*, is composed of nations
t the Caucasian chain, and the neigh-
of the Caspian Sea, the Circassians
rgians, the Scythians, the Parthians,
s, the Cossacks, the Usbecks, the
es, the ancient Muscovites, the Turks,
ngarians; the Finlanders have also
igin.
th stock, purely European, is com-
he *Celtic families*. Bory de Saint
rides them into, 1. the *Pelagic* race
2. the *Celtic* race (western;) and 3.
nic (northern.) This last compre-
varieties, the *Teutonic* and the

the *Pelagic*, comprehends a people
stature (about 5 feet 7 inches;) the
with respect to the body, is covered
d very long hair, brown or chestnut-
rry seldom light: the nose is straight;
e large and full; the complexion,
, has sometimes a brown tinge. It is
rranch that the Greeks and Romans

nd, *Celtic*, consists of people of loftier
feet 9 inches on an average.) It is
by hair less long, of a deep chestnut
metimes red or brown, very thick,
ly fine; the beard thick; the forehead
t at the sides; the nose rectilineal;
of middle size; the eyes generally
own, sometimes grey; the skin, less
an in the Pelagic race, is often of a
aleness; the members are well pro-

ic branch comprises the people of
nd gothic origin. The Highlanders
ish isles, the Welsh, the Low Britons
er Armorica, and the Basques of the
enees, are offsets from this branch.
d, *Germanic*, is that which displays
highest stature; their average height
eet 10 inches and 6 *feet. They are of*
: *temperament, mostly very fat; their*

complexion is of a dazzling fairness, when it is not pallid; their face is rounded; their eyes are generally blue; their teeth very frequently bad; their hair is very fine, almost flat, and in thick locks of a moderate length, of a golden or yellow hue, and does not whiten till a late period. The women are remarkable for the brilliancy of their colour and the fulness of their forms. They are seldom marriageable before the age of sixteen or seventeen.

Teutonic variety.—The Teutons, under the name of Cimbrians, occupied the peninsula of Jutland, penetrated into Scandinavia, where they became the Suenones, afterwards called Goths, and were the parent stock of the people who now inhabit Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. Iceland was also peopled by men of the Teutonic variety.

Slavonian variety.—This consists of men who probably came from the Krapack mountains. It is from this variety that descend the Sarmatians, Lithuanians, Russians, Bohemians, and a throng of other tribes whom M. Balbi includes in the Slavonian family.

2. The Yellow or Mongolian Race is known by the large, square, flattened face of the men who compose it; the eminences on the head appear in general less prominent, because the cheek bones are more raised, the nose is more sunk in, and flatter, large, and squat at the root; the nostrils are very open at the sides; the facial angle is not more than from eighty to eighty-five degrees; the eyes are placed obliquely, and seem tied down by the lids; the colour of the skin is olive or tawny; the hair is black, straight, and long.

This race, which seems to derive its origin from the Altaï mountains, offers three principal branches and several varieties.

The *first branch* comprised a multitude of Mongal hordes of Great Tartary, especially beyond the Irtisch; the Kalkas, the Kalmucks, the Buretes, &c. Under Gengiskhan, Kublai, and Tamerlane, these people founded the largest empires of the world.

The *second branch*, which extends towards the southern and eastern parts of Asia, is composed of the Chinese, Coreans, Japanese, Cochin-Chinese, &c. The Chinese are spread among the Sunda, Molucca, and Philippine islands; some of them are even to be found at Saint Helena, where they bear a tolerable proportion to the European population.

The physical indications of these people are, straight black hair, thin, like the beard; some allow mustachios to grow, which, among them, is a mark of dignity; the eyes are obliquely placed; the ears erect; the mouth large; the nose slightly broad and flat; the lips thick; the skin a straw-yellow.

The *third branch*, (the hyperborean species and race of Bory de Saint Vincent and Desmoulins,) is remarkable for the low stature and the coarse stunted features of the tribes which *compose it, and* comprehends the Kamatchatkans, *the Tshutskis*, the Ostiacks, the Tunguasians,

the Samoyedes, a part of the Laplanders, the Esquimaux, and the Greenlanders. These men, whose average height does not exceed four feet nine inches, are squat, though thin; they have an enormous head, a very large and short face, flattened towards the forehead, eyes wide apart, a depressed nose, a very large mouth, little beard, flat, harsh, black hair, black eyes, and a smoky skin. The women are hideous; their breasts, soft and pendant, are shaped like a pear.

It must be observed, however, that there are many striking differences in the moral and physical character of these people; but this perhaps may be attributed to the influence of the tribes by which they are surrounded.

Malayan variety.—Under this class are ranged the people who inhabit the peninsula of Malacca, the numerous islands which form the archipelagos of the Philippines, the Moluccas, Celebes, Sunda, the Mariannes, and the Isle of Timor: they are found also at Madagascar, in the south of Papua, and in New Guinea. It is extremely doubtful whether we ought to include among them the Otaheitans, Sandwich islanders, the natives of the Mendozas, and the New Zealanders. The last named people differ from all the others, in their physical conformation, arts, customs, and language.

MM. Garnot and Lesson propose to form of these a variety, under the name of Oceanians. Bory de Saint Vincent classes them in the Neptunian species, and makes of them a race, which he calls Oceanic.

The Malays are of middle stature, and a red copper colour, and well made; their hair is long, even, shining, and black; their face is flattened, their nose broad and flat; their mouth is large, and their lips inclining to thick; their teeth are regular, and tinged with a red hue verging into black, which doubtless arises from their habit of chewing betel mixed with areca and lime. The females have round short persons, a well-formed bosom when they are young, rough and very dark hair, and a very wide mouth. The general appearance, though not so attractive as it is described by some travellers, is not without its charms.

The Malay seldom goes in a complete state of nudity; even the poorest of them wear round their loins a sort of wrapper or apron. It is only children that are sometimes seen naked. M. Garnot remarks, that he never saw any of them who had been circumcised.

Oceanic branch.—This branch inhabits the major part of the islands of the South Sea; among these are the Society, Mulgrave, Sandwich, Friendly, and Fiji islands, the Marquesas, Easter Island, and New Zealand.

The natives of Otaheite, taken as a type of the Oceanians, are generally well made: they have an oval face, the forehead open and rounded; black, glossy, uncurled hair; well formed eyes, surmounted by thick eyebrows; a moderate-sized nose, slightly depressed; the mouth inclined to *large, with thick lips;* the bosom full; the complexion *tawny or copper-coloured;* the facial angle as open as that of Europeans; the neck thick, but symmetrically proportioned; and the limbs handsomely formed.

The majority of voyagers have asserted that the Otaheitans reach more than six feet three inches in stature. M. Garnot, who measured many of them, could, however, find none that exceeded six feet. The ordinary height is five feet seven or eight inches.

Otaheite, which was formerly called the New Cythera, no longer offers a Venus to the eyes of voyagers. Some women, however, in the bloom of youth, are still attractive; the whiteness of their teeth and their exciting eyes give a piquancy to their clear lemon-coloured complexions; their hands are truly beautiful.

At New Zealand the women are less handsome than at Otaheite. The natives of the Mendora isles, and of Rotuma, are said to be the best made of the Oceanians. M. Lesson says, that the natives of Rotuma have a mild countenance, regular features, and long dark hair, which is fastened behind the head in a large bunch; their members are finely proportioned; they might serve as models for a sculptor. Tatooing is generally practised throughout Oceania.

American race or variety.—This variety, which inhabits the vast continent of America, has not sufficiently striking characteristics to entitle it to be made a separate race. Bory de Saint Vincent ranges under three heads the species peculiar to the New World. 1. The *Colombic* species; 2. The *American* species; 3. The *Patagonian* species. The general designation of the physical characters of the Americans is a large triangular face; a dark copper-coloured skin; long, flat, black hair; little beard; and a broad and prominent nose. It is to this variety that belong the Peruvians, Mexicans, Araucanians, Patagonians, Puelches, and the natives of Paraguay, Buenos Ayres, and Brazil. The *Botocudos* of the last of these regions, frequently almost white, bear a nearer resemblance to the Mongol race than the other Americans. Though belonging to the same variety, there is a great difference between the Araucanians and Peruvians; except in the bronzed colour of the skin, which is the same in both. The Araucanians are large, and very muscular, while the Peruvians are thinner, and of less stature. In the first, the face is large and full, more rounded below than towards the upper part; and the expression of it is as ferocious as it is mild in the Peruvians, whose features are also more regular.

The Patagonians live beyond the fortieth degree of south latitude, towards the southern extremity of America, and are remarkable for their lofty stature, which usually exceeds six feet, and sometimes considerably more. They are of a tawny hue, and their hair, which is flat, and either brown or black, is generally long.

3. Black or Ethiopian-negro Race.—Bory de Saint Vincent considers this race to belong to the Ethiopian, Caffer, Melanian, Hottentot, Australasian and Neptunian species.

The negro race inhabits all the south of Africa, forms mixtures with the Moors of that part of the world, and exists also in the great isle of Madagascar, Papua, the New Hebrides, Solomon and Schooten's Isles, and also in New Holland and Van Diemen's Land.

This race has a black or blackish hue; has crisp, frizzled, woolly hair, and a compressed skull; the broad, flat, large nose, the nostril projecting, and the thick lips, evidently, says, M. Cuvier, approximate it to the monkey tribe. The facial angle is from 70 to 75 degrees. This race may be divided into several branches.

1. *Ethiopian branch*, or *Negro strictly so called.*—This is composed of the Joloffs, Foulahs, the tribes of Senegal, Angola, Congo, &c.

The distinguishing marks of this branch are so striking, that an Ethiopian may be known at the first glance. His skin is of a deep colour, his hair woolly; the bony case of the skull is very narrow in front, flattened at the vertex, and rounded in the hinder region, towards which the occipital suture is pushed back; the cutting teeth are inserted obliquely; the cheek bones are prominent; the lips thick; the nose large and broad; the hips projecting; the loins arched; and the lower extremities much curved. In the females, the breasts are so pendent, and the nipple is so long, that, as we are told by travellers, they can suckle their infants over their shoulders. Dr. Busseuil, however, who spent three years on the African coast, declares that he never saw this mode of suckling practised. An odour of a peculiar kind, which may be smelt at a considerable distance, exhales from the negroes. It is from the alliance of this branch with Europeans that spring the Mulattos, who people a great part of the colonies.

2. *Caffre branch.*—It inhabits the eastern portion of Africa, from the St. Esprit river to the Strait of Babelmandeb. It is found also in Madagascar. As the colony of the Cape of Good Hope keeps extending from day to day, the Caffres are pushed back into the interior. They have a less dark hue, a blackish grey, and less shining, a less prominent face, more regular and handsome features, and a less strong odour, than the Ethiopian negroes. They are large and well formed. *La Vaillant* states, that none of them whom he saw were less than five feet nine inches in height, and that, in general, their stature is six feet.

3. *Hottentot branch.*—The Hottentots inhabit the southern point of Africa, beyond the tropic. This branch, says M. Bory de Saint Vincent, forms the connecting link between man and the ourang and gibbon, and consequently with the monkeys. The tribes known under this name are the Namaquas, the Koranas, Boschemen, the Hottentots strictly so called, the Gounaquis, and the Huzuanas. The Hottentots proper make daily alliances with the Mozambique negroes, the result of which must be that, in the course of a few years, none of them will be found in an unmixed state.

In general, *the Hottentots may be recognised by the following physical signs: the forehead* prominent, especially in the upper portion; the vertex flattened; the hair black or blackish, short, and woolly; little beard; the eyebrows thin, and faintly marked; the eyes distant from each other, and half closed; the lips thick, and projecting forward; the nose depressed and large; the colour of the skin has a tinge of bistre, and is more or less yellowish, but never black; the facial angle is at most 75 degrees; the figure is usually squabby.

The learned M. Lichtenstien affirms, that, (as is the case in the macaco monkey,) the bones of the nose in the Hottentots are united into a single scaly plate, flattened, and much larger than in any other human head: the olecranion cavity of the humerus is also perforated. The women, still more hideous than the men, are likewise proportionately smaller in size. Their breasts are pendent, and the sexual parts have a singular deformity, which bears the name of apron.

Low in the scale of humanity as the Hottentots appear to be, the English government has succeeded in making them learn some of the mechanical arts. Doctor Garnot, during his stay at Zwellendam, in 1824, saw various works which were made by them, and were executed with tolerable skill. They have even been converted into good soldiers.

4. *Papuan branch.*—The Papuans inhabit the numerous islands of the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, New Ireland, New Britain, New Guinea, York Island, and Waigiou. It is, in some measure, a hybrid variety.

The natives of Waigiou are of a slender and delicate make. They are generally small. Out of twenty individuals, who were measured, there was only one who reached the height of five feet six inches. The average height was from four feet ten to five feet two inches. The hair, soft and straight in some, frizzled in others, and in some instances between both, is generally black and thick, forming round, globular masses, which make the figure look very diminutive. There are natives who tie the hair up behind, which then forms an extraordinary tuft. They let their whiskers and mustachoes grow. The maximum of the facial angle is 69 degrees, and the minimum from 63 to 64.

The natives of Van Diemen's Land, whom Lesson calls Tasmanians, resemble the Papuans in their physical conformation.

The natives of New Holland, of whom Bory de Saint Vincent forms his Australian species, are indisputably the most hideous beings that are known.

The natives in the vicinity of Sidney Cove and Paramatta are of middle stature; there are, however, some among them who reach the height of five feet ten inches. The colour of their skin is not a beautiful black; it may best be compared to that of very dark milk coffee. They are usually of slender and weak structure. Those who *live in the interior*, and support themselves by *hunting*, have a more robust muscular system. The hair, not woolly like that of the Ethiopian

negroes, is harsh, very thick, sometimes disposed in long frizzled locks, sometimes very short; the beard is thicker on the sides of the chin than elsewhere; the face is flat in the upper part; the nose spreading and large; the mouth prominent; the lips thick; the facial angle from 61 to 67 degrees.

Besides the kinds above enumerated, there are accidental varieties in the human race; for instance, the *Albinos* of Africa, the *Cagots* of the Pyrenees, and the *Cretins* of the Valais. These varieties may be considered as the result of diseases.

The numerous races spread over the surface of the globe differ essentially in the colour of the skin and the hair. Do these variations in colour depend on exterior circumstances? It is certain that the burning heat of the sun produces marked changes in the skin: but the skin returns to its primitive state on its being shielded from the action of the solar rays.

Remove negro families into Europe, and Europeans into Congo, and you will not find the former become white, or the latter black. The hair also varies singularly, according to the country, latitude, climate, and race. The principal colours are black, flaxen, and sometimes a fiery red: these three colours have numerous gradations of shade.

Desmoulins, in his excellent history of the races, adduces facts which tend to prove the invariability of the colour in the skin and hair, when the races have remained unmixed.

The majority of naturalists and anatomists agree, that the colour of the skin resides in the *rete mucosum*, which lies beneath the epidermis or cuticle. The absence of this kind of net-work explains why cicatrices have the same colour in blacks as in whites.

The skull offers as many various forms as there are races or species of men on the globe. Dr. Gall is of opinion, that on the exterior surface of this bony box the intellectual faculties imprint eminences, which correspond with the functions which he attributes to each portion of the brain.

On the inspection of a skull, we may almost, *à priori*, decide to what species of men it has belonged; provided, however, that it is not a degenerated race. The form of the skull must also vary occasionally, in consequence of the habit which certain tribes have, of giving a particular form to the heads of new-born infants, either by bandages, or simple pressure with the hands.

Such are the principal varieties of the human race, spread over the surface of the globe. The ancients erroneously imagined, that the torrid zone, scorched up by the solar fire, did not allow the inhabitants of the temperate zones to have any communication with each other. These prejudices, which narrowed the universe, have disappeared before the lights which have been procured for us by Columbus, Gama, Cook, Parry, and Denham. Navigators and travellers have found inhabitants in the most burning climates, and in the vicinity of the poles; on the most unapproachable coast, and in those islands which an immense ocean seemed to sever from the rest of the world. To the north, Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, and the greatest part of the islands and archipelagos recently discovered by the English, to the west of Baffin's Bay; to the south, New Georgia, Sandwich Land, the Falkland islands, Kerguelen's Land, New South Shetland, and the New Orkneys; and, under the equator, the Galapagos isles, are the only countries of any extent which were absolutely without inhabitants.

The whole earth is therefore the patrimony of man. He can bear all climates, and his dwellings extend to the furthest limits of animated nature. The Greenland Esquimaux exist as far as under the eighty-fourth degree of latitude. At the other extremity, the sterile Terra del Fuego nourishes the poor Petcherais. The New World, though in general less populous, is therefore peopled from one end to the other. In the Old World, the habitations of man form a whole, interrupted only by some sandy plains; and, even in the midst of those deserts, man has peopled the oases, those verdant isles which are scattered in an ocean of sand.

It is usually said, in repeating old estimates equally vague and exaggerated, that the total number of men living on the globe may amount to a thousand millions. But almost all the calculations which have been made on this subject are chimerical: it is even impossible for them to be exact. The attempts made on this head, by M. Adrian Balbi, in his Compendium of Universal Geography, were the first essays on the general population of the globe which seem to deserve any confidence, from the talent displayed in drawing them up, the facts on which they are based, and the arguments by which they are supported. M. Balbi has since then continued his inquiries, always availing himself of the last censuses in each country where any have been made; and, where none exist, comparing and analysing the strangely various estimates of the most distinguished travellers and geographers: we therefore do not hesitate to follow the numbers which he gives in his Political Balance of the Globe. According to his calculations, we find that Europe reckons 222 millions of inhabitants; that Asia may have about 400 millions; that Africa and Oceania contain, perhaps, the first 80 and the second 30 millions; while the vast America numbers less than 39 millions. Thus, it will appear that the whole population of the globe reaches only 771 millions. This number, as will be seen by the following chapter, M. Balbi subsequently found reason to reduce to 737 millions. If even we raise it to the round number of 800 millions, it will still be 200 millions below that which is assigned by compiling geographers, and by learned and literary men, who are either unacquainted with statistics and the result of the important investigations which have been entered into in many countries, or are unwilling to encounter the difficulties which stand in the way of ascertaining the population of the great states and extensive regions of the globe.

CHAPTER V.

SKETCH OF THE VARIOUS RELIGIONS OF MANKIND.

numerous may be the religions pro- nankind, they may all be arranged classes. The first comprises the ystems which do not acknowledge od; the second all those which are the idea of a sole God, the creator, and preserver of all things.

iber of sects belonging to the first ost infinite; so great is the variety of s which derive their origin from the and ignorance of the most imper- ed tribes. Man has imagined the lar absurdities, in order to form reli- ns for himself; he has addressed his very object in nature. As our limits mit us to enter into details with re- se countless species, we shall confine the two following, which, to a cer- may be considered as the source e been derived the major part of the s and ridiculous beliefs which form f all those religions. The two to allude are fetishism and sabæism. some exceptions, all savage tribes, which we call barbarians, belong to r of these classes.

ism is the worship of *fetishes*; an ex- hich is used by the negroes of the asts of Africa, to designate the living te objects of nature to which fear, or some particular feeling, induces e to pay a sort of religious adoration. which is around them, all nature, ts, trees, rivers, fire, in a word, all in which these simple and ignorant ive beneficent or hurtful qualities, acomprehensible, are the objects of on. Their devotion is that of beings the lowest degree of civilization, and he grossest ideas of the divinity, and exion which exists between him and race. But it offers a great variety of m the most stupid superstitions of d savages of Australia and Van Die- to the fetishism of the less degraded olynesia, Central Africa, and several ia and America. Human sacrifices, revolting cruelty, are the character- ise barbarous religions. The priests of conjurors and sorcerers, called several African tribes, *jugglers* by ican races, and *shamans* by the Si- is last denomination has been the ie singular mistake which confounds ith sabaneism, which is a branch of of Buddha.

s holds a more elevated rank: it is on of the *celestial bodies; of the sun, and the stars, either separately, or* his system, which is very ancient, and spread over the whole globe, has been blended with all other religions; but it nowhere exists unmixed, except among a few insulated tribes. Its name comes from the Sabæans, or Sabians, an ancient people of Arabia.

The principal religions comprised in the second class are the following:—Judaism, Christianity, Mahometanism or Islamism, Magism, Brahmanism, Buddhism, Sintism, Nanekism, Mythological Naturalism, and Philosophical Pantheism.

JUDAISM acknowledges no other revelation than that which was made to the chosen people of God, by Moses and the prophets. Those who profess this religion are known by the name of *Jews*. They expect the coming of a Messiah, who is to found a vast empire, in which the faithful will share. They practise circumcision, and a great number of ceremonies. They keep the seventh day of the week. When they occupied Palestine, they had a particular kind of priests, the *Levites*; since their dispersion, which produced a confusion of their tribes, they have ceased to offer up sacrifices to the Eternal; and, instead of priests or sacrificers, they have only doctors, called *Rabbis*, who expound the law in their temples, which are called *synagogues*. They believe only in one person in God. Their sacred books form the Old Testament, which is principally written in the Hebrew tongue.

Judaism, many images and ideas of which resemble those of the Persian Magi, or of the ancient Egyptian priests, is now divided into several sects, of which the chief are—the sect of the *Talmudists*, called also *Rabbinists*; denominations which have been given to them in consequence of their reverence for the decisions of the Rabbins, and for the *Talmud*, which is an immense medley, where some sound ideas are buried in the mire. These Jews, being beyond measure more numerous than all the others, form in fact the mass of the Jewish population. The *Chasidim*, called also *Leaping Jews* or *Pietists*, are a subdivision of the Talmudists, and originated at Miedzyvorz, in the Ukraine, between 1760 and 1765. They affect a more austere piety, a more profound devotion, and bear to the other Jews the same relation that the Evangelicals bear to the Protestants. It is said that their number exceeds that of the Talmudists in Russian Poland and European Turkey. The *Caraites* reject the traditions, superstitions, and silliinesses which abound in the Talmud. They differ, besides, from the Rabbinists, with respect to some rites and legal ceremonies. Though reduced to a very small number, they are spread *through many countries*: we find them in Syria, *Egypt, the Desert of Hit*, (three days' march *from Bagdad,)* at Constantinople, in the Crimea, *the Ukraine*, in Galicia, Lithuania, at Dubno,

and near Kuba in the region of the Caucasus. The *Rechabites*, who have recently been visited by Dr. Wolf, live independent in three oases not far from Mecca. These Jews, who are of high antiquity, possess the Pentateuch, the books of the Kings, Isaiah, Jeremiah, and some other of the prophets. The *Samaritans*, who were formerly much more numerous, are now reduced to two hundred individuals, who reside at Naplous and Jaffa. They differ from other Jews only in ceremonies. They still offer up sacrifice every year, on mount Gerezim, or in the town of Naplous. The *Malabar Jews* are tolerably numerous; they have been established in that country for many centuries, and have made numerous proselytes among the natives.

The greatest number of the Jews live now in Europe, especially in the Russian, Austrian, and Ottoman empires; in Asia, they abide in the latter empire, in Arabia, India, and other countries; in Africa, in the regions of the Nile and the Atlas. We know not that any exist in Oceania; and America contains but very few of them, in comparison with the other quarters of the globe.

CHRISTIANITY, which originated in the very bosom of Judaism, and which, from age to age, has been dividing into a multitude of systems, now extends its beneficent influence over the most civilized countries, in every part of the world. It is the most widely spread religion on earth, and that which reckons the greatest number of followers. Those who profess it are called *Christians*, and, besides the revelation of Moses and the prophets, believe also in that of the New Testament, the coming of Christ, the redemption of sins, and the resurrection of the dead; they practise baptism, and keep holy the first day of the week. We will now proceed to the principal subdivisions of Christianity.

1. Christians who, besides the Bible, acknowledge also a superior authority in matters of faith. They form the Latin or Western Church, and the Greek or Eastern Church.

A. THE GREEK OR EASTERN CHURCH.—The principal points on which it differs from the Latin Church are relative to the supremacy of the Pope, as vicar of Jesus Christ, and the dogma which makes the Holy Ghost proceed from the Son; also as to two points of discipline, which are the communion in both kinds, and the marriage of priests. The following are the other dogmas or points of discipline on which the Orientals do not agree with the Catholics. Though they admit of seven sacraments, which they call mysteries, it appears that they do not give to this word the same meaning as the Latins; it is certain, at least, that they do not consider more than two of the sacraments as being of divine institution, namely, baptism and the Lord's supper, and that they believe the others to have been instituted by the Church. They give confirmation at the same time as baptism, which latter is performed by triple *immersion; they even add* the sacrament to it. *They deny the indissolubility of marriage*, and dissolve it for adultery; but they conde ing a fourth time. They do not recog of supererogation, and consequently d of indulgences. Like the Catholics, tals have a hierarchy and monasterie subject to numerous devotional pra still more rigorous fasts. These Chr divided into four principal communio ing as they adopt or reject a part c seven œcumenical councils, which w bled previous to the schism between t and Western Churches.

1. *The Greek Church*, which calls *orthodox*, because it adopts all the s menical councils, and likewise the *qui* has never formed a sole church. hends almost all the Greeks of th empire, all those of the Russian emp Ionian isles, and a great number of belonging to different nations which Austrian dominions, especially in the denominated the Hungarian. They ac as their spiritual head the Patriarch o tinople, who has preserved his pre over those of Antioch, Alexandria, salem. The orthodox Christians of the other provinces of the Levant, w Greeks by birth, but religion, are knc name of *Melchistes*.

All the Russian tribes, and all the which the Russians have made among of their vast empire, a multitude of the i of the provinces of the kingdom of well as the Georgians, and other peo this religion, and depend on the *Hol* the Russian empire for everything wh to worship. We do not know wh Mingrelians and Imeretians, now co that empire, are still, as formerly, the Patriarch of Constantinople. T Church includes under the name of all the sects whose belief differs from th church. Of these there is a larg Among them we may mention the . who give themselves up to all kinds excesses, and dispense with labour; *khans*, who bear some resemblan Quakers; the *Philippons*, who encours and the *Origenists*, who teach that lation of the genital parts is comman founder of the Christian religion him

2. *The Chaldean or Nestorian C* members recognise only the first two o councils, and the fathers of the c lived before the Council of Ephesu their doctrine was condemned. The to Jesus Christ two persons or *hypost* to give to the Virgin the quality of God, abhor the worship of images, Nestorius and Theodore of Mopsuest The majority of them live in Turkish the village of El Kosch, near Mos their principal patriarch resides,) an The Nestorians who are settled in named *Christians of St. Thomas*, be assert that they received the Gospel

a saint. Since 1599 they have, for
, been united to the Latins; pre-
rer, the communion in both kinds,
age of priests. These Christians
ed United Greeks by the Catholics.
ophysite or Eutychean Church.—
of this church acknowledge only
œcumenical councils, and admit
ture in Jesus Christ, namely, the
which has been made incarnate;
they make the sign of the cross
finger. This church is subdivided
ers, called—
r, so named from a Syrian monk of
y, Jacob Baradai, or Zanzalus, who
and Mesopotamia to unite into one
cattered Monophysites, and gave
hy. Their spiritual head takes the
rch of Antioch, bears the name of
resides at Karemid, in the province
n Asiatic Turkey. The Jacobites
ship of saints and images. A great
n have joined the Catholic Church,
ertheless, some of their peculiar

of which the followers call them-
or *Christians of Egypt, Nubia,*
. They, too, have adopted image
ey are distinguished from other
two particularities; they have pre-
cision along with baptism, rather,
national custom than as a religious
d they celebrate Sunday and a part
Their patriarch resides at Cairo,
es the title of Patriarch of *Alex-*
erusalem. For Abyssinia he ap-
-general, denominated *Abuna*.
ian, to which belong all the natives
These Christians have few festi-
t image worship. They have four
e chief of whom, who bears the
icos of all the Armenians, resided
nt of Etch-Miadzin, in the late
nia, till 1822, when he took refuge
a territory. Since the incorpora-
rovince with Russia, it is probable
eturned to his ancient residence.
ther patriarchs dwell at Sis, in
andsasar, near the Lake of Erivan,
amar, a convent situated in an
Lake of Van. The Armenians form
mass of the population of Armenia
are to be found in various other
ome Armenians have joined the
rch; these have an archbishop of
on the Don, and another in the
Lazaro, in the Venetian lagunes.
o several thousands of them in the
ire, especially at Constantinople,
ave recently been put under the
f an independent patriarch who has
to them.
ronite Church, the members of
med *Maronites*, from John Maron,
e fifth century, who framed their
—*They dwell in the mountains of*
Lebanon and in the island of Cyprus. They admit the first four of the œcumenical councils, and consequently acknowledge in Jesus Christ one sole person and two natures: they are Monothelites, admitting only a single will in the two natures. The largest part of them have joined the Catholic Church, preserving most of the rites of the Eastern Church. Their spiritual head, who recognises the pope, has the title of Patriarch of Antioch, and dwells at Cannobin, a convent in Lebanon.

B. The Latin or Western Church.—Those who follow the dogmas of this church are called *Catholics;* but this denomination, which implies that they form *the Universal Church*, is denied to them by the members of the other Christian churches; the latter call them *Roman Catholics* and *Papists*. The Latin Church acknowledges as its head the *Pope* or *Sovereign Pontiff;* it admits the authority of tradition, as well as of the decisions of the church assembled in œcumenic councils, which are held to be infallible. The majority of its members attribute this infallibility to the Pope alone. The Catholics have seven sacraments of divine institution; they admit transubstantiation in the eucharist, auricular confession, the worship of saints, purgatory, works of supererogation, indulgences, monastic vows, and, at least as a point of discipline, the celibacy of the clergy. They administer baptism by sprinkling; they acknowledge not only the first seven œcumenic councils, which were assembled before the schism of the Eastern Church, (with the exception of the *quini-sextum*,) but also several others, convoked by the popes since the ninth century. The last and most celebrated is that of Trent, which, with some interruptions, sat from 1542 to 1563. The Catholic clergy is numerous, and extremely rich, especially in Hungary, Spain, Mexico, Cuba, and other countries. There exists among the priests a hierarchy and ecclesiastical dignities, to which, till of late, was sometimes attached a very considerable temporal power; such were the ecclesiastical electorates of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, the archbishopric of Saltzburg, the bishoprics of Wurtzburg, Bamberg, Hildesheim, &c. &c. in the former Germanic empire, the grand mastership of the order of Malta, &c. &c. Among the Catholics of all countries, except the United Greeks, (of whom we have spoken in the article relative to the Greek Church,) the liturgy and the prayers are in the Latin language.

The Catholic Church extends its sway over almost the whole of France, the present kingdoms of Belgium and Poland, all Italy, Spain, and Portugal, three-fourths of Ireland, the largest part of the Austrian empire, almost half of the Prussian monarchy, the Swiss confederation, and the secondary powers of the Germanic body, and also over considerable fractions of Great Britain, and the present kingdom of the Netherlands. To the number of its believers must likewise be added, a majority of the Christians of St. Thomas, or Malabar Syrians, of the Maronites of Lebanon, and a great number of the

United Greeks and Armenians, who, while they retain their liturgy and some customs, acknowledge the papal supremacy, and the dogmas of the Latin Church. We find the Catholic religion dominant in the new states which have arisen out of the colonies founded in America by Spain, Portugal, and France, as well as in the various establishments which those powers still possess, not only in the New World, but in many other parts of the globe. Catholicism is professed by a tolerably numerous portion of the population of the United States: Louisiana, Maryland, Kentucky, the district of Columbia, and the Floridas, are the states where it has the most adherents. The Pope, or Sovereign Pontiff, is the spiritual head of this Church.

2. Christians who, in matters of faith, acknowledge no other authority than that of the Bible. These have been divided into *Unitarians*, who believe that there is only one person in the Deity, and *Trinitarians*, who believe that there are three persons.

A. Unitarians.—In general, the name of Unitarians, and Anti-Trinitarians, is given to all Christians who deny a trinity of persons in God. Under this name is more particularly comprehended the *Arians* of the 4th century, the *Socinians*, and the *Unitarians* properly so called. The *Arians*, whose doctrine was condemned by the first Nicene Council, admitted that Jesus Christ was begotten of the Father from all eternity, but maintained that the Son and Holy Ghost are inferior to the Father. The *Socinians* equally deny the divinity of Christ; but in their eyes he is the first of created beings, and the greatest of prophets, who was miraculously conceived by the operation of the Holy Spirit, which was a power emanating from God. Jesus Christ came into the world to give to men a model of evey virtue; he proved our future resurrection by his own. All power was given to him in heaven and on earth, and in *his* name the Father is invoked. The *Unitarians*, strictly so called, are those who deny the divinity and pre-existence of Christ, without admitting either of the two systems which we have just mentioned. These Unitarians are spread among the Christians of all countries, but they have not made any separation, and form only a private sect. It therefore only remains for us to speak of the *Socinians*.

This sect is so called from Lelio Sozzini, a noble native of Sienna, who died, in 1562, in Poland, where he had taken refuge from the Inquisition. In the greatest part of their dogmas, the *Socinians* approximate to the system of the Protestants; but, as we have already stated, they reject the Trinity and all mysteries. Their great principle is, that Christianity ought to be strictly conformable to the Bible, and that the expressions of the sacred books ought to be construed in their most simple and natural sense, avoiding all mystical interpretation, and everything belonging to the marvellous. The Socinians are by no means numerous. The majority of these *sectarians* inhabit Transylvania, where they enjoy *full liberty of conscience*, and the public exercise of their worship. They are found also, but in smaller numbers, in the Prussian monarchy, in Holland, and in England.

B. Trinitarians.—These Christians find in the New Testament the dogma of the eternal divinity of Jesus Christ and the Holy Ghost, and believe in the doctrine of the Trinity. They may be divided into three principal classes, namely, the *Protestants*, the *Anglicans*, and the *various mystical and enthusiastic sects* which have been grafted on protestantism.

1. *Protestants.*—These Christians are so called because, at the diet of the empire, held in 1529, the princes and states which were attached to the opinions of the reformers *protested* against every law which prohibited innovations in religious matters. The Protestants adopted the Bible as a divine work; rejecting, however, as apocryphal, various parts of it which the Council of Trent had declared to be canonical; they recommended the reading and study of the sacred books, of which they caused many translations to be made in all languages—nevertheless, none of these translations is regarded as authentic, and the original text alone is considered as an authority by them. They believe that, besides revelation, God has given two great lights to man; sound reason, to understand his word, and conscience, to serve as a guide for his actions. They reject all human authority, even that of the councils, in matters of faith; they nevertheless adopted, not as a law, but as consonant to the Bible, the canons of the first four œcumenical councils, and the phrase which announces the procession of the Holy Spirit and the Son; their *credo* is consequently in complete conformity with that of the Catholics. They allow but of two sacraments; baptism, which they administer by infusion, and the eucharist or holy supper; they take the sacrament in both kinds; they reject transubstantiation, and of course the sacrament of the mass; they do not admit the legitimacy of monastic vows, the sanctity of celibacy, the indissolubility of marriage, the merit attributed to good works by the Catholic Church, nor, consequently, indulgences; they censure also the invocation of saints and the worship of images, auricular confession, the distinction made between mortal and venial sins, the remission of sins by human authority, extreme unction, purgatory, and the spiritual authority of the Sovereign Pontiff and the Church. With them, ecclesiastical ordination is only a religious ceremony, in virtue of which the candidates are recognised by their brethren as being capable of exercising the sacred ministry. Their clergymen are only the ministers of public worship, and servants of the prince who appointed them, and the parishes in which they officiate. They have no other power than that which they derive from the laws of the country. Confirmation, confession, and the nuptial benediction are only religious ceremonies, instituted by human beings, and which may be dispensed with. The Protestants have, however, preserved them, changing their object and destination, but extreme unction they have entirely abolished.

estants are divided into *Lutherans*, ians, or *Calvinists*.

herans derive their name from *Martin* monk of Wittenberg, who, in 1517, schism; they, however, prefer the of *Evangelicals*, or *Adherents of the of Augsburg*, which is the official to them in Germany and France. It rom the celebrated *Confession of* which was drawn up by Philip Me- and presented, in 1530, to the em- les V., at the Diet of Augsburg, es and states who had embraced the Luther.

herans are distinguished from the tants by the mysterious manner in express themselves with respect to sence in the sacrament of the holy While they reject transubstantiation, he real presence, and say that the the true body, and drink the true sus Christ, in eating the bread and e wine, *in, cum et sub pane et vino*; bread and wine, though consecrated, ir nature if they are not distributed ful, and ought not, in any case, to

Like the Latin Church, they use bread at the communion table. y forbid the worship of images, they churches to be decorated with them, of the events which they recall to

Lutherans do not absolutely con- ierarchy, but they do not consider vine institution; and their prelates, tries where they have any, are sub- prince, who is always invested with l supremacy. In Sweden, the Lu- e archbishops and bishops, which the four orders of the state, with ding partakes in the exercise of the power. In Denmark, Norway, and find the same ecclesiastical digni- thout any prerogative which gives sence.

sm is dominant in the Prussian, l Norwegian Swedish monarchies; oms of Hanover, Saxony, Wurtem- ther states of the Germanic con- and in the Baltic provinces of the ire. It reckons also many followers rian territory, and other parts of empire, as well as in several states -American Union, and in the Danish colonies.

glians, so called from Zuingli, a Zurich, and contemporary with began the reformation in Switzer- o called *Calvinists*, from Calvin, of spread the same doctrines at Geneva ce. The Calvinists prefer giving the appellation of *The Reformed*. they were, of old, denominated

ists reject entirely the real presence, that the *bread and wine merely ody and blood of the Saviour. They* make use of leavened bread at the communion table. They hold that, though Jesus Christ came to save the human race, there are only a small number of men who have been elected from all eternity, and predestined to salvation. In their worship, the Calvinists require an extraordinary simplicity, and reject the use of the crucifix, images, and tapers, which the Lutherans tolerate as being mere ornaments. Their ecclesiastical system is wholly republican.

Almost all the present kingdom of the Netherlands; the Swiss cantons of Berne, Zurich, Basil, and Geneva; the duchy of Nassau, the principalities of Anhalt and Lippe, and electoral Hesse; the departments of the Gard, the Ardeche, the Drome, the Lot and Garonne, &c. &c. in France; Hungary, Transylvania, the military frontier, &c. in the empire of Austria; and the United States of America, as well as the English and Dutch colonies; are countries in which the Calvinists are most numerous. There are also many of them in the Prussian monarchy. We may add that, in the Anglo-American confederacy they form nearly a fourth of the population.

In Holland, and in Holstein, a particular sect of the reformed church is named *Arminians* or *Remonstrants*.

In Scotland, England, the English colonies, and the Anglo-American Union, the Calvinists are divided into two classes. The *Presbyterians* are those who, in ecclesiastical matters, are governed by a sort of aristocratic power possessed by the synods. The *Independents*, or *Congregationalists*, are those who reject this power, and among whom each community exercises by itself the ecclesiastical authority. The Presbyterians, as well as the Congregationalists, are termed in England *Nonconformists*, because they do not acknowledge the episcopacy which belongs to the Anglican High Church; but in Scotland they form not merely the *Established Church*, but even that to which a great majority of the Scotch belong. In former times, all those who, in 1566, rejected the English liturgy, with the purpose of introducing a purer form of worship, were denominated *Puritans*. The Presbyterian Church of the United States, where, in 1824 there were 2000 churches, with 1285 ministers, is the Calvinist sect which bears the nearest resemblance to the ancient Puritans.

The Lutherans having, since the middle of the 18th century, approximated to the opinion of the Calvinists with respect to the real presence in the holy supper, and the latter having softened their dogma respecting predestination, there now remains scarcely any difference between the two religions; and the followers of the one attend the worship of the other, when they happen to have no church of their own. They even indiscriminately receive the communion from ministers of either persuasion, because that both classes of ministers use in this solemnity *only the very* words of the institution, *spoken by Jesus* Christ, without adding to them *any commentary* whatever. The circumstance

which, down to the present time, has prevented the complete union of the two parties is mainly the difference of their ecclesiastical government, which is entirely republican with the one, and monarchical with the other.

Our age, fertile in events of all kinds, has witnessed, in 1817, in the duchy of Nassau, the commencement of the amalgamation of the Lutheran and Calvinistic churches into one, under the title of the *Evangelical Church*. This union has likewise since taken place at Paris, at Frankfort on the Maine, in almost the whole of the Prussian monarchy, a great part of the kingdom of Bavaria, in the Grand Duchy of Baden, Electoral Hesse, Grand Ducal Hesse, the duchy of Anhalt-Bernburg, the principality of Waldeck, and other parts of Germany. It is probable that the Calvinists and Lutherans of other countries will also unite, and that, in the course of a few years, the two churches will be blended into one throughout the globe.

2. *Anglicans.*—These Christians, who are also called *Episcopalians*, form the High Church, which has been established in England since the reign of Queen Elizabeth. It has been said, by some one in the English parliament, that the English Church has thirty-nine Calvinist articles, a Papist liturgy, and an Arminian clergy. A very distinguished learned man, while he remarks that the question is still undecided whether it is Calvinistic or Arminian, observes that, on its separating from the Catholic Church, it retained the hierarchy, the discipline, the language, the costume, and the liturgical forms of that church. The finest prayers of the Catholic worship still subsist in the *Common Prayer Book*. It contains also the Catholic ecclesiastical calender, the list of saints, holidays, rogations, the Advent, Ash Wednesday, fast days, and Lent. The Anglican Church in the United States varies considerably from the preceding; it has reduced the thirty-nine articles to ten, and discarded the Athanasian symbol. Arminianism appears to be there the prevailing doctrine.

In England, all who are not of the Anglican Church, whether they are Protestants, Catholics, Quakers, or Jews, are classed under the head of *Dissenters* or *Nonconformists;* but generally the meaning of the word is confined to those Protestants who reject episcopacy.

3. *Mystics and Enthusiasts.*—Under this denomination we shall class several sects which have been formed, either among the Protestants or the Anglicans. Their number is very great. We will confine ourselves to the seven following, which may be regarded as the principal.

A. The *Congregationalists* regard each congregation as a part of the visible and militant church. Each church is, with them, an organized body, provided with all that is necessary to attain its religious purpose, without being subject to any other. Their doctrines are almost identical with those of the Scotch Presbyterian Church, where these sectaries are very numerous, and *also those of the American* United States, where, *too, there are considerable* numbers of them. To be a Congregationalist, it is necessary to believe in Jesus Christ, the repentance of sins, the Trinity, predestination, original sin, particular redemption, and final perseverance. The *Congregationalists* differ but little from the *Independents*. New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachussets, and Connecticut, are the states of the American Union in which they are most abundant.

B. The *Arminians*, or *Remonstrants*, are thus named from Arminius or Harmsen, and from a remonstrance which, in 1609, they presented to the States of Holland. Calvin had taught, that, from all eternity, God had predestinated men, some to salvation, others to eternal torment, by an absolute decree independent on their works. Arminius opposed this doctrine, and found a great number of partisans. Arminianism is now widely spread among many protestant sects, but it reckons few proselytes among the Independent churches. The major portion of the Arminians are in the Dutch provinces and in England.

C. The *Mennonites*, who call themselves *Baptists*, spring from the too celebrated *Anabaptists*, whose crimes, as well as name, they disavow. These sectaries, in the present times, are very peaceful, honest, and industrious, much given to commerce and agriculture, and manifest a great simplicity of manners. They recognise no person, no authority, as a judge in doctrinal matters: they now have not even a confession of faith, but content themselves with the Bible, which each explains as he thinks best. Though avoiding all kinds of religious dispute, they differ among themselves on various points, but all agree in administering baptism only to adults, not to swear, and to abominate the bearing of arms. With respect to manners and discipline, there is much affinity between this sect and the Quakers and Moravian Brothers.

The country in which they are most numerous is the United States of America, where it is calculated that they form nearly a sixth of the population. It is in Maine, Rhode Island, Virginia, the two Carolinas, Georgia, Mississippi, Alabama, Kentucky, Indiana, and Illinois, that they most abound. Next come the United Kingdom, that of the Netherlands, the southern provinces of the Russian empire, and the governments of Dantzic and Marienwerder in the Prussian monarchy.

D. *The Quakers*, who call themselves *the Friends.*—George Fox, a native of Leicestershire, was their founder, in 1657. They acknowledge a God in three persons, and consequently the divinity of the Word. The fall of the first man, the promise of a Redeemer, and salvation by Jesus Christ, form a part of their belief. They reject the doctrine of election and reprobation without foresight of merit. The Quakers allow neither of types, rites, nor sacraments, not even of baptism or the holy supper. They do not condemn baptism by water, though they believe it to be needless. Four fundamental maxims are the basis of Quakerism:—1. The civil authority can exercise no right over religious belief; 2.

red by the civil authority are unlawful; lawful, consequently, they only oppose to violence; their self-defence never as to shed blood, or endanger the esty; they prefer being killed; 4. An ut for the payment of a clergy is herefore they refuse to pay tithes, y are destined to the maintenance of body; but the taxgatherers who are m take an equivalent, without ex- ay resistance. Their dress, their d their household goods, display all ed by decency, necessity, and utility; superfluous. The Quakers condemn sentations, games of chance, cards, le discourse, trifling reading, singing, , and banish from their conversation hance, hazard, fate, and fortune, as ssult to Providence. When they thee and thou everybody.

ceable sectaries, who are much commerce, and generally rich, are gh the United Kingdom, but parti- land, and in the United States of pecially the central states and Rhode d in Pennsylvania, founded by a d they are most numerous.

MORAVIAN BRETHREN, OR HERRN- –The first of these denominations mind *the Brothers of Bohemia and* rom whom they descend; and the establishment which they founded, Herrnhut, near Bethelsdorf, in Upper longing to Count Zinzendorf, who mself their protector. He gave a e their system, by blending pietism became eventually their bishop or se sectaries believe that they may ction by means of an internal light, r communication with God. In their their discourse, they make use of nguage, and adopt a certain religious lity. They admit the original cor- man by the fall of Adam, and justifi- e expiatory sacrifice of Jesus Christ, , and the eternity of future punish- authority of their elders or eccle- ds extends over a great number of tions of civil life; such as marriages, rchase of real estates, which cannot ed without their consent. They are o go to law. They compose a species in which private interests are always dinate to public. They bestow par- tion on the physical and moral edu- hildren. To facilitate conversions, established three tropes or classes; Moravian Church, that of the Lu- that of the Reformed.

avian Brothers, whom their resem- the Quakers in some points has caused minated *German Quakers*, are widely hey have established at Neuwied, ttendorf, &c., in Germany; at Chris- Denmark; at *Neufchatel, Basil, &c. in* *, at Zeist, &c. in the kingdom of the* Netherlands; at Tytherton, &c. in England; at Strasburg, &c. in France; at Sarepta, &c. in Russia; at Tranquebar, in India; in Guinea, in Danish Africa; at the Cape of Good Hope and Caffraria, in South Africa; at St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John, in the Danish Antilles; at Jamaica, &c., in the British Antilles; at Nain, &c. in Labrador; at Neuherrnhut, Lichtenfels, &c. in Greenland; and at Bethlem, Nazareth, &c. in the United States of America. Their general chief place is Herrnhut, a small town in the kingdom of Saxony, where resides the Directoral College, consisting of twelve members, elected by the Synod.

The missionaries of the Moravian Brothers, like those of the Catholics, have hitherto been more successful than those of any other Christian society, in preaching the gospel to the uncivilized tribes in various parts of the world.

F. *The Swedenborgians* are so named from Swedenborg, their founder, a member of the Stockholm Academy of Sciences, and a distinguished mineralogist. Passing from the study of the material world to that of the intellectual, Swedenborg became a theosophist, and believed himself to have an immediate and frequent communication with spiritual beings, and numberless revelations respecting the worship of the Deity, the meaning of the Scriptures, the state of man after death, heaven, hell, and the other worlds and their inhabitants. The three fundamental articles of his doctrine are, the divinity of Jesus Christ, the holiness of the Scriptures, and the life which is charity. Whatever may be the errors committed by a man, if he avoid evil and do good, not from motives of interest, ambition, or vanity, but from a hatred of evil and love of good, he may be regenerated, saved, and attain the light. Swedenborg gives, if we may be allowed the expression, a detailed statistical account of heaven, hell, and the planets, the inhabitants of which, and their manners, he describes. His visions are a singular phenomenon; and he is said to have related them with perfect sincerity of belief, because he was not aware of the illusion which had prevailed over his senses.

Though it had its origin in Sweden, Swedenborgianism has few proselytes in that country; most of whom are to be found in Gothland. There are some in Holland, and in the Swiss cantons of Appenzell and St. Gall. But England is the country where they are most numerous. It is particularly in London, Bristol, Birmingham, Derby, Hull, Boston, and Manchester, that are their largest meetings. The last of these towns may be called the metropolis of the sect. The Swedenborgians have churches at Philadelphia, Baltimore, New York, &c. in the United States, and also chapels in India and Southern Africa. Believing that the New Jerusalem Church exists, perfectly organized, in the interior of Africa, they have sent several missions into that part of *the world, and contributed greatly to found the colony of Sierra Leone.* Charles XIII. before *he ascended* the Swedish throne, and the cele-

brated travellers Sparmann and Nordenskiold, were Swedenborgians. To spread their doctrines they have published seven journals, and continued the publishing of that which appeared at London with the title of The New Jerusalem.

G. *The Methodists.*—The cradle of this sect was the university of Oxford, where it originated among some students, about 1730. John Wesley was the founder. They were derisively termed Methodists, because of the regularity and austerity which they manifested in their manners and devotional exercises. In 1735, John Wesley and his brother Charles joined with George Whitfield. The Methodists insist on the depravation of human nature by the sin of Adam, redemption by Jesus Christ, and purification and salvation by faith, with this difference that, while Whitfield deemed works of less importance, except as a proof of faith, Wesley held them to be indispensable. Wesley forbade to his proselytes gaming, plays, balls, horse-racing, ruffles, laces, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. The Methodists have been the great promoters of Sunday schools, and their zeal has powerfully contributed to the reformation of morals. What they have effected among the colliers of Kingswood, and the miners of Cornwall and other counties, can never be mentioned without applause. Methodism is divided into two branches; the disciples of Whitfield admitting predestination like the rigid Calvinists; those of Wesley adopting the principles of the Arminians. The latter are the most numerous.

It was about the middle of the 18th century that the Methodists separated from the Anglican Church, to which, at the beginning, they had professed to be attached. They are making a rapid progress in the United Kingdom, and in the United States of America, where their number has been more than doubled within ten years. They have flourishing establishments in India, particularly at Calcutta and in Ceylon, and almost at the extremity of Oceania, in the Sandwich Islands Archipelago. The Methodists were the first who introduced, among the Protestants, the practice of preaching in the streets and fields. Besides the settled preachers, they have many itinerant preachers, whose congregation is sometimes composed of several thousand persons.

Islamism or Mahometanism.—This religion, so named from the Arabic word *islam*, which means *submission to God*, was founded by Mahomet, and originated in Arabia, about the year 611 of our era. As at that period Judaism and Christianity had made considerable progress among the Arabs, and that, besides, the tribe to which Mahomet belonged prided itself upon being descended from Ishmael and Abraham, Mahomet thought proper to borrow from the Jews and Christians a part of their religious belief. Admitting the books of the Old and New Testament, he acknowledged Moses and Jesus Christ as sent from God; asserting only that by the *lapse of time their doctrines* had been perverted, and that he was commissioned by God his genuine worship on earth.

The principal precepts of Islamis Purification; 2. Prayer; 3. Fasting in t of Ramazan, during which no alim be taken in the course of the day; is followed by the festival of *beiram*, the faithful are allowed to indemnify th for their preceding abstinence; 4. Le which is distinguished from the chari mended for every moment, and which c giving yearly to the poor a fortieth p personal property; 5. Lastly, the pilg Mecca, which every free Mussulman, good health, is obliged to perform at in his life. Prayers are offered up fiv a day; but this may be done at home, ever the person happens to be. It i solemn Friday prayer that must be in the mosque, and in common wit Friday is the day which, among the Mu is consecrated to God; and it accordi the name of *Gemaat*, from an Arabic wo signifies *assembly*. On that day, at t hour, all the faithful must go to the mo the rest of the time they are free and attend to their affairs. The Mu have but two festivals which require rest; they are the festival at the end of zan fast, and that in which it is the offer a sacrifice to the Deity.

After the example of the ancient A in imitation of Ishmael, son of Abr Mussulmans practise circumcision. equally adopted the distinction, made between clean and unclean animals. lieve also in good and bad angels, and t the malignant spirits incessantly pur lead us into evil, the good spirits are c God to support us, and to guide us in probation. They likewise believe in th tality of the soul, and a last judgment, each man will be treated according to

Islamism forbids the use of wine intoxicating liquors. On the other ha mits the marrying of four wives at leaves to every one the entire disposit female slaves. In consequence of th excited by the heat of the climate, the mans place their supreme happiness in sures of the senses. They believe that, the elect will live in the midst of shad by the side of limpid rivulets and sali tains. There they will be attended by whose beautiful eyes gain for them the *houris*, and who, ever young, ever attra be solely occupied in ministering to the of true believers.

Islamism, moreover, deprives man alm of free will; and every Mussulman is vinced that whatever happens to him good or evil, is determined beforehand variable manner. This is the doctrine call *fatalism*. All the articles of belie religious practices of the Mussulman tained in the Koran, a book which in

rabic word, signifying *the most excel-*
ig. The Mussulmans believe that the
ctions of this book were successively
Mahomet, and that this was the prin-
t of the frequent visits which were paid
he angel Gabriel. This book treats at
the doctrines and morals, on marriage
e, and on successions; in short, it is
ulmans a religious, civil, and military

en being written in Arabic, that lan-
become the sacred language of the
ulmans, and all other Mussulman
The Mussulmans have also agreed to
common era the flight of Mahomet,
a his native country, to Medina; an
h took place in the year 622 of our era,
is called *hegira*, from an Arabic word
ight. The Mussulman year is lunar,
ay, it is eleven days shorter than ours,
es the Christian and Mahometan years
ommence twice in succession at the
.

has, at all times, been divided into a
ber of sects, and these schisms have
to terrible wars. To give an idea of
nion which exists in Mahometanism,
ulman doctors have said, that the
the Magians reckons seventy sects,
seventy-one, the Christian seventy-
that the Mahometan must contain
ur, only one of which will lead to

ion began immediately after Mahomet.
th, the prophet left only a daughter,
her cousin Ali, and he neglected
l recognised as his successor. The
s of the prophet having successively
beker, Omar, and Osman, to power,
, from that epoch, Mussulmans who
against what they deemed injustice,
fused to acknowledge any other than
egitimate sovereign. At a later period,
as chosen caliph, many Mussulmans
osite party rose against him, and the
which had received the new religion
ated by civil war. Such is the origin
e principal sects which still divide the
of Mahomet, and which are named
nd *Shyites.*

unites admit the succession of caliphs,
actually took place, and consider as
ly all the companions of the prophet
ned faithful to the laws of Islamism.
es, on the contrary, acting upon the
ent to Ali alone and his direct descend-
uthority belonged, load Abubeker,
l Osman with curses, and reject all
do not range themselves under the
f their favourite prince.

nion, which at first was merely poli-
soon gained an ascendant in religious
Time being requisite for the complete
of Islamism, it was *necessary, on many*
to recur to the decisions of the prin-
ies of the prophet, and therefore, in
their quality of caliphs, Abubeker, Omar, and Osman, naturally exercised a great influence. The Sunnites admit indiscriminately the theological explanations and legal decisions of these various personages. To this circumstance they owe their name, which is derived from the Arabic word *sunna*, signifying *tradition.* But the Shyites, actuated by their exclusive love of Ali, reject these explanations as so many heresies, and adopt different principles. Their adversaries therefore call them, *Shyites*, from an Arabic word which signifies *sectaries.* The name which they give to themselves is *Adelias*, or the friends of justice.

The Sunnites and Shyites are split into subdivisions, and have sometimes had the upper hand in one country and sometimes in another. The first sect now occupies all the Ottoman empire, Egypt, several parts of Africa, and the islands of the Indian Sea, and has many adherents among the Turkish tribes in Russia and Persia. This party is subdivided into four rites, named *Hanbalites*, *Shafeites*, *Malekites*, and *Hanefites*, from the names of their founders, Hanbal, Shafei, Malek, Abu Hanifa. But, as these four rites differ only on questions of trivial importance, they are considered by the Sunnites to be all equally orthodox, and each individual is left to choose that which he likes best. But the doctrine of Abu Hanifa is generally followed in Turkey, that of Shafei in Egypt, that of Malek in the Barbary states, and that of Hanbal in Arabia.

As to the ramifications of the Shyites, who occupy the rest of the Mahometan countries, they present very important differences. We have said that the name of Shyites was originally given to the exclusive friends of Ali and his descendants. But Ali had not time to fix his authority firmly; and, besides, he left several sons; it was the same with respect to the greatest part of his descendants. To whom, then, did the authority successively pass? The majority agree in recognising, as legitimate sovereigns, Hassan and Hossein, sons of Ali, and the direct descendants of Hossein till the last of all, who, having disappeared when he was twelve years of age, is imagined to be hidden in some unknown place, waiting till he can re-appear on earth, and make the good cause triumph. These personages are twelve in number, and were called *imams*, which means *most excellent of chiefs*; the last of them is also surnamed the *mahdi*, or the directed. While waiting for the return of the mahdi, there is held to be no longer a legitimate authority on earth, and kings are regarded as merely the imam's lieutenants. It was in consequence of this belief, that the Persian princes of the powerful dynasty of the Sophis, who claimed a collateral descent from the imams, denominated themselves *the slaves of the king of the country*, and that they perpetually kept ready several horses at Ispahan, for the service of the imam upon his arrival. This singular doctrine still prevails in Persia. It even makes some progress in India, *where the* mogul emperors formerly gave the *superiority to the* Sunnite rite, and where, since *the English* have become masters, the Mussul-

mans, who are almost all of Persian origin, enjoy entire liberty of conscience.

But, in fact, there are many Shyites who do not assent to this succession of imams, and carry their homage elsewhere. There are some who believe that to Ali alone, after Mahomet, belonged the spiritual and temporal authority, and that, though he sank for a while under the perversity of the age, he will at no distant period re-appear in majesty, and that justice will then be done upon the crimes by which human nature has so long been sullied. The majority of these sectaries even believe that Ali was invested with a divine character, and they do not hesitate to adore him as a god. Such is the case with the *Nossairis* and the *Mutualis*, who still occupy a part of the heights of Lebanon.

Admitting the first six imams, other Shyites contend that there was an error committed with respect to the seventh, and that, instead of Musa, one of his brothers named Ismael ought to have been proclaimed. For this reason they are denominated *Ismaelians*. They believe that, subsequent to Ismael, the character of imam devolved upon unknown personages, who will manifest themselves in their time. The quality of madhi was successively attributed by them to the Fatimite caliphs of Ismael, who, during the 10th, 11th, and 12th centuries ruled over a part of Africa, Egypt, and Syria. To this sect belong the Ismaelians established in Persia, not far from Kasbin, and the Ismaelians, who, dwelling in the mountains near Lebanon, became so famous in the middle ages, under the name of *Assassins*. These two branches of the Ismaelian sect still subsist in the same countries, but no longer possess the same power and the same resources. To this sect must also be referred the *Druses*, who are also established in Lebanon, and who form a tolerably numerous population. The Druses are traced back to the beginning of the 11th century of our era, under the reign of the Fatemite caliph Hakem. Differing from the rest of the Ismaelites, they hold that Hakem was the last incarnation of the Divinity, and, while expecting his return, they adore him as a god, under the image of a wolf. The name of Druses is derived from one of the first apostles of Hakem, who was called Durzi.

The divers Shyite sects, and their ramifications, have varied in doctrine according to times and places; but it would be too tedious to give a detailed account of those doctrines. It must suffice to say that the majority of these sectaries, sometimes led away by the spirit of fanaticism, and sometimes by an unbridled licentiousness, have imagined that all religious and moral truths, are but apparently truths, and that it is necessary to search to the bottom for an internal sense, the only one which ought to have authority. This internal sense they have attributed exclusively to some adepts, and have believed that those who were aided by this knowledge were placed above the performance *of every moral and religious duty*.. It was as a *consequence of this principle*, that the Assassins, Druses, and other Ismaelian sects committed the most horrible crimes without feeling any remorse.

There is one observation which must not be omitted; it is that the Sunnites, as well as the Shyites, believe that, sooner or later, some being will visit the earth to establish the reign of truth and justice. It has consequently happened that, even among the Sunnites, impostors have appeared, who have usurped the title of mahdi. One of them came forward in Egypt, while the French were in possession of that country; and, of late years, several others have shown themselves in Senegal and in the vicinity of the French colonies in that quarter.

Besides the two original sects of Sunnite and Shyite, there are two others, which, from the part they are now playing, must not be passed over in silence. They are those of the *Yezidis* and the *Wahabites*.

The Yezidis occupy the mountains near the town of Singar in Mesopotamia, and appear to be a fragment of the Magian, Manichean, and Sabæan sects, which so long disturbed the East. They afterwards became mingled with the Christian and Mussulman communions, and it is now difficult to ascertain their real origin and their true character. They believe in a good and an evil principle; and as, in their opinion, the bad one alone is to be feared, it is the only one which they endeavour to propitiate. They call it *alsheikh almoazzem*, or *the great sheikh*. Rather than curse it, these sectaries would allow themselves to be massacred. They, moreover, adore the sun, at his rising, and have a great veneration for the Christian priests.

As to the Wahabites, it is well known that they originated in Arabia, about the middle of the 18th century. They were called Wahabites from the name of the father of their chief, Abd-al-Wahab. This doctrine is that of Islamism, reduced to its simplest form. According to them, the Koran contains a doctrine truly divine; but Mahomet was no more than a common man, and his name ought not to find a place in religious practices. Every homage rendered to Mahomet, or to any one whatever of his disciples, is an act of idolatry, and ought to be punished as such. The Wahabites, therefore, content themselves with acknowledging one God. They scruple to invoke any earthly being, and when they meet with a chapel, or a mausoleum, erected in honour of an imam, or of any saint, they destroy it. The Wahabites announced their determination to expel from the Arabian peninsula the Turks and all other foreigners. At first, they were joined by almost the whole of their fellow countrymen, and for a while they occupied a part of Mesopotamia. But, since the reverses which they sustained in their contest with Mehemet Ali, the pasha of Egypt, they have been compelled to fall back into their deserts.

If from our inquiry into the Mussulman doctrines, we proceed to investigate their civil and religious hierarchy, we meet with equally wide

differences. The first caliphs were invested with the temporal and spiritual power, and were so called from an Arabic word, which signifies *vicars*. They were considered as replacing Mahomet, with the exception of his prophetical character; they were also denominated *Emir el Mumenim*, or commanders of the faithful. As, in the course of time, several caliphs existed at once, their influence decreased. Now, properly speaking, there is no caliph; the sultan of Constantinople possesses only the temporal authority; and it is the *mufti*, in conjunction with the *ulemas*, or doctors, who is the judge in doctrinal questions. The Shah of Persia is in the same case; he is not even invested with plenary sovereignty, since, as we have already stated, he is regarded as exercising only a temporary authority; till the return of the last of the imams. The emperor of Morocco alone pretends to unite the two powers, and sometimes assumes the title of caliph. But the political influence of the emperor of Morocco has exceedingly declined.

The Mussulmans have likewise particular ministers for the exercise of their worship, and these ministers have names analogous to their functions. The *khatib*, or preacher, is he who on Fridays ascends the pulpit in presence of the people, and prays for the sovereign and the whole nation. The *imam*, who in this instance is but a common functionary, is he who prays at the head of the people in the mosque, and whose movements are imitated by his hearers; he also presides at the ceremonies of circumcision, and burial; in a word, he stands in the same situation as our curates. But none of these ministers of worship take what are properly called vows. All are free to marry, and to change their profession. The same man is by turns a priest, a soldier, a lawyer, &c.

Among the Mussulmans we likewise find persons who profess to lead a pious and solitary life. This species of monks is designated by a term which alludes to their relinquishment of the good things of this world; it is that of *poor*, which is expressed in Arabic by *fakir*, and in Persia by *dervish*. Those who pride themselves upon leading a strictly contemplative life are styled *sophis*. The Mahometan monks compose several different orders, some of which trace back their origin to the ancient caliphs. The greatest part of the brothers—for they are so called—are subjected to a rigid noviciate, and are not admitted till after they have undergone a long probation. Some live in community, in a sort of convents; others become hermits; some have fixed abodes; others are itinerant. All, however, are free to change their state, and to choose whatever pursuit is most agreeable to them. Many of these Mussulman monks devote themselves to a contemplative life, and plunge into the most extravagant spiritualism; the books which contain their reveries are very numerous. Those, on the contrary, who love the world, lead frequently a licentious life, and there is no excess of which *they are not guilty*. *It is this class which is spoken of in our nar-*

ratives, under the name of *kalenders*, *santons*, &c.

Brahmanism acknowledges *Para-Brahma* as the supreme god; but this god does not act, he delegates his powers to Brama, Vishnu, Siva, and a multitude of subaltern deities, assigned for the government of the world. Brama rules the earth, Vishnu the water, and Siva the fire. These three persons are, nevertheless, but one god, and they form the *Indian Trinity*, called *Trimourtee*. The Hindoos, who profess this religion, have several sacred books, named *Vedas*; they are written in Sanscrit, and form their religious and philosophical code; they admit the metempsychosis, and, in consequence of this belief, certain classes abstain from the flesh of all kinds of animals. Brahmanism commands the moderating of the passions, and teaches the immortality of the soul, its purification by penance and voluntary abstinences, and a vast number of religious practices. All the members of this religion, which extends nearly throughout India, have, from the remotest times, been divided into four castes, all intermixture of which is forbidden. Those castes are, the *Brahmins*, who are the learned and the priests, and form the class from which all public functionaries are taken; the *Cshatryas*, or *Khettris*, destined to the military profession; it is from them that sprang the Rajahs, who established the principalities of once-independant India; the *Nairs* of the Deccan are connected with it. The *Vaishyas*, or *Beixes*, are devoted to agriculture, cattle-breeding, and dealing in the produce of the soil, and manufactured articles; those who occupy themselves in commerce, especially in foreign countries, are styled *Banians*; a great number of the Mahrattas belong to this class. The *Sudras*, or *Tshutri*, are the artisans and labourers. Each of these four principal castes is subdivided into several secondary. Among the Hindoos, the descendants of those who, by unlawful marriages, have derogated from the rights of the leading castes, are comprised in the ignoble and despised divisions, called *Varna-Sankara*. Still lower than these mixed or bastard castes we find the unfortunate *Parias*. These beings are obliged to live in solitary places, to shun the sight of a Hindoo, to distinguish their wells by a circle of animals' bones, and to employ themselves in the most disgusting occupations. On the other hand, they may eat everything.

The Brahmanic worship is accompanied by a great number of ceremonies and solemn usages. Some of them are horrible; such is the procession of the god Juggernaut, beneath the wheels of whose ponderous car fanatics throw themselves to be crushed, in the belief that they are thus gaining the most glorious of deaths and eternal happiness. There are other festivals, in which reign tumult and licentiousness, where the shameless *Lingam* is shown to the prostrated multitude. Ablutions and lustrations make a prominent part of the Brahminical worship; the images of the *divinities* are solemnly washed in the rivers and *lakes*. Several rivers, among which are the

Ganges, the Nerbudda, and the Kristna, are held sacred. There are many places to which the Hindoos make pilgrimages; the most celebrated and frequented are stated by Mr. Hamilton to be Jaggernaut, Benares, Gaya, Allahabad, Tripaty, Dwaraca, Somnath, Ramisseram, the Maransoar Lake, Gangoutri, Joalamukhi, Omercuntuc, Trimbaka-Nasser, Pervattam, Parkar, Madura, and Bindrabund.

The barbarous custom of the women of the first two castes, who immolate themselves on the funeral piles of their husbands, is a remnant of the human sacrifices, which were anciently very frequent. Even in latter times, during epidemics and public calamities, Brahmins have been seen to throw themselves from the summit of a tower as an expiatory offering. The Hindoos have numerous temples, named *Pagodas*, a word borrowed from the Persian; some of them are exceedingly remarkable for their architecture and their magnitude.

BUDDHISM, or the RELIGION OF BUDDHA, appears to have originated in India, about a thousand years before Jesus Christ. We do not yet certainly know whether it is a reformation of Brahmanism, or whether in its actual form it is not of prior date. Buddhism rejects the division into castes. Its principal dogmas, which have transformed the savage nomadic tribes of Asia into civilized people, and which have made their beneficent influence be felt as far as Siberia, are the same wherever this worship is practised. The hierarchy alone differs in different countries; but this difference must not lead us to consider Buddhism in any other light than as one religion, in which no variation exists.

Buddhism, says M. Klaproth, supposes, like Brahmanism, a perpetual series of creations and destructions of the world. This belief, purely metaphysical, does not admit the existence of a supreme being; he is replaced by luminous space, which contains within itself all the germs of future beings. But this luminous space is not the highest region of the world; above it is a third region, which is eternal and indestructible. It is here that dwells the primitive cause of the destruction of the perishable world. Existence is regarded by the Buddhists as the real evil; for all that exists is without reality, and merely a produce of the illusion which deceives the senses. While all the intellectual parts, dispersed among matter, from the highest luminous region down to the infernal regions, throw off everything of matter which they have contracted, become purified, perfected, and end by uniting, the universal indestructible spirit, which preserves everything for an incalculable time, remains at rest, till the laws of *damata*, or destiny, render a new creation necessary, from which, however, are excepted the beings who, by divesting themselves wholly of matter, are become *Buddhas*, and remain plunged in the *Nirvana*, or eternity of nothingness, the state opposed to that of existence in matter. These beings dwell in the indestructible *region situated beyond the* luminous space. It *is to preserve the remembrance* of the true doctrine, and to render men capable of following it, that these beatified persons descend to earth from time to time, assume a body, and manifest themselves to men. The chief of them appear but once; these only are, strictly speaking, the *Buddhas*, properly so called; the others, named *Buddhisattva*, manifest themselves several times by different incarnations, till they reach the rank of the first, and show themselves no more on earth. These perfect beings exercise an absolute empire over their enemy, which is matter, and over its seductive forms. Disposing as masters of *Maya*, or that illusion which cheats the senses by its metamorphoses, they can at pleasure destroy it, or make use of it to accomplish the salvation of the human race. All the incarnations of the Buddhas are effected in the following manner; their souls descend in the form of luminous rays, and take a body under the envelope of *Maya*. They do nothing without a special purpose; their operations are never violent; nor do they at all shackle the free will of the inferior beings who are fettered by matter, and for the salvation of whom they have descended.

Down to the present time four Buddhas have already appeared; the last of them was Shakiamuni or Gaudama; a fifth is yet to come before the destruction of the world; this will be the Buddha-Maitri or Maitari. The sect of Ceylon and Ultra-Gangetic India holds, on the contrary, that this incarnation will take place in the year 4457 of our era; an epoch at which will end the five thousand years which are to follow the death of Shakiamuni. According to the Cingalese books, there exists, relative to the person of the last Buddha, a very considerable difference of opinion between the natives of Ceylon and Ultra-Gangetic India and the other sectaries of the same faith.

The Buddhists believe the world to be inhabited by various classes of beings; they are either *tshama*, that is to say, reproductions by birth; *roupa*, material or visible gods; or *aroupa*, immaterial or invisible. These beings ascend, by successive transmigrations, from an inferior to a superior rank, according to their good or bad conduct in their previous state, till they finally obtain the beatitude of *Nirvana*, or non-existence; meaning thereby an existence purged entirely from matter, and consequently not subject to the influence of *Maya*, or illusion. Even as all beings quit continually one kind of existence for another, so also are changes undergone by the worlds which they inhabit. Gaudama himself knows not the beginning or the end of this uninterrupted chain of mundane sytems. All the beings inhabiting the *loka*, or universe, produced by a series of destructions and renovations, are classed as follows:—

Men, and the local gods called *Nat*, who inspect and judge the human race; they have the good and evil genii for servants. This first class dwells on earth, and in the atmospheric regions, which comprehend Mount Miemmo, and the sixteen heavens of the Devs, placed one above

the other, each surpassing that below it in brightness and splendour.

The second class is that of the *roupa*, or visible gods; it occupies the sixteen highest heavens, up to the twenty-second of *Brahmaloka*.

In the third, abide the immaterial beings who, having been zealous votaries of the doctrine of Buddha, are placed in the four heavens, from the twenty-third to the twenty-sixth. Lastly, the Buddhas reside in the *bon*, or empire which covers all those heavens.

The Thibetan collection of the principal classic books of the ancient Indian Buddhists is called *Gandjur*, and comprises even grammatical and lexicographical works. It consists of 108 volumes. The Thibetans and Mongols have constructed temples merely for the reception of these sacred volumes. As the worshippers of Buddha believe that prayers to the divinity may be rendered efficacious by whatever means put in motion, (whether by the mouth or by a mechanical agent,) there are in their temples a great number of cylinders, which are kept continually turning by a hydraulic wheel; they contain the volumes of the Gandjur, the contents of which, agitated in this manner, are believed to exercise a beneficent influence on the well-being of the human race. In great solemnities a circular frame, containing 108 lamps, to represent the volumes of the Gandjur, is lighted up, and turned in the same direction as the cylinders. The chaplets of the Buddhist priests are also composed of 108 beads.

Buddhism, which originated in Hindoostan, is no longer so widely spread there as it formerly was. The few votaries whom it retains in that vast country bear the name of Buddhas; for the belief of the Jains of the Deccan is now a modified Buddhism. The other Hindoos consider Buddha as merely an incarnation of Vishnu. His religion still subsists in all its purity in Nepaul, as well as in Thibet. It was carried thither formerly, and likewise into Bukharia. It is still in vigour in Ceylon. Imported from that island into Ultra-Gangetic India, it is professed in the empires of Birmah and Annam, in China, Corea, and Japan, by a considerable portion of the unlettered population. The Buddhists honour Buddha as a supreme intelligence manifested in the person of Shakiamani.

The hierarchy established in Thibet, in the 13th century, has successively spread its influence over the Mongol nations, and some Tunguses. We must take care not to mistake this hierarchy for a branch or modification of Buddhism. The person of the Dalaï-lama is only considered as an incarnation of a Buddhic divinity, who in all ages has had a predilection for the countries situated to the north of India. The series of actual Dalaï-lamas does not commence before the first half of the 15th century. They have a regular hierarchy established in Thibet and Mongolia.

In its institutions and external practices, Buddhism offers a surprising resemblance to the Romish Church. Among the Buddhists we find pontiffs, patriarchs charged with the spiritual government of provinces, a council of superior priests who assemble in conclave to elect a pontiff, and whose insignia even bear a great likeness to those of our cardinals, convents of monks and nuns, prayers for the dead, auricular confession, the intercession of saints, fasting, kissing the feet, litanies, processions, and lustral water.

The Doctrine of the Learned, called also The Religion of Confucius, because that celebrated philosopher is considered as its reformer and patriarch.—It has for its basis a philosophical pantheism, which has been variously interpreted according to the epochs. It is thought, says M. Abel Remusat, that, in remote antiquity, the doctrine of the existence of an omnipotent and remunerating deity was not excluded from it; and various passages of Confucius afford reason for believing that it was admitted by the sage himself. But his negligence in inculcating it to his disciples, the vague meaning of the expressions which he employed, and the care which he took to base exclusively his ideas of morality and justice on the principle of love of order, and on a badly defined conformity with the designs of Heaven and the march of nature, have allowed succeeding philosophers to go astray; so far, indeed, that, since the 12th century of our era, many of them have fallen into absolute Spinosism, and, appealing to the authority of their great master, have taught a complex system, which consists of materialism, and degenerates into atheism. The merely civil worship paid to the heavens, and to the genii of the earth, stars, mountains, and rivers, as well as to the souls of relations, seems in their eyes a social institution of no consequence, or, at least, of which the meaning may be interpreted in various manners. This worship has no images and no priests; each magistrate practises it within the sphere of his functions, and the emperor himself is its patriarch. Generally, all the learned of China, the empire of An-nam, and Japan, adhere to it, without, however, relinquishing customs borrowed from other forms of worship. They are more superstitious than religious; conviction has little to do with their conduct; but habit binds them to practices which they themselves ridicule, such as the distinction of lucky and unlucky days, horoscopes, physiognomy, divination by lots, &c. &c.

The Worship of Spirits, or Mythological Naturalism, of Eastern Asia, is considered by its professors as the primitive religion of the most ancient inhabitants of China. It extends to Japan, Corea, among the Tunguses, and Tonquin, where it has taken various forms, and is actually the faith of all that part of the population which has not embraced Buddhism, or the principles of Confucius. This religion has many dogmas in common with the preceding; only it more strongly recognises the individual existence of genii and demons, independent of the parts of nature over which they

preside. This religion has degenerated into polytheism and idolatry, through the ignorance of its followers. The priests and priestesses, who are bound to celibacy, practise magic, astrology, necromancy, and a thousand other absurd superstitions. They are called *Tao-sse*, or *doctors of reason*, because that one of their fundamental doctrines, which, six centuries before our era, was taught by Lao-tsen, one of their masters, is that of the existence of the *Primordial Reason*, creator of the world; the *Logos* of the Platonists.

THE RELIGION OF SINTO is the most ancient of those which prevail in Japan. It bears a great resemblance to Mythological Naturalism, of which some learned men even believe it to be a branch. It consists in the adoration of a supreme being; but it allows of inferior deities, and prescribes the practice of good works, and abstinence from animal food. Its temples, called *Mie*, contain a mirror, to call to mind that, as the defects of the body are faithfully shown in the glass, so the defects of the soul cannot remain hidden from the sight of the divinity. In some of the temples there is a niche which holds the statue of the deity to whom the edifice is dedicated. The simplicity of this religion has been much diminished since the introduction of Buddhism into Japan. It admits of pilgrimages, it has nuns, and brotherhoods of various kinds, and of monks, the last of whom, in particular, turn to account the superstition of the people. Though the religion of Sinto is the most ancient in Japan, the *Dairis*, or emperors of that country, who are regarded as descendants of the gods, have for a long period conformed to the laws of Buddha.

MAGISM, OR THE RELIGION OF ZOROASTER.—According to M. Saint Martin, this very ancient religion acknowledges the existence of a supreme being, called *Zerwan*, or *time without end*, from whom emanated two principles, the one of them good, named, in the ancient Persian tongue, *Ehoro-Mezdao*, or *Oromazes*, by the Greeks; the other bad, whose antique Persian name was *Enghreo Meenioch*, in Greek, *Arimanes*. They fought, and at length the good obtained a complete victory. Zoroaster admits three worlds; an *upper*, spiritual, the abode of the primitive light and of the productive power; a *middle world*, visible, where reigns Oromazes, king of light, and Mithra, the union of the active and passive forces of nature; lastly, *a lower region of darkness*, the dwelling of Arimanes and of his malevolent train the *Dews*. It believes in a hierarchy of pure celestial beings, derived from Oromazes, and whom the Persians invoke as beneficent genii. Man of celestial origin, was at first of a luminous and pure nature; but, having sunk under the disastrous influence of Arimanes, he lost his privileges. Yet, if he combat incessantly against the bad principle, he will have a part in the universal restoration of all things. The greatest part of this worship *consists in purifications*, ablutions, and ceremonies which are supposed to have a tendency to approximate man to the light. It is before the sacred fire that they are practised, and that the various formulas of prayer prescribed by the ritual of Zoroaster are recited. His doctrine is contained in the *Zend-Avesta*, written in the dead language called *Zend*. Magism still exists, among the Parsis or Guebres in Kerman, in Persia, and at Surat and in the Guserat, in Hindoostan. As early as the first century of the Christian era, there was spread in the Roman empire a religion which came from Persia, known under the name of the *Mithriatic worship*, which greatly resembled the religion of Zoroaster, but in which the god Mithra, the son of Oromazes, charged with the conduct of the sun and the government of the world, a mediator between Oromazes and the human race, was the object of special adoration.

NANEKISM, or the RELIGION OF THE SIKHS, was instituted by Nanek, who, according to Mr. Hamilton, was born in 1419, in the province of Lahore, in Hindoostan. It may be regarded as a mixture of Brahmanism and Islamism. It teaches the most thorough deism. The Sikhs adore one God, recognise future rewards and punishments, tolerate all religions, on none of which will they even enter into a discussion, believe in a secondary incarnation of the divinity, proscribe the worship of images, and abstain from eating pork. These sectaries acknowledge the authenticity of the Indian *Vedas*, which, and also the Koran, they look upon as divine books; but they assert that the religion of the Hindoos is corrupted by polytheism, and that the adoration of images has led that people astray from the worship of the true God. They regard ablution as one of the principal duties to be performed. Their temples contain no idols, and their prayers are very simple. This religion experienced great reforms under the pontificate of Gouru-Govind, who died in 1707. The Sikhs consider him as a new prophet, and as the founder of their national power. The followers of this religion reject the distinction of castes, are held to be all soldiers, must renounce tobacco, and let their hair and beard grow. A numerous body of religious warriors, named *Akalis*, has the charge of all that relates to worship. There is a kind of baptism, or initiation, which adult sectaries undergo, and to which every individual must submit who wishes to be admitted into this religion. Every one who desires it is received. This faith is professed by the great mass of the population of the Panjaub, and by all the Sikhs who are established in other parts of India.

It is impossible to make any positive statement as to the number of followers belonging to each of the religions professed in various countries of the globe. An absurd zeal induces the different parties to exaggerate their number, as if a great majority was always an indication of a good cause. The incredulous, especially, towards the close of the 18th century, attached a ridiculous importance to swelling the number of Mahometans and Pagans. The amount of

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we have entered, to discover the approximative number of the people who speak the numerous languages of the globe, and those which we have made to determine the population of the different states, have furnished us with a mass of facts, sufficiently extensive to warrant us in believing that we are not far from the point in proposing the following numbers; which, however, are, and can be, nothing more than approximations:—

rism,	*The Latin or Western Church*, (Catholic)	139,000,000
	The Greek or Eastern Church, with all its branches . .	63,000,000
	The Protestant Churches, with all their subdivisions . .	59,000,000
		260,000,000
it most		4,000,000
with all its branches		96,000,000
sm		60,000,000
, with all its branches		170,000,000
ions of Confucius, Sinto, the Worship of Spirits, ism, Magism, &c., and Fetishism		147,000,000
	Total of all religions	737,000,000

wn up the following Table, that our calculations may be compared with those of inguished geographers. All these estimates may be considered as nearly con- he two oldest, which are those of Malte-Brun and Graberg, go back only to 1810

	Malte-Brun.	Graberg.	Pinkerton.	Hassel.	Balbi.
with all its branches	228,000,000	236,000,000	235,000,000	252,000,000	260,000,000
. . . . .	5,000,000	5,000,000	5,000,000	3,930,000	4,000,000
. . . . .	110,000,000	120,000,000	120,000,000	120,105,000	96,000,000
. . . . .	60,000,000	60,000,000	60,000,000	111,353,000	60,000,000
ith all its branches . .	150,000,000	150,000,000	180,000,000	315,977,000	170,000,000
religions	100,000,000	115,000,000	100,000,000	134,490,000	147,000,000
	653,000,000	686,000,000	700,000,000	937,835,000	737,000,000

CHAPTER VI.

THE ORIGIN OF NATIONS, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, AND COMMERCE.

course of this work, mentioned
ses of countries, and sometimes
those countries even carried our
earlier times, we have thought it
order to prepare the reader for
the particular history of each
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the human race, from the first
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causes that produced, and the
llowed from them, is certainly
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o the understanding of the pre-
commerce, *government, arts, and*
y particular country it may be

called commercial and political geography, and, undoubtedly, constitutes the most useful branch of that science.

The great event of the creation of the world, before which "the earth was without form and void," is placed, according to the best chronologists, in the year before Christ 4004, and in the 710th year of what is called the Julian period, which has been adopted by some historians, but is of little real service. The sacred records have fully determined the question, that the world was not eternal, and have also adjusted the time of its creation.

It appears in general, from the first chapters in Genesis, that the world, before the flood, was *extremely populous*; that mankind had made *considerable* improvement in the arts, and had become extremely vicious, both in sentiments

and manners. Their wickedness gave occasion to a memorable catastrophe, (B. C. 2348,) by which the whole human race, except Noah and his family, were swept from the face of the earth. The deluge took place in the 1656th year of the world, and seems to have produced a very considerable change in the soil and atmosphere of this globe, rendering them less friendly to the frame and texture of the human body. From this era we may date the abridgment of the life of man, and the rise and continuance of a formidable train of diseases. A curious part of history follows that of the deluge—the repeopling of the world, and the rising of a new generation from the ruins of the former. The memory of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of nations, was long preserved among their several descendants. Japheth continued famous among the western nations, under the name of Iapetos; the Hebrews paid an equal veneration to Shem, who was the founder of their race; and, among the Egyptians, Ham was long revered as a divinity, under the name of Jupiter Hammon. It appears that hunting was the principal occupation for some centuries after the deluge. The world teemed with wild beasts; and the great heroism of those times consisted in destroying them. Hence Nimrod obtained immortal renown; and, by the admiration which his courage and dexterity universally excited, he was enabled to found at Babylon (B. C. 2247) the first monarchy whose origin is particularly mentioned in history. Not long after, Assur laid the foundation of Nineveh; and in Egypt the four governments of Thebes, Theri, Memphis, and Tanis, began to assume some appearance of form and regularity. That these events should have happened so soon after the deluge, whatever surprise it may have occasioned to the learned some centuries ago, will not excite the wonder of the present age. We have seen, in many instances, the powerful effects of the principles of population, and how speedily mankind increase, when the generative faculty lies under no restraint. The kingdoms of Mexico and Peru were incomparably more extensive than those of Babylon, Nineveh, and Egypt, during that early age; and yet these kingdoms are not supposed to have existed four centuries before the discovery of America by Columbus. As mankind continued to multiply on the earth, and to separate from each other, the tradition concerning the true God was obliterated or obscured. This occasioned the calling of Abraham (A. C. 1921) to be the father of a chosen people. From this period ancient history begins to expand itself.

Mankind had not long been united into societies before they began to oppress and destroy each other. Chedorlaomer, king of the Elamites, or Persians, had already become a robber and a conqueror. His force, however, could not have been very great, since, in one of his expeditions, Abraham, assisted only by his household, attacked him in his retreat, and, after a fierce engagement, recovered all the spoil that had been taken. Abraham was soon obliged by a famine to leave Canaan, the country where God had commanded him to settle, and to go into Egypt. This journey gave occasion to Moses to mention some particulars respecting the Egyptians, which evidently manifest the characteristics of an improved and powerful nation. The court of the Egyptian monarch is described in the most brilliant colours. He was surrounded by a crowd of courtiers, solely occupied in gratifying his passions. The particular governments into which that country was divided were now united under one powerful prince; and Ham, who led the colony into Egypt, became the founder of a mighty empire. We are not, however, to imagine, that all the laws which took place in Egypt, and which have been so justly admired for their wisdom, were the work of that early age. Diodorus Siculus, a Greek writer, mentions many successive princes who laboured for their establishment and perfection. But in the time of Jacob, two centuries after, the first principles of civil order and regular government seem to have been tolerably understood among the Egyptians. The country was divided into several districts or separate departments; councils composed of experienced and select persons were established for the management of public affairs; many granaries were erected; and, in fine, the Egyptians in that age enjoyed a commerce far from inconsiderable. It is from the Egyptians that many of the arts, both of elegance and utility, have been handed down in an uninterrupted chain to the modern nations of Europe. Numerous domestic and other articles used by the Egyptians, are identical with those of modern times. The Egyptians communicated their arts to the Greeks: the Greeks taught the Romans many improvements in the arts of both peace and war; and to the Romans the present inhabitants of Europe are indebted for their civilization and refinement. The kingdoms of Babylon and Nineveh remained separate for several centuries; but we scarcely know even the names of the kings who governed them, except that of Ninus, the successor of Assur, who, fired with the spirit of conquest, extended the bounds of his kingdom, added Babylon to his dominions, and laid the foundation of that monarchy, which, raised to its meridian splendour by his enterprising successor, Semiramis, and distinguished by the name of the Assyrian empire, ruled Asia for many ages.

Javan, son of Japheth and grandson of Noah was the stock from whom all the people known by the name of Greeks descended. Javan established himself in the islands on the western coast of Asia Minor, from which it was impossible that some wanderers should not pass over into Europe. The kingdom of Sicyon, near Corinth founded by the Pelasgi, is generally supposed to have commenced in the year before Christ 2090. To these first inhabitants succeeded a colony from Egypt, who, about 1000 years before the Christian era, penetrated into Greece, and

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dry, long *before their discovery often mentioned in the sacred* writings. It is not to be supposed that the ancient cities both in Asia and Egypt could have been built, unless the culture of the ground had been practised at that time. Nations which live only by hunting or pasturage, lead a wandering life, and seldom fix their residence in cities. Commerce naturally follows agriculture; and, though we cannot trace the steps by which it was introduced among the ancient nations, we may, from detached passages in sacred writ, discover the progress which had been made in it during the patriarchal times. We know, from the history of civil society, that the commercial intercourse between men must be considerable, before the metals begin to be considered as the medium of trade; and yet this was the case even in the days of Abraham. It appears, however, from the relations which establish this fact, that the use of money had not been of ancient date; it had no mark to ascertain its weight or fineness; and, in a contract for a burying-place, in exchange for which Abraham gave silver, the metal was weighed in the presence of all the people. As commerce improved, and bargains of this sort became more common, this practice was laid aside, and the quantity of silver was ascertained by a particular mark, which saved the trouble of weighing it. But this does not appear to have taken place before the time of Jacob. The *kesitah*, of which we read in his time, was a piece of money, stamped with the figure of a lamb, and of a precise and stated value. The history of Joseph shows that commerce was then regularly carried on. The Ishmaelites and Midianites, who bought him of his brethren, were travelling merchants, resembling those which form the modern caravans, who carried spices, perfumes, and other rich commodities, from their own country into Egypt. Job, who (according to the best writers) was a native of Arabia Felix, and also contemporary with Jacob, speaks of the roads of Thema and Saba, *i. e.* of the caravans which set out from those cities of Arabia. If we reflect that the commodities of that country were rather the luxuries than the necessaries of life, we shall have reason to conclude that the countries into which they were sent for sale, and particularly Egypt, were considerably improved in arts and refinement.

Those descendants of Noah, who settled on the coasts of Palestine, were the first people of the world among whom navigation was made subservient to commerce: they were distinguished by a word which in the Hebrew tongue signifies merchants, and were the same nation afterward known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Inhabiting a barren and ungrateful soil, they endeavoured to improve their situation by cultivating the arts. Commerce was their principal pursuit; and, with all the writers of pagan antiquity, they pass for the inventors of whatever tended to its advancement. In the time of Abraham *they were regarded* as a powerful nation; *their maritime* commerce is mentioned by Jacob *in his last words to* his children; and, according

to Herodotus, the Phœnicians had by this time navigated the coasts of Greece, and carried off the daughter of Inachus.

The arts of agriculture, commerce, and navigation, suppose the knowledge of several others: astronomy, for instance, is necessary both to agriculture and navigation; and the art of working metals, to commerce. In fact, we find, that before the death of Jacob several nations were so well acquainted with the revolutions of the moon, as to measure by them the duration of their year. It had been a custom among all the nations of antiquity, as well as the Jews, to divide time into seven days, or a week: this undoubtedly arose from the tradition with regard to the origin of the world. It was natural for those nations which led a pastoral life, or lived under a serene sky, to observe that the various appearances of the moon were completed nearly in four weeks: hence arose the division of a month. Those, also, who lived by agriculture, would remark that twelve months brought back the same temperature of the air, or the same seasons: hence originated what is called the lunar year—a division of time which, together with the observation of the fixed stars, naturally prepared the way for the discovery of the solar year. But, with regard to those branches of knowledge which we have mentioned, it is to be remembered that they were peculiar to the Egyptians, and a few nations of Asia. Europe offered a gloomy spectacle during this period. Even the inhabitants of Greece, who in later ages became the patterns of politeness and of every elegant art, were then a savage race, traversing the woods and wilds, inhabiting the rocks and caverns, a prey to wild animals, and sometimes to each other. Those descendants of Noah, who had removed to a great distance from the plains of Shinar, lost all connexion with the civilized part of mankind. Their posterity became still more ignorant; and the human mind was at length immersed in an abyss of misery and wretchedness.

We might naturally expect, that from the death of Jacob, and as we advance in time, the history of the great empires of Egypt and Assyria would emerge from their obscurity. This, however, is far from being the case; we only obtain a glimpse of them, and they disappear for many ages. After the reign of Ninyas, who succeeded Semiramis and Ninus, (B. C. 1965,) on the Assyrian throne, we find an astonishing blank in the history of that empire for eight hundred years. The silence of ancient history on this subject is commonly attributed to the softness and effeminacy of the successors of Ninus, whose lives afforded no events worthy of narration. Wars and commotions are the great themes of the historian, while the gentle and happy reigns of wise princes pass unobserved and unrecorded. We find, however, that Sesostris, a prince of wonderful abilities, greatly improved, by his assiduity and attention, the civil and military establishments of the Egyptians. In the time of that prince and his *immediate successors, Egypt* was, in all probability, *the most powerful kingdom* upon earth, and is supposed to have contained 27 millions of inhabitants. But ancient history often excites, without gratifying, our curiosity; for, during a series of reigns, we have little knowledge of even the names of the princes. Egypt occasionally poured forth her colonies into distant lands. Athens, that seat of learning and politeness, that school for all who aspired to wisdom, owed its foundation to Cecrops, who landed in Greece (B. C. 1556) with an Egyptian colony, and endeavoured to civilize the rough manners of the original inhabitants. From the institutions which Cecrops established among the Athenians, it is easy to infer in what a condition they must have lived before his arrival. Even the laws of marriage were not known in Greece. Mankind, like the beasts of the field, were propagated by accidental connexions, and with little knowledge of those to whom they owed their birth. Cranaüs, who succeeded Cecrops in the kingdom of Attica, pursued the same beneficial plan as his predecessor, and endeavoured, by wise institutions, to bridle the headstrong passions of a rude people.

While these princes used their endeavours for civilizing this corner of Greece, the other kingdoms into which this country (by the natural boundaries of rocks, mountains, and rivers) was divided, and which had been peopled by colonies from Egypt and the East, began to assume an appearance of form and regularity. Amphictyon (B. C. 1496) conceived the idea of uniting in one confederacy the independent kingdoms of Greece, and thereby delivering them from those intestine divisions which would render them a prey to each other, or to the first enemy who might invade the country. This plan he communicated to the different kings or leaders, and by his eloquence and address engaged twelve cities to unite for their common preservation. Two deputies from each of those cities assembled twice in a year at Thermopylæ, and formed what, after the name of its founder, was called the Amphictyonic Council. In this assembly, whatever related to the general interest of the confederacy was discussed and determined. Amphictyon also, sensible that those political connexions are the most permanent which are strengthened by religion, committed to the council the care of the temple at Delphi. This assembly was the great spring of action in Greece, while that country preserved its independence; and, by the union which it inspired among the Greeks, enabled them to defend their liberties against all the force of the Persian empire. Considered under all the circumstances of the age in which it was instituted, the Amphictyonic Council is perhaps the most remarkable political establishment that ever took place among mankind.

The Greek states, formerly unconnected with each other, except by mutual inroads and hostilities, soon began to act with concert, and to undertake distant expeditions for the general interest of the confederacy.

Their first combined enterprise was the expedition of the Argonauts, (B. C. 1263,) whose

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popularity among the peasants and
detached, as much as possible, the
es from the leaders who commanded
olished the courts which had been
a different parts of Attica, and ap-
council-hall common to all the
He did not, however, trust solely
of political *regulations. He called*
efficacy of devotion and of spiritual
power. By establishing common rites of religion to be performed in Athens, and by alluring thither strangers from all quarters, by the prospect of protection and privileges, he raised that city from an inconsiderable village to a powerful metropolis. The splendour of Athens and of Theseus now totally eclipsed that of the other villages and their particular leaders. All the power of the state was united in one city, and under one sovereign. The petty chieftains, being divested of all influence and consideration, became humble and submissive; and Attica remained under the peaceable government of a monarch.

This is a rude sketch of the origin of the first monarchy of which we have a distinct account, and may, without much variation, be applied to the other states of Greece. This country, however, was not destined to continue long under the government of kings. A new influence arose, which in a short time proved too powerful both for the king and the nobles. Theseus had divided the Athenians into three distinct classes —the nobles, the artisans, and the husbandmen. In order to counterbalance the exorbitant power of the nobles, he had bestowed many privileges on the two other ranks of citizens. This plan of policy was followed by his successors; and the lower ranks of the Athenians, partly from the countenance of their sovereign, and partly from the progress of arts and manufactures, which gave them an opportunity of acquiring property, became considerable and independent. These circumstances were attended with a remarkable effect. On the death of Codrus, a prince of great merit, in the year before Christ 1070, the Athenians, under pretence that they could find no one worthy of filling the throne of that monarch, who had devoted himself to death for the safety of his people, abolished royalty itself.

The government of Thebes, another of the Greek states, about the same time, assumed the republican form; and other cities also erected themselves into republics. But the revolutions of Athens and Sparta, two rival states, which, by means of the superiority they acquired, gave the tone to the manners, genius, and politics of the Greeks, deserve our particular attention. The Athenians, on the death of Codrus, created a perpetual magistrate, who, under the name of Archon, was invested with almost the same powers which their kings had enjoyed; but, after that office had continued three hundred and thirty-one years in the family of Codrus, they endeavoured to lessen its dignity by shortening its duration. The first period assigned for the continuance of the archonship in the same person, was three years. Afterward, still more to reduce the power of their archons, it was determined that nine annual magistrates should be appointed under that title. These magistrates were not only chosen by the people, but accountable to them for their conduct at the expiration *of their office.* These alterations were too vio-
lent not to be attended with some dangerous

consequences. Intoxicated with their freedom, the Athenians broke out into the most unruly licentiousness. No written laws had been yet enacted in Athens; and it was hardly possible that the ancient customs of the country, which were naturally supposed to be in part abolished by the successive changes in the government, should sufficiently restrain the tumultuous spirits of the Athenians in the first paroxysm of their independence. The wiser members of the community, therefore, preferring any system of government to anarchy and confusion, were induced to cast their eyes on Draco, a man of an austere but virtuous disposition, as the fittest person for composing a system of law to bridle the furious multitude. Draco undertook the office about the year 628, but executed it with so much rigour, that, in the words of an ancient historian, "his laws were written with blood, and not with ink." Death was the indiscriminate punishment of every offence; and the code of Draco proved to be a remedy worse than the disease. Affairs again fell into confusion, which continued till those laws were reformed, about the year 594. The wisdom, virtue, and amiable manners of Solon, recommended him to the most important of all offices, the giving of laws to a free people. The first step of his legislation was to abolish all the laws of Draco, except those relative to murder. The punishment of this crime could not be too great; but to consider other offences as equally criminal, was confounding all notions of right and wrong, and rendering the law ineffectual by its severity. Solon next proceeded to new-model the political law. He seems to have thought, that a perfect republic, in which each citizen should have an equal political importance, was a system beautiful in theory, but not reducible to practice. He divided the citizens, therefore, into four classes, according to the wealth which they possessed, and the poorest class he rendered altogether incapable of any public office. They had a voice, however, in the general council of the nation, in which all matters of principal concern were determined in the last resort. But lest this assembly, which was composed of all the citizens, should, in the words of Plutarch, like a ship with too many sails, be exposed to the gusts of folly, tumult, and disorder, he provided for its safety by the two anchors of the Senate and Areopagus. The first of these courts consisted of four hundred persons, who prepared all important bills that came before the assembly of the people; the second, though a mere court of justice, gained a prodigious ascendancy in the republic, by the wisdom and gravity of its members, who were not chosen but after the strictest scrutiny and the most serious deliberation.

Like the other states of Greece, that country, of which Sparta afterwards became the capital, was originally divided into several petty principalities, each of which was under the jurisdiction of its own immediate chieftain. Lelex is said to *have been the first* king, about the year before *Christ 1516. At length the two* brothers, Eurysthenes and Procles, obtaining possession of this country, became conjunct in the royalty (a. c. 1102;) and their posterity, in a direct line, continued to rule jointly for almost nine centuries. The Spartan government did not take that singular form which rendered it so remarkable before the time of Lycurgus. The plan of policy devised by that extraordinary man (b. c. 884) comprehended a senate and an assembly of the people, and, in general, all those establishments which are deemed most requisite for the security of political independence. It differed from all other governments, in having two kings, whose office was hereditary, though their power was sufficiently circumscribed by proper restraints. But the great characteristic of the Spartan constitution was this, that, in all his laws, Lycurgus had at least as much respect to war as to political liberty. With this view, all sorts of luxury, all arts of elegance or entertainment, were absolutely proscribed. The citizens were forbidden to use money; they lived at public tables on the coarsest fare; the younger were taught to pay the utmost reverence to the senior citizens; and all ranks capable of bearing arms were daily accustomed to the most laborious exercises. To the Spartans, and to them alone, war was a relaxation rather than a hardship; and they behaved in it with a spirit, of which scarcely any but a Spartan could even form a conception.

In order to see the effect of these principles, and to connect under one point of view the history of the different portions of the globe, we must now cast our eyes on Africa and Asia, and observe the events which happened in those great empires of which we have so long lost sight. For some centuries before the conquest of Egypt by Cambyses the Persian, the people were less celebrated for the power of their arms than for the wisdom of their laws and political institutions. Several of these seem to have been dictated by the true spirit of civil wisdom; they being admirably calculated for preserving order and good government in an extensive kingdom. The great empire of Assyria likewise, which had so long disappeared, becomes again an object of attention, and affords the first instance that we meet with in history, of a kingdom which fell by its own weight, and the effeminate weakness of its sovereigns. Sardanapalus, the last emperor of Assyria, neglecting the administration of affairs, and shutting himself up in his palace with his women and his eunuchs, lost the regard and esteem of his subjects. The governors of his provinces, to whom, like a weak and indolent prince, he had entirely committed the command of his armies, did not fail to seize this opportunity of raising their own fortune on the ruins of their master's power. Arbaces, governor of Media, and Belesis, governor of Babylon, conspired against their sovereign, and, having set fire to his capital, divided between them his extensive dominions. These two kingdoms, sometimes united under one prince, and sometimes governed each by a particular sovereign, maintained the chief sway in Asia for many years.

he kingdom of Assyria; and Shal- of his successors, put an end to the rael, and carried the ten tribes Assyria and Media. Nebuchad- f Babylon, also, in the year before eturned the kingdom of Judah, tinued in the family of David from and conquered all the countries ast, in the year 538, Cyrus the ylon, and reduced a considerable der the Persian yoke (B. C. 538.) of this people, brave, hardy, and s well as the government of Cyrus s departments, are elegantly de- ophon. The era of Cyrus is in remely remarkable, (beside that re delivered from their captivity,) the history of the great nations hich have hitherto engaged our be said to terminate. Let us , the genius of the Assyrians, d Egyptians, in arts and sciences; , discover what progress they had cquirements which are most sub- interests of society.

r the great and the magnificent been the prevailing character of and they principally displayed it of architecture. There are few rer, which confirm the testimony rs with regard to the great works abylon and Nineveh. Three pyra- us fabrics, are still seen in Egypt, posed to have been the burying- ncient Egyptian kings. It was a ong the Egyptians, derived from es, that even after death the soul e body as long as it remained un- ence proceeded the custom of d the pyramids were erected with

hich those nations, next to archi- y excelled, were sculpture and s to the sciences, they principally attention on astronomy. It does wever, that they had made great y species of rational and sound a proof of which it may be suffi- re, that the absurd reveries of logy, which are always discarded the advancement of true science, steem among them during the f their government. The coun- y occupied were extremely fruit- t much labour afforded all the d even luxuries of life. They accustomed to a civilized and n great cities. These circum- inted their manners with effemi- ption, and rendered them an easy rsians, a nation emerging from consequently brave and warlike. rus of Cyrus, who died in the year 529, the history of Persia offers d in itself, *that merits our regard; mixed with that of Greece, it be-* comes particularly interesting. The monarchs who succeeded Cyrus gave to the Greeks an opportunity of exercising those virtues which the freedom of their government had created and confirmed. Sparta remained under the influence of the institutions of Lycurgus; Athens had recently recovered from the tyranny of the Pisistratidæ, a family which had trampled on the laws of Solon, and usurped the supreme power. Such was the situation of those states, when Darius, at the instigation of an expelled malcontent, sent forth his numerous armies against Greece. But the Persians were no longer those invincible soldiers who, under Cyrus, had conquered Asia. Their minds were enervated by luxury and servitude. Athens, on the contrary, teemed with great men, animated by the late recovery of their freedom. Miltiades, on the plains of Marathon, with ten thousand Athenians, overcame the Persian army of a hundred and ten thousand men (B. C. 490.) His countrymen, Themistocles and Aristides, the first celebrated for his abilities, the second for his virtue, gained the next honours to the general. It does not fall within our plan to mention the events of this war, which, as the noblest monuments of the triumph of virtue over force, of courage over numbers, of liberty over servitude, deserve to be read at length in the historical works of the ancients.

Xerxes, the son of Darius, came in person into Greece, (B. C. 480,) with an immense army, which, according to Herodotus, amounted, the attendants of the camp being included, to two millions and one hundred thousand men. This account has been justly considered, by some ingenious modern writers, as incredible. Whatever might be the number of his army, he was defeated by sea and land, and escaped to Asia in a fishing-boat. Such was the spirit of the Greeks; and so well did they know, that, "wanting virtue, life is pain and woe; that, wanting liberty, even virtue mourns, and looks around for happiness in vain." But though the Persian war concluded gloriously for the Greeks, it is in a great measure to this war that the subsequent misfortunes of that nation are to be attributed. Not the battles in which they suffered the loss of so many brave men, but those in which they acquired the spoils of Persia—not their endurance of so many hardships in the course of the war, but their connexions with the Persians after the conclusion of it—subverted the Grecian establishments, and ruined the most virtuous confederacy that ever existed on earth. The Greeks became haughty after their victories. Delivered from the common enemy, they began to quarrel among themselves; and their dissensions were increased by Persian gold, of which they had acquired enough to make them desirous of more. Hence proceeded the famous Peloponnesian war, (B. C. 431,) in which the Athenians and Lacedæmonians acted as principals, and drew after them the other states of Greece. They continued to weaken themselves *by these intestine* divisions, till Philip, king of *Macedon, rendered* himself the absolute master *of Greece, by* the battle of Chæronea (B. C. 338.)

This conquest is one of the first we meet with in history, which did not depend on the event of a battle. Philip had laid his schemes so deeply, and by bribery, promises, and intrigues, gained over such a number of considerable persons in the several states of Greece to his interest, that another day would have put in his possession what Chæronea had denied him. The Greeks had lost that virtue which was the basis of their confederacy. Their popular governments served only to give a sanction to their licentiousness and corruption. The principal orators in most of their states were bribed to the service of Philip; and all the eloquence of a Demosthenes, assisted by truth and virtue, was unequal to the mean but more seductive arts of his opponents, who, by flattering the people, used the surest method of gaining their affections.

Philip had purposed to extend the boundaries of his empire beyond the narrow limits of Greece: but he did not long survive the battle of Chæronea. After his death, the Athenians and Thebans made a feeble effort for expiring liberty; but they were obliged to yield to the vigour of Alexander, the son of Philip, who soon after undertook an expedition against the Persians, at the head of thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse. The success of this army in conquering the whole force of Darius in three great battles, and in overrunning and subduing, not only the countries then known to the Greeks, but various parts of India, whose very names had never before reached a European ear, constitutes a singular part of the history of the world. Soon after this rapid career of victory and success, Alexander died at Babylon (B. C. 323.) His chief officers, after sacrificing all his family to their ambition, divided among them his dominions.

During the period which elapsed between the reigns of Cyrus and Alexander, the arts were cultivated with peculiar success. Though the eastern nations had raised magnificent and stupendous structures, the Greeks were the first people in the world who, in their works of architecture, added beauty to magnificence, and elegance to grandeur. The temples of Jupiter Olympus and of the Ephesian Diana were the first monuments of good taste. Phidias, the Athenian, who died in the year B. C. 432, acquired the highest fame as a sculptor. Zeuxis, Parrhasius, and Timanthes, during the same age, first discovered the power of the pencil, and all the magic of painting. Composition, in all its various branches, reached a degree of excellence in the Greek language, of which a modern reader can scarcely form an idea. After Hesiod and Homer, who flourished about 900 years before the Christian era, the tragic poets, Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides, were the first considerable improvers of poetry. Herodotus gave simplicity and elegance to prosaic writing; Isocrates gave it cadence and harmony; but it was left to Thucydides and Demosthenes to discover the full force of the *Greek tongue*. It was not, however, in the fine *arts alone that the Greeks excelled*. Every species of philosophy flourished among them. Not to mention the divine Socrates, the virtues of whose life, and the excellence of whose philosophy, justly entitle him to high respect and veneration—his three disciples, Plato, Aristotle, and Xenophon, may, for strength of reasoning, justness of sentiment, and propriety of expression, be considered as equal to the best writers of any age or country. Experience, indeed, in a long course of years, has taught us many secrets in nature, with which those philosophers were unacquainted, and which no strength of genius could divine. But, whatever some vain empirics in learning may pretend, the most learned and ingenious men, both in France and England, have acknowledged the superiority of the Greek philosophers, and have reckoned themselves happy in catching their turn of thinking and manner of expression. The Greeks were not less distinguished for their active than for their speculative talents. It would be endless to recount the names of their famous statesmen and warriors; and it is impossible to mention a few without doing injustice to a greater number. War was first reduced to a science by the Greeks. Their soldiers fought from an affection to their country and an ardour for glory, and not from a dread of their superiors. We have seen the effects of this military virtue in their wars against the Persians; the cause of it may be found in the wise laws which Amphictyon, Solon, and Lycurgus, had established in Greece. But we must now leave this nation, whose history, both civil and philosophical, is as important as their territory was inconsiderable, and turn our attention to the Roman affairs, which are still more interesting, both on their own account, and from the relation in which they stand to those of modern Europe.

The character of Romulus, the founder of the Roman state, when we view him as the leader of a few lawless and wandering banditti, is an object of extreme insignificance. But, when we consider him as the founder of an empire (B. C. 753) of wonderful extent, whose progress and decline have occasioned two of the greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, we cannot but be interested in his conduct. He possessed great military abilities; and a wide field for their display was afforded by the political state of Italy, divided into a number of small but independent districts. He was continually embroiled with one or other of his neighbours; and war was the only employment by which he and his companions expected, not only to aggrandise themselves, but even to subsist. In the conduct of his wars with the neighbouring people, we may observe an adherence to the same maxims by which the Romans afterward became masters of a very considerable portion of the world. Instead of destroying the nations he had subjected, he united them to the Roman state. Thus Rome acquired a new accession of strength from every war she undertook, and became powerful and populous from that very circumstance which ruins and depopu-

ingdoms. If the enemies with
ended had, by means of the art or
ployed, any considerable advan-
s immediately adopted that prac-
se of that weapon, and improved
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all their enemies. Though prin-
d to war, he did not altogether
vil polity of his infant kingdom.
what was called the Senate, a
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for their wisdom and experience.
ms for the administration of jus-
bridling the fierce and unruly
followers; and, after a long reign
ioting the civil and military in-
country, was, according to the
conjecture, privately assassinated
atented senators.
ors of Romulus were all very ex-
rsonages. Numa established the
monies of the Romans, and in-
rith that veneration for an oath,
r after the soul of their military
ullus Hostilius, Ancus Martius,
iscus, and Servius Tullius, la-
luring his reign, for the greatness
t Tarquin the Proud, the seventh
having obtained the crown by the
der of his father-in-law Servius,
rupport it by the most cruel and
ny. This, together with the inso-
n, who, by dishonouring Lucretia,
affronted the whole nation, occa-
pulsion of the Tarquin family,
d with it the dissolution of the
ent. As the Romans, however,
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ave some officer invested with
rity, who might conduct them to
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kings, therefore, they appointed
agistrates, called consuls, who,
ig the same jealousy, succeeded
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mans had gradually subdued all
aly, they turned their eyes abroad,
powerful rivals in the Cartha-
state had been founded on en-
coast of the Mediterranean in
me before Rome, by a colony of
the year 869; and, according to
their mother-country, they had
merce and naval greatness. Car-
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ie now commanded both sides of
ean. Beside the coast of Africa,
ost entirely possessed, she had
elf on the Spanish side through
Thus mistress of the sea and of
had seized the islands of Corsica
Sicily found great difficulty in
lf; and the Romans were too
ed, not to take up *arms. Hence*
nic war, In which the Cartha-
their wealth and power, were
an unequal match for the Romans. Carthage was a powerful republic when Rome was an inconsiderable state; but she had become corrupt and effeminate, while Rome was in the vigour of her political constitution. Carthage employed mercenaries to carry on her wars: the Roman state was composed of soldiers. The first war with Carthage lasted twenty-three years, and taught the Romans the art of fighting on the sea. A Carthaginian vessel was wrecked on their coast; they used it for a model; in three months they fitted out a fleet; and the consul Duilius, who fought their first naval battle, (B. C. 260,) was victorious. The behaviour of Regulus, the Roman general, (unless we question the authenticity of the story,) may give us an idea of the spirit which then animated this people. Being made prisoner in Africa, he was sent back on his parole to negotiate an exchange of prisoners. He maintained in the senate the propriety of that law which cut off, from those who suffered themselves to be taken, all hopes of being saved; and returned to certain death.

Neither was Carthage, though corrupted, deficient in great characters. Of all the enemies the Romans ever had to contend with, Hannibal, the Carthaginian, was the most inflexible and dangerous. Being appointed general at twenty-five years of age, he crossed the Ebro, the Pyrenees, and the Alps, and unexpectedly rushed down upon Italy. The loss of four battles threatened the fall of Rome (A. C. 218.) Sicily sided with the conqueror; and almost all Italy abandoned the Romans. In this extremity, Rome owed its preservation to three great men. Fabius Maximus, despising popular clamour and the military ardour of his countrymen, declined coming to an engagement. The strength of Rome had time to recover. Marcellus raised the siege of Nola, took Syracuse, and revived the drooping spirits of his troops. The young Scipio, at the age of four-and-twenty years, rushed into Spain, where both his father and uncle had lost their lives, attacked New Carthage, and reduced it at the first assault. Upon his arrival in Africa, kings submitted to him; Carthage trembled in her turn, and saw her armies defeated. Hannibal was in vain called home to defend his country. Carthage was rendered tributary, and engaged never to enter on a war, but with the consent of the Roman people. By the third Punic war, Carthage was utterly overthrown.

At this time (A. C. 201,) the world was divided, as it were, into two portions: in one part fought the Romans and Carthaginians; the other was agitated by those quarrels which had lasted since the death of Alexander the Great, and in which the scenes of action were Greece, Egypt, and the East. The states of Greece had once more disengaged themselves from a foreign yoke. They were divided into three confederacies, the *Ætolians*, Achæans, and Bœotians. Each was an association of free cities, which had assemblies and magistrates in common. Philip, who

then reigned in Macedon, had rendered himself odious to the Greeks by some unpopular and tyrannical measures; the Ætolians were most irritated, and, hearing the fame of the Roman arms, called them into Greece, and overcame Philip by their assistance. The victory, however, chiefly redounded to the advantage of the Romans. The Macedonian garrisons were obliged to evacuate Greece; the cities were all declared free; but Philip became a tributary to the Romans, and the states of Greece were considered as their dependants. The Ætolians, discovering their first error, endeavoured to remedy it by another still more dangerous to themselves, and more advantageous to the Romans. As they had called the Romans into Greece to defend them against king Philip, they now called in Antiochus, king of Syria, to defend them against the Romans. The famous Hannibal, too, had recourse to the same prince: but Antiochus did not follow his advice so much as that of the Ætolians; for, instead of renewing the war in Italy, where Hannibal, from experience, knew the Romans to be most vulnerable, he landed in Greece with a small force, and, being overcome without difficulty, fled over into Asia. The Romans pursued him, (B. C. 190,) and, having vanquished him by sea and land, compelled him to submit to a disgraceful treaty.

In these conquests the Romans still allowed the ancient inhabitants to possess their territories. They did not even change the form of government. The conquered nations became the allies of the Roman people; which denomination, however, under a specious name, concealed a condition very servile, and inferred that they should submit to whatever was required of them. When we reflect on those easy conquests, we have reason to be astonished at the resistance which the Romans met with from Mithridates, king of Pontus, for the space of twenty-six years. But this monarch had great resources. His kingdom, bordering on the inaccessible mountains of Caucasus, abounded in a race of men whose minds were not enervated with pleasure, and whose bodies were firm and vigorous; and he gave the Romans more trouble than even Hannibal.

The different states of Greece and Asia, which now began to feel the weight of their yoke, but had not the spirit to shake it off, were transported at finding a prince who dared to show himself an enemy to the Romans, and cheerfully submitted to his protection. Mithridates, however, was at last compelled to yield to the superior fortune of the Romans. Vanquished successively by Sylla and Lucullus, he was at length subdued by Pompey, and stripped of his dominions and his life, in the year before Christ 63. In Africa, the Roman arms met with equal success. Marius, in conquering Jugurtha, gave security to the republic in that quarter. Even the barbarous nations beyond the Alps began to feel the weight of the Roman arms. Gallia *Narbonensis had been* reduced into a province. *The Cimbri, Teutones,* and other northern nations of Europe, broke into this part of the empire (B. C. 102.) But Marius severely chastised the barbarians, who retired to their wilds and deserts, less formidable than the Roman legions. Yet, while Rome conquered the world, there subsisted an acrimonious warfare within her walls. This species of hostility had continued from the first period of the government. Rome, after the expulsion of her kings, enjoyed merely a partial liberty. The descendants of the senators, who were styled Patricians, were invested with so many odious privileges, that the people felt their dependence, and became determined to shake it off. A thousand disputes on the subject arose between them and the patricians, which always terminated in favour of liberty. These disputes, while the Romans preserved their virtue, were not attended with any sanguinary consequences. The patricians, who loved their country, cheerfully resigned some of their privileges to satisfy their opponents; and the people, on the other hand, though they obtained laws by which they might be admitted to enjoy the first offices of the state, and though they had the power of nomination, always named patricians. But when the Romans, by the conquest of foreign nations, became acquainted with all their luxuries and refinements, the state, torn by the factions between its members, and without virtue on either side to keep it together, became a prey to its own children. Hence arose the sanguinary seditions of the Gracchi, which paved the way for an inextinguishable hatred between the nobles and commons, and made it easy for any turbulent demagogue to put them in action against each other. The love of their country was now no more than a specious name: persons of the higher class were too wealthy and effeminate to submit to the rigour of military discipline, and the soldiers, composed of the dregs of the republic, were no longer citizens. They had little respect for any but their commander; under his banners they fought, and conquered, and plundered; and for him they were ready to die. He might command them to attack their country. They who knew no country but the camp, and no authority but that of their general, were ever ready to obey him. The multiplicity of the Roman conquests, however, which required the maintenance of several armies at the same time, retarded the subversion of the republic. These armies were so many checks upon each other. Had it not been for the soldiers of Sylla, Rome would have surrendered its liberty to the followers of Marius.

Julius Cæsar at length appeared. By subduing the Gauls, he gained for his country the most useful conquest it ever made. Pompey, his only rival, was overcome on the plains of Pharsalia. Cæsar was victorious, almost at the same time, all over the world; in Egypt, in Asia, in Mauritania, in Spain, in Gaul, and in Britain: conqueror on all sides, he was acknowledged master at Rome, and through the whole empire. Brutus and Cassius attempted to give Rome her

liberty by stabbing him in the senate-house, (B. C. 44:) but, though they thus delivered the Romans from the tyranny of Julius, the republic did not obtain its freedom: it fell under the dominion of Mark Antony. Octavius, nephew to Julius, wrested it from him by the sea-fight at Actium, and no Brutus or Cassius remained to put an end to his life. Those friends of liberty had killed themselves in despair; and the young conqueror, with the name of Augustus and title of emperor, became the absolute master of the empire. During these civil commotions, the Romans still preserved the glory of their arms among distant nations; and, while it was unknown who should be master of Rome, they were, without dispute, the masters of the world. Their military discipline and valour abolished all the remains of the Carthaginian, Persian, Greek, Assyrian and Macedonian glory; they were now only a name. No sooner, therefore, was Octavius established on the throne, than ambassadors from all the regions of the known world crowded to make their submissions. Victorious by sea and land, he shut the temple of Janus. The whole earth lived in peace under his power; and Jesus Christ came into the world four years before the common era.

During the first ages of the republic, the Romans neglected and despised all the elegant improvements of life. War, politics, and agriculture, were the only arts they studied, because they were the only arts they esteemed. But, upon the downfall of Carthage, having no enemy to dread from abroad, they began to taste the sweets of security, and to cultivate the arts. Their progress, however, was not gradual, as in the other countries we have described. The conquest of Greece at once put them in possession of everything most rare, curious, or elegant. Asia, which was the next victim, offered all its stores; and the Romans, from being the most simple people, speedily became acquainted with the arts, the luxuries, and refinements, of the whole earth. Eloquence they had always cultivated as the high road to eminence and preferment. The orations of Cicero are inferior only to those of Demosthenes. In poetry, Virgil yields only to Homer, whose verse, like the prose of Demosthenes, may be considered as inimitable. Horace, however, in his Satires and Epistles, had no model among the Greeks, and stands to this day unrivalled in that species of writing. In history, the Romans can boast of Livy, who possesses all the natural ease of Herodotus, and is more descriptive, more eloquent, and sentimental. Tacitus, indeed, did not flourish in the Augustan age; but his works do himself the greatest honour, while they disgrace his country and human nature, whose corruption and vices he paints in the most striking colours. In philosophy, if we except the works of Cicero, and the system of the Greek philosopher Epicurus, described in the nervous poetry of Lucretius, the Romans, during the time of the republic, made not the least attempt. In tragedy they *never produced anything excellent; and Terence, though* remarkable for purity of style, wants that *vis comica*, or lively vein of humour, that distinguishes the writings of the comic poets of Greece, and those of our immortal Shakspeare.

Returning to our history, we meet with a set of monsters, under the name of emperors, whose acts, a few excepted, disgrace human nature. They did not, indeed, abolish the forms of the Roman republic, though they extinguished its liberties; and, while they were practising the most unwarrantable cruelties upon their subjects, they themselves were the slaves of their soldiers. They made the world tremble, and they in their turn trembled at the army. Rome, from the time of Augustus, became the most despotic empire that ever subsisted in Europe; and the courts of its emperors exhibited the most odious scenes of that caprice, cruelty, and corruption, which universally prevail under a despotic government. When it is said that the Roman republic conquered the world, it is only meant of the civilized part of it, chiefly Greece, Carthage, and Asia. A more difficult task still remained for the emperors—to subdue the barbarous nations of Europe, the people of Germany, of Gaul, and of Britain. These nations, though rude and ignorant, were brave and independent. It was rather from the superiority of their discipline, than of their courage, that the Romans gained any advantage over them. From the obstinate resistance of the Germans, we may judge of the difficulties which the Romans met with in subduing the other nations of Europe. The contests were bloody; the countries of Europe were successively laid waste; numbers of the inhabitants perished in the field, many were carried into slavery, and a feeble remnant submitted to the Roman power. This situation of affairs was extremely unfavourable to the happiness of mankind. The barbarous nations, indeed, from their intercourse with the Romans, acquired some taste for the arts, sciences, language, and manners, of their new masters. These, however, were miserable consolations for the loss of liberty, for being deprived of the use of arms, overawed by mercenary soldiers, and pillaged by rapacious governors.

The Roman empire, stretched out to such an extent, lost at length its spring and force. It contained within itself the seeds of dissolution; and the violent irruptions of the Goths, Vandals, Huns, and other barbarians, hastened its destruction. These fierce tribes either inhabited the various parts of Germany, which had never been subdued by the Romans, or were scattered over the vast countries of the north of Europe, and the north-west of Asia, which are now inhabited by the Danes, the Swedes, the Poles, the subjects of the Russian empire, and the Tartars. They met with a powerful resistance from the superior discipline of the Roman legions; but this, instead of daunting men of a strong and impetuous temper, only roused them to vengeance. Great bodies of armed men, (says an elegant historian,) *with their* wives and children, and slaves *and flocks, issued* forth, like regular colonies, in

quest of new settlements. New adventurers followed them. The lands which they deserted were occupied by more remote tribes of barbarians. These, in their turn, pushed forward into more fertile countries, and, like a torrent continually increasing, rolled on, and swept everything before them. Wherever the barbarians marched, their route was marked with blood. They ravaged or destroyed all around them. They made no distinction between what was sacred and what was profane. If a person should be desired to fix upon the period in the history of the world, during which the condition of the human race was the most calamitous, he would, without hesitation, name that which elapsed between the death of Theodosius the Great, (A. D. 395,) and the establishment of the Lombards in Italy (A. D. 571.) The contemporary authors, who beheld that scene of desolation, are at a loss for expressions to describe its horrors. *The scourge of God, the destroyer of nations,* are the dreadful epithets by which they distinguish the most noted of the barbarous leaders.

Constantine, who was emperor at the beginning of the fourth century, and who had embraced Christianity, transferred the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople (A. D. 328.) The western and eastern provinces were in consequence separated from each other, and governed by different sovereigns. The removal of the Roman legions from the Rhine and the Danube to the east, threw down the western barriers of the empire, and laid it open to the invaders.

Weakened by this division, Rome (now known by the name of the Western Empire, in contradistinction to Constantinople, which, from its situation, was called the Eastern Empire) became a prey to the barbarous nations. Its ancient glory, vainly deemed immortal, was effaced; and Odoacer, a barbarian chieftain, was seated on the throne of the Cæsars (A. D. 476.) These irruptions into the empire were gradual and successive. The immense fabric of the Roman empire was the work of many ages; and several centuries were employed in demolishing it. So efficacious was the ancient military discipline of the Romans, that the remains of it, which descended to their successors, must have rendered them superior to their enemies, had it not been for the vices of their emperors, and the universal corruption of manners among the people. Satiated with the luxuries of the known world, the emperors were at a loss to find new provocatives. The most distant regions were explored, the ingenuity of mankind was exercised, and the tribute of provinces expended upon one favourite dish. The tyranny and the universal depravation of manners that prevailed under the emperors, or, as they are called, Cæsars, could only be equalled by the barbarity of those nations of which the empire at length became a prey.

Toward the close of the sixth century, the Saxons were masters of the southern and more fertile provinces of Britain; the Franks possessed *Gaul; the Goths, Spain; the Goths* and Lombards, *Italy, and the adjacent provinces.* Scarcely any vestige remained of the Roman policy, jurisdence, arts, or literature. New forms of gment, new laws, new manners, new dresses, languages, and new names of men and coun were everywhere introduced.

From this period till the 15th century, E exhibited a melancholy picture of Gothic barity. Literature, science, taste, were scarcely in use during those ages. Perso the highest rank, and in the most eminent tions, could not read or write. Many clergy did not understand the breviary they were obliged daily to recite; some of could scarcely read it. The human mind glected, uncultivated, and depressed, sank the most profound ignorance. The sup genius of Charlemagne, who, in the begin of the ninth century, governed France and many, with part of Italy, and Alfred the in England, during the latter part of the century, endeavoured to dispel this dark and to give their subjects a short glimpse of But the ignorance of the age was too pow for their efforts and institutions. The dark retarned, and was even increased.

A new division of property gradually introd a new species of government, distinguishe the name of the Feudal System. The kin general, who led the barbarians to conq divided the lands of the vanquished among chief officers, binding those on whom they bestowed to follow his standard with a num of men, and to bears arms in his defence. chief officers, who also distributed portion land among their dependents, annexed the condition to the grant; a system admirably culated for defence against a foreign enemy, which degenerated into an engine of oppres

The usurpation of the nobles became bounded and intolerable. They reduced great body of the people to a state of actual vitude, and deprived them of the natural inalienable rights of humanity; for they slaves fixed to the soil which they cultiv and were transferred with it from one propri to another, by sale or by conveyance. Ever fended baron or chieftain buckled on his arm and sought redress at the head of his vas His adversaries met him in like array. The dred and dependents, both of the aggressor the defender, were involved in the quarrel; had not even the liberty of remaining neute

The monarchs of Europe perceived the croachments of their nobles with impatience order to create some power that might coun balance those potent vassals, who, while enslaved the people, controlled or gave la the crown, a plan was adopted of conferring privileges on towns. These privileges aboli all marks of servitude; and the inhabitant towns were formed into corporations, or bo politic, to be governed by a council and m trates of their own nomination.

The acquisition of liberty soon produc happy change in the condition of mankind spirit of industry revived, commerce becam

nations, and began to flourish. Va- contributed to revive this spirit of nd to renew the intercourse of na- antinople, the capital of the Eastern ire, had escaped the ravages of the andals, who overthrew that of the is city some remains of literature rere preserved: this, too, was for e principal emporium; and, when which were begun by the Christian rope with a view to drive the Sara- usalem, (A. D. 1096,) had opened a n between Europe and the East, e was the general place of rendez- Christian armies, in their way to n their return. Though conquest : of these expeditions, and though em proved unfortunate, their com- s were both beneficial and per-

he close of the Holy War, the ma- ss was invented, which facilitated ation between remote nations (A.D. talian states, particularly those of ence, began to establish a regular :h the East and the ports of Egypt, lrew all the rich productions of : commodities they disposed of to re among the other nations of Eu- ran to acquire some taste for ele- ra to their predecessors, or despised ring the 12th and 13th centuries the Europe was almost entirely in the Italians, more commonly known in the name of Lombards. Compa- ies of Lombard merchants settled lom; they became the carriers, the s, and the bankers of Europe.

e was cultivated in the south of uch industry and success, the com- was awakened in the north, toward the 13th century. As the Danes, other nations around the Baltic, time extremely barbarous, and in- e with their piracies, the cities of Hamburg, soon after they had begun trade with the Italians, entered into utual defence. They derived such om this union, that other towns heir confederacy; and in a short of the most considerable cities, ugh those large countries of Ger- nders which stretch from the Baltic joined in an alliance, called the ague, which became so formidable, lship was courted and its enmity ie greatest monarchs. The mem- werful association formed the first n of commerce known in the middle nacted it by common laws enacted al assemblies. They supplied the e with naval stores, and selected s, the most eminent of which was landers, where they established ich their *commerce was regularly hither the Lombards brought the* productions of India, together with the manufactures of Italy, and exchanged them for the more bulky, but not less useful, commodities of the north. As Bruges became the centre of communication between the Lombards and Hanseatic merchants, the Flemings traded with both in that city to such an extent and advantage, as diffused among them a general habit of industry, which long rendered Flanders and the adjacent provinces the most opulent, populous, and best cultivated countries in Europe.

Admiring the flourishing state of those provinces, Edward III. of England endeavoured to excite a spirit of industry among his subjects, who, blind to the advantages of their situation, and ignorant of the source from which opulence was destined to flow into their country, totally neglected commerce, and did not even attempt those manufactures, the materials of which they furnished to foreigners. By alluring Flemish artisans to settle in his dominions, as well as by the enactment of judicious laws for the encouragement and regulation of trade, he gave a beginning to the woollen manufacture of England, and first turned the active and enterprising genius of his people toward those arts which have raised the English to the first rank among commercial nations.

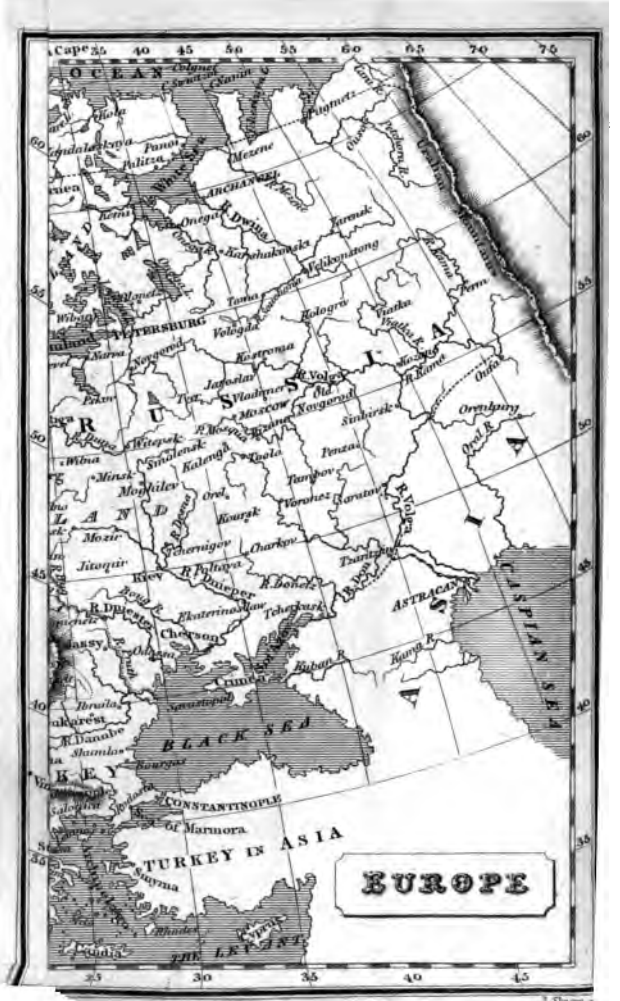
The Christian princes, alarmed at the progress of their inveterate enemies the Turks, endeavoured to gain the friendship and assistance of the khans of Tartary. The embassies were managed chiefly by monks, who, impelled by zeal, and undaunted by difficulties and danger, penetrated to the remote courts of those infidels. The first regular traveller of the monkish kind, who committed his discoveries to writing, was Giovanni Carpini, who, with some of his brethren, about the year 1246 carried a letter from Pope Innocent to the great khan of Tartary, in favour of the Christian subjects in the extensive dominions of that potentate. Soon after this, a spirit of travelling into Tartary and India became general: and it would not perhaps be difficult to prove that many Europeans, about the end of the fourteenth century, served in the armies of Timour, whose conquests reached to the remotest corners of India; and that they introduced into Europe the use of gunpowder and artillery, the discovery made by a German chemist being only partial and accidental.

After the death of Timour, who, jealous of the rising power of the Turks, had checked their progress, the Christian adventurers, upon their return, magnifying the vast riches of India, inspired their countrymen with the spirit of adventure and discovery, and were the first who suggested the practicability of a passage thither by sea. The Portuguese had long been famous for their application to maritime affairs; and, to their discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, Great Britain is at this day indebted for her Indian commerce. The first adventurers contented themselves with short voyages, creeping along *the coast of Africa*, discovering cape after cape: *but, by making* a gradual progress southward,

they, in the year 1497, at length discovered and doubled the extreme cape of that continent, which opened a passage by sea to the Eastern Ocean.

While the Portuguese were intent upon a passage to India by the east, Colon or Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived a project of sailing thither by the west. After applying in vain to the kings of France, England, and Portugal, he at length obtained the command of three ships from the Spanish court, and set sail in 1492, upon one of the most adventurous attempts ever undertaken by man. In this voyage he had many difficulties to contend with; and his sailors, who were often discontented, at length began to insist upon his return, threatening, in case of refusal, to throw him overboard; but the firmness of the commander, and the discovery of America after a passage of thirty-three days, put an end to the commotion. From the appearance of the natives, he found to his surprise that this could not be the country of which he was in quest, and that he had accidentally discovered a new world.

Europe now began to emerge out of that darkness in which she had been sunk since the subversion of the Roman empire. These discoveries, from which such wealth was destined to flow to the commercial nations of Europe, were accompanied and succeeded by others of unspeakable benefit to mankind. The invention of printing, the revival of learning, arts, and sciences, and, lastly, the happy reformation in religion, all distinguished the 15th and 16th centuries as the first era of modern history. It was in these ages that the powers of Europe were formed into one great political system, in which each took a station, wherein it remained with little variation.


EUROPE
OCEAN
Cape
Kola
Panoi
Palitza
Mezene
ARCHANGEL
R. Dwina
Onega
Karshakonska
Yarensk
Velikonstong
Toma
Kologrov
Vyatka
Perm
Kama
Ural Mountains
PETERSBURG
Wiborg
Narva
Novgorod
Vologda
Kostroma
Jaroslav
Vladimir
Moscow
Tver
Pskov
R. Volga
Nizni Novgorod
Sinbirsk
Orenburg
Ufa
Oral R.
Vitepsk
Smolensk
Kaluga
Tula
Penza
Tambov
Vilna
Minsk
Mogilev
Orel
Koursk
Voronez
Saratov
R. Volga
Mozir
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R. Dnieper
R. Donetz
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ASTRACAN
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Ekaterinoslaw
Tcherkask
Cherson
Kuban R.
Kama R.
Crimea
Sevastopol
Ibraila
Bucharest
R. Danube
BLACK SEA
Bourgas
CONSTANTINOPLE
Sea of Marmora
TURKEY IN ASIA
Smyrna
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GEOGRAPHY.

EUROPE.

gh the least extensive quarter of it contains only 2,749,349 square many respects, that which most ttention. Here the human mind reatest progress toward improve- e the arts and sciences have been greatest perfection. If we except es of the world, it is in Europe the chief varieties of character, nd manners; and from its history e greatest number of facts and ther for our entertainment or

liscovers to us two circumstances Europe, which perhaps have had e tendency in giving it the supe- he rest of the world—the happy f its climate, and the great variety

The effect of a moderate climate, s and animals, is well known from he immense number of mountains, c. which divide the different coun- pe from each other, may also be exceedingly commodious for its These natural boundaries check of conquest or despotism, which en so rapid in the extensive plains sia. The seas and rivers facilitate se of nations; and even the barren ountains are more favourable for an industry and invention, than nsolicited luxuriance of more fer- ere is no part of Europe so diver- surface, so interrupted by natural r divisions, as Greece; and it was in that country that the human mind began to know and to avail itself of its strength, and that many of the arts, subservient to utility or pleasure, were invented, or at least greatly improved.

The Christian religion is established in every part of Europe, except Turkey; but, from the various capacities of the human mind, and the different lights in which speculative opinions are apt to appear, when viewed by persons of different educations and passions, that religion is divided into a number of different sects. These may be comprehended under three general denominations; 1st. the Greek Church; 2nd. Popery; and, 3rd. Protestantism; which last is divided into Lutheranism and Calvinism. Of all these an ample account has been given in the Introduction.

The languages of Europe are derived from the five following:—the Gothic, Celtic, Sclavonic, Greek, and Latin.

Europe is situated between the 10th degree of western and 65th degree of eastern longitude from London, and between the 36th and 72nd degrees of northern latitude. It is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by Asia; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; and, on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America; being 3000 miles long, from Cape St. Vincent in the west, to the mouth of the river Oby in the north-east; and 2500 broad, from north to south, from the North Cape in Lapland, to Cape Matapan in the Morea, the most southern promontory in Europe. It contains the following kingdoms and states:—

sd	Chief Cities.	Religions.	Kingdoms and States.	Chief Cities.	Religions.
nd	London . . .	Calvin., Luth., &c.	France	Paris . . .	Catholics.
and	Edinburgh .	Calvinists, &c.	Spain	Madrid . . .	Catholics.
ad	Dublin . . .	Calvin. and Cath.	Portugal	Lisbon . . .	Catholics.
. .	Copenhagen	Lutherans.	Switzerland . .	Bern, &c. . .	Calvin. and Cath.
. .	Stockholm .	Lutherans.	Italy	Milan . . .	Catholics.
. .	Christiania.	Lutherans.		Florence .	Catholics.
. .	Petersburg .	Greek Church.		Rome . . .	Catholics.
om.	Berlin	Lutherans & Cal.		Naples . .	Catholics.
. .	Vienna . . .	Cath. Luth. & Cal.	Turkey in Europe	Constantinople	Mahometans and Greek Ch.
. .	Prague . . .	Catholics.			
. .	Brussels . .	Catholics.			
s . .	Amsterdam	Calvinists.	Greece	Athens . . .	Greek Church & Mahometans.

In addition to the British Isles before mentioned, Europe contains the following principal Islands

ISLANDS.		Chief Towns.	Subject
In the Northern Ocean	Iceland	Reykiavik	Denmark.
Baltic Sea	Zeeland, Funen, Alsen, Falster, Laaland, Langeland, Femeren, Moen, Bornholm	Copenhagen	Ditto.
	Gothland, Oland		Sweden.
	Aland, Osel, Dagho		Russia.
	Useolm, Wollin, Rugen		Prussia.
Mediterranean Sea	Ivica	Ivica	Spain.
	Majorca	Majorca	Ditto.
	Minorca	Port Mahon	Ditto.
	Corsica	Bastia	France.
	Sardinia	Cagliaria	K. of Sardinia.
	Sicily	Palermo	K. of Sicily.
	Malta	La Valetta	Great Britain.
Adriatic, or Gulf of Venice	Cerigo, Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, St. Maura, Paxo, Theaki		Ionian Islands.
Archipelago & Levant Seas	Candia, Rhodes, Negropont, Lemnos, Tenedos, Scyros, Mitylene, Scio, Samos, Patmos, Paros, Santorini, &c. being part of ancient and modern Greece		Turkey.

DENMARK.

Beginning with the northern kingdoms and states, we shall first take notice of the Danish realm, which consists of Denmark Proper, the duchy of Holstein, and the island of Iceland. The dimensions and chief towns of these countries are given in the following Table.

	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Towns
Jutland	6,700	155	98	Wiborg.
Sleswick	2,600	70	63	Sleswick.
Holstein	2,700	90	50	Glukstadt.
Zeeland	2,100	60	60	COPENHAGEN. (N. lat. 55. 6. E. lon. 12. 3.)
Funen	1,274	40	30	Odensee.
Falster	150	23	12	Nyekioping.
Laaland	230	32	12	Naskow.
Langeland	70	30	3	Rudkioping.
Femeren	50	14	5	Borg.
Alsen	50	15	6	Sunderborg.
Moen	40	14	5	Stege.
Bornholm	150	20	12	Ronne.
Iceland	42,000	350	210	Reykiavik.

For the purposes of government, the Danish dominions are divided into bailiwicks, of which Denmark Proper, namely, the islands and Northern Jutland, contains nineteen. The duchies (Sleswick, Holstein, and Lauenburg,) comprehend thirty-one. The Feroe isles form another.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 280	between	54. and 58. North lat.
Breadth, 110		8. and 13. East long.

Containing about 16,000 square miles, with about 125 inhabitants to each.

The name of Denmark is derived by Saxo Grammaticus from Dan, the first founder (according to him) of the Danish monarchy, and Mark, a boundary, or country. But this deduction is seemingly unwarranted, which derives it from a word It is, with more likelihood, trac Goths, established in Scania, w Danir, or Danskir, from their occ lands (*daim-mark*) between the and the sea. All we know with this subject is, that the inhabitant of Scandinavia were known by th of Danes in the sixth century.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.—divided on the north from Norway by Rack, and from Sweden on the Sound; it is bounded on the south b and the Baltic; and the German se from Great Britain on the west.

Denmark Proper is composed of

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Denmark is esti-
and the number of
ture at 750,500.
-ANIMALS.—Jut-

land contains woods of oak, fir, beech, birch, and other trees. Denmark and Holstein produce corn in such abundance, as often to be able to export in one year to the value of above £100,000: they also produce rape-seed, hops, and flax. The horses of Denmark and Holstein are an excellent breed, both for the saddle and the carriage. Beside black cattle, hogs, sheep, and game, are abundant.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.—Denmark affords few of these, if we except the contents of the Royal Museum at Copenhagen, which consists of a numerous collection of both. Here are preserved two famous antique drinking-vessels, one of gold, the other of silver, and both of the form of hunting-horns. Many other articles of gold and silver, valuable jewels, Egyptian, Greek, and Roman antiquities, pictures by the most distinguished artists, and fine specimens of sculpture, enrich this museum.

POPULATION.—By an enumeration, made in 1759, of the people of Denmark, Norway, Holstein, the islands in the Baltic, and the counties of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst in Westphalia, they were said to amount to 2,444,000 souls, exclusive of the Icelanders and Greenlanders. Another estimate was ordered to be taken in 1769; and the number, with the inclusion of Iceland, then appeared to be about 2,017,000. But, though Norway has since been lost, the population of Denmark, according to the census of 1834-5 amounted to 2,100,000 souls.

NATIONAL CHARACTER AND MANNERS.—The ancient inhabitants of Denmark possessed a degree of courage which approached even to ferocity: but the modern Danes, without being deficient in bravery or spirit, are civilized and humane. They are not remarkable for vivacity or talent; yet they are not so dull or heavy as the Dutch. The gentry are very fond of pomp and parade; and they imitate the French in their manners, dress, and sometimes in their gallantry. Like other northern nations, the Danes were long addicted to intemperance in drinking, and convivial entertainments; but that practice is less prevalent than it was in former times. They are, in general, orderly in their behaviour, and so submissive to the laws, that criminal acts are not very frequent among them. Crimes against property are the most usual; those against the person are few; and those of an atrocious nature are extremely rare.

CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—Copenhagen was originally a settlement of sailors, founded by some wandering fishermen in the twelfth century, but is now the metropolis. It is very strong, and defended by four royal castles or forts. The port is spacious, and is formed by a large canal flowing through the city, which admits only one ship to enter at a time; but the harbour, it is said, is capable of containing 500 vessels.

This city, which is divided into three parts, *the Old* and new Town, and the Port, contains some fine squares and handsome streets. The king's new-market is surrounded by spa-

cious edifices, one of which (the palace of Charlottenborg) is appropriated to the purposes of an academy of painting, sculpture, and architecture. In the Place of Amalienborg is a mansion-house to which the royal family removed, on the destruction of the noble palace of Christianborg by fire; but a new edifice for royalty has since been finished in a splendid style. The royal library contains 250,000 volumes, and a large collection of manuscripts relative to Northern history and literature. The population of the city amounts to about 120,000 persons.

About twenty English miles from Copenhagen is a large palace, called Fredericsborg. It was built by Christian IV., and, according to the architecture of his time, partakes of the Greek and Gothic styles. In the front of the grand quadrangle appear Tuscan and Doric pillars, and on the summit of the building are spires and turrets. Some of the rooms are very splendid, though furnished in the antique taste. The knights' hall is of great length. The tapestry represents the wars of Denmark, and the ceiling is a most minute and laboured performance in sculpture. The chimney-piece was once covered with plates of silver, richly ornamented; but the Swedish invaders tore them all away, and rifled the palace, notwithstanding its triple moat and formidable appearance. About two miles from Elsineur is a small palace, flat-roofed, with twelve windows in front, said to be built on the spot formerly occupied by the palace of Hamlet's father.

Sleswick, the capital of the duchy of that name, is the largest town in the Danish peninsula. It is a long, irregular, but handsome town, containing about eight thousand inhabitants. The cathedral contains numerous monuments of the ancient dukes. Kiel, in Holstein, is much more populous, and more enlivened by trade.

Altona, situated on the Elbe, is a commercial town of great importance, the second in the Danish states; and manufactures of velvet, silk, calico, stockings, gloves, leather, and mirrors, are here carried on with zealous industry. It is well built, and contains about 27,000 residents. Elsineur, or Helsingoer, is a flourishing town, and, with respect to commerce, is only exceeded by Copenhagen and Altona. It is well fortified, both on the land side and toward the sea. Here all vessels pay a toll, and, in passing the Sound, lower their top-sails.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The manufactures of Denmark are not very numerous or important; but they flourish more than they did formerly, being encouraged by the crown, and by the patriotism of distinguished nobles. All sorts of woollen articles are fabricated; but the cloth made in Jutland is the finest. Neither in this nor in the linen branch, is a sufficient quantity manufactured even for the use of the natives. Cotton goods are also wrought with neatness, if not in that number or with that *perfection which would enable* them to rival *those of Great Britain.* Calico-printing is carried on with spirit: some silken articles are not ill manufactured; and, in Sleswick, lace of tolerable fineness is made even for exportation. In the art of making porcelain such progress has been made, that it is not much inferior to that of Dresden. The number supported by manufactures was 380,000 in 1835.

Denmark is well situated for commerce; its harbours are calculated for the reception of ships of all burthens, and its mariners are very expert in navigation. The dominions of his Danish majesty also supply a great variety of timber and other materials for ship-building; and some of his provinces afford many natural productions for exportation. Among these, beside fir and other timber, are grain, black cattle, horses, stock-fish, tallow, hides, train-oil, tar, pitch, and iron. The imports are salt, wine, brandy, and silk, from France, Portugal, and Italy. The Danes have great intercourse with Britain, and thence import broad-cloths, and all other articles manufactured in the great trading towns of England. In 1839 our exports to Denmark amounted to £143,732.

Commercial companies are established in Denmark, which trade to the East and West Indies, to the Mediterranean, and to Africa. In the East Indies, the Danes possess the settlement of Tranquebar and the Nicobar Islands; in the West Indies, the Islands of St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John. On the coast of Guinea they have the fort of Christianborg.

Civil Constitution—Government.—The ancient constitution of Denmark originally resembled the Gothic system. The king was chosen by the states or national assembly; and, in conjunction with the senate, he was invested with the executive power. He also commanded the army, and decided finally all the disputes which arose among his subjects. The legislative power was vested in the states, which were composed of the order of nobility, and of the citizens and farmers. After the introduction of the Christian religion, the clergy were also admitted, not only to be an order of the states, but to have seats in the senate. These orders had their respective rights and privileges; the crown had also its prerogatives, and a fixed revenue arising out of lands which were appropriated to its support. This constitution had evident advantages; but, unfortunately, the balance of this government was never properly adjusted; so that the nobles very soon assumed a dictatorial power, and greatly oppressed the people, as the national councils were not regularly holden to redress their grievances; and, when the Roman Catholic clergy came to have a share in the civil government, they far surpassed the nobility in pride and ambition. The representatives of the people had neither power, credit, nor talents, to counteract the efforts of the other two orders, who even forced the crown to give up its prerogatives. Christian II., by endeavouring in an imprudent manner to stem the torrent of their oppression, lost his crown and his liberty; but Christian III., by uniting

with the nobles and the senate, destroyed the power of the clergy, though the oppression of the common people by the nobility still remained. At length, in the reign of Frederic III., when the nation had been exhausted by a war with Sweden, the people, exasperated by the arrogance and tyranny of the nobles, who claimed as their privilege an exemption from all taxes, determined to render the king despotic. In consequence of this resolution, deputies from the clergy and the commons were appointed to make the king a solemn tender of their liberties and services. The monarch accepted this offer, promising them relief and protection: the nobility, taken by surprise, were obliged to submit; and, on the 10th of January, 1661, each of the three orders signed a separate act, by which they consented that the crown should be hereditary in the royal family, as well in the female as in the male line, and invested the king with absolute power, giving him the right to regulate the succession and the regency, in case of a minority. After this extraordinary revolution, the king deprived the nobility of many of the privileges which they had before enjoyed; but he took no method to relieve the people, who had been the instruments of investing him with the sovereign power; for he left them in a state of abject slavery.

In this state matters remained for nearly two centuries. At length, in 1834, Frederic VI., of his own free will, granted a representative government to his people. By this new constitution the kingdom is divided into four sections, each of which has its provincial assembly. These four divisions are the Islands, which return sixty-six members; Jutland, fifty-five; Sleswick, forty-four, and Holstein, forty-eight. The members are paid four rix-dollars a day, besides travelling expenses. No state minister or high official person is eligible. In these assemblies the king has a portion of direct influence. For instance, in the first section, the king nominates six members out of the sixty-six. The landholders elect seventeen, the peasants twenty, Copenhagen twelve, and the other towns eleven; being sixty in the whole. The assemblies communicate with the king through a royal commissioner, who has the right of speech, but not of voting.

Laws.—The king enjoys all the rights of sovereign power. In a council, the members of which are named and displaced at his will, the laws are proposed, discussed, and receive the sanction of his high authority. He is supposed to be present to administer justice in his supreme court; and, therefore, he not only presides nominally in the sovereign court of justice, but has a throne erected in it, towards which the lawyers always address their discourses in pleading, as do the judges in delivering their opinions. Every year he is present at the opening of this court, and often gives the judges such instructions as he thinks *proper. Their* decision is *final in all civil actions; but no cri-* minal sentence of a capital nature can be carried into execution without the sanction of the royal signature.

The legal code, at present established in Denmark, was published by Christian V.; it is founded upon the code of Waldemar. These laws are very just and clear, and, if they were impartially carried into execution, would be productive of many beneficial consequences to the people. Frederic V. made many improvements in the code, and exerted himself greatly to secure the appointment of honest and enlightened judges. But, while the king could alter and dispense with the laws, and support his ministers and favourites in any acts of violence and injustice, there was always a risk of tyranny and oppression.

From the time of the aristocratic usurpation to the year 1787, the peasants had been in a situation little better than the brute creation; they scarcely could be said to possess any locomotive power, since they had no liberty to leave one estate, and to settle on another, without purchasing permission from their masters; and, if they chanced to move without that consent, they were claimed as strayed cattle. These chains of feudal slavery were then broken, through the interest of Frederic VI. when heir apparent to the crown; the prisoners (for such they certainly might be called) were declared free; and other grievances, under which the peasants laboured, were at the same time abolished.

Revenues.—His Danish majesty's revenues have three sources: the taxes he levies upon his own subjects; the duties paid by foreigners; and his own demesne lands, including confiscations. The taxes arise from land and houses, and from different commodities, beside a poll-tax and stamp duties. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships that pass through the Sound into the Baltic. This tax was often disputed, being nothing more, originally, than a voluntary contribution of the merchants toward the expense of the light-houses on the coast; and certainly there was no reason for its payment on the part of the Swedes, who command the opposite side of the pass; but that nation and other powers, even Great Britain, submitted to the demand. The produce of it is about £200,000. Since the loss of Norway, the royal revenues do not exceed a million and a half sterling. The national debt is about thirteen millions sterling.

Army and Navy.—The military peace establishment force of Denmark consists of 32,700 men; and the royal navy, besides sixty-seven armed galleys, has twenty-five vessels, of which six are of the line, and seven frigates.

Royal Titles—Orders of Knighthood.—The sovereign bears the title of "King of Denmark, and of the Goths and Vandals; Duke of Sleswick and Holstein, Stormar and Ditmarsch; Count *of* Oldenburg and Delmenhorst." The *Danish* orders of knighthood are two: that of *the Elephant*, and that of Danebrog. The badge

of the former is suspended to a sky-blue ribbon, worn over the right shoulder. The knights of the Danebrog order wear a white ribbon with red edges, decorated with a diamond cross, and an embroidered star on the left breast, surrounded with the motto, "Pietate et Justitia."

RELIGION.—The religion of Denmark is the Lutheran. The kingdom is divided into seven dioceses, beside one in Iceland. There is no archbishop; but the bishop of Zeeland is metropolitan in Denmark. The income of his see is about £1000 a year: the revenues of the other prelates vary between £400 and £600. The funds for the support of the clergy are chiefly derived from tithes; but some addition is made by voluntary offerings, and by marriage and other fees. The bishops have no temporal power, nor more authority over the inferior clergy than is necessary for the maintenance of good order in the church.

LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS.—The Danes in general made no great figure in literature till of late years; but their astronomer Tycho Brahe was famous, Borrichius was an able chemist and botanist, and the Bartholines flourished as physicians; and the Round Tower and Christian's Haven display the mechanical genius of Longomontanus. They have subsequently made some promising attempts in history, poetry, and the drama: the names of Langebek, Suhm, Holberg, and Ewald, have justly acquired celebrity; and the travels of Niebuhr are distinguished for intelligent research and accurate information. Among the Danish scholars and writers of recent times may be mentioned the naturalists Fabricius and Vahl, the astronomer Bugge, the geographer Malte-Brun, the historians Haywish, Rask, and Baden, the poets Gulberg and Baggesen, and the physician Cullisen. The most popular and highly-gifted of the living Danish poets are Oehlenschlager and Ingemann, both of whom are also dramatists of great merit.

In the fine arts, the Danes are now striving to excel: they have several eminent painters in various branches of the art, and a sculptor of distinguished ability, in Thorwaldsen.

UNIVERSITIES, SCHOOLS, AND LITERARY SOCIETIES.—The university of Copenhagen is provided with funds for the gratuitous support of 108 students: it has a rector, and nearly 40 able professors, and is in a flourishing state. The number of students is about 700. At Kiel there is also a respectable university; and Altona and Odensee can boast of two excellent gymnasia. Two or three schools are established in every parish; and, by a new law, parents are compelled to send their children to school twice a week. A Royal Academy of Sciences, and one for the cultivation of Northern History, were respectively founded in 1742 and 1746.

LANGUAGE.—The language of Denmark is a dialect of the Teutonic; but German and French are spoken at court; and many of the nobility *and gentry cultivate the English*, which is now *generally taught at Copenhagen* as a necessary part of education. The Lord's Prayer, in Danish, is as follows:—"Vor fader, som er i himmelin, heligt vorde dit naffn; tilkomme dit ryke; vorde din villie paa jorden som i himmelin; gif os i dag vort daglige brod: og forlad os vor skyld, som vi forlade vore skyldener; og leed os icke i frestelse, men frels os fra ont; thi reget er dit, og kraft og hergled i evighed. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—The antiquities of Denmark consist only of some rude remains of the temples and cemeteries of the ancient Celtic and Gothic inhabitants of the country. In several parts of the Danish dominions are found circles of upright stones, disposed in a manner similar to those of Stonehenge. There are also, on some rocks, Runic inscriptions, which, however, are unintelligible.

HISTORY.—The most ancient inhabitants of Denmark, of whom we have any account, were the Cimbri. After the conquest of the country by the Goths, we find the possessors of it formidable to their neighbours, by their piracies and sanguinary depredations, in the fifth century, under the name of Jutes or Vitæ, and Angles, and, in the sixth, under that of Danes. But the history of Denmark is fabulous and uncertain before the tenth century. Harold Blaatand, who succeeded his father Gorm in 945, was the first Christian king of Denmark. He was followed by his son Swein, who invaded and ravaged England, and who was succeeded, in 1014, by his son Canute the Great.

Under Canute, Denmark may be said to have been in its zenith of glory, as far as extent of dominion can give sanction to the expression; yet few interesting events in Denmark preceded the reign of Margaret, who acted as sovereign of Sweden, Denmark and Norway. She was a princess of splendid talents, and of masculine courage; but, her successors being destitute of her great qualifications, the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were in future to be under one sovereign, lost its effect. In 1448 the crown of Denmark devolved to Christian, count of Oldenburg, ancestor of the present royal family.

In 1513, Christian II., a tyrannical and sanguinary prince, ascended the throne, and married the sister of the emperor Charles V. When he had been driven out of Sweden for his atrocious cruelties, the Danes also rebelled against him; and he fled with his wife and children into the Netherlands. Frederic, duke of Holstein, was unanimously called to the throne, on the deposition of his cruel nephew. He embraced the opinions of Luther; and, about the year 1536, the Protestant religion was established in Denmark by that wise and politic prince, Christian III.

Christian IV., in 1629, was chosen for the head of the Protestant league formed against the House of Austria; but, though personally brave, he was in danger of losing his dominions, when he was succeeded in that command by Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. The Dutch having obliged Christian, who died in 1648, to lower the

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hich had almost cost him his
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surprised the Danish troops,
Nyborg, and marched over
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He died in 1690, and was suc-
e IV., who, like his predeces-
is pretensions upon Holstein,
d have become master of that
ie English and Dutch fleets
iege of Tonningen, while the
reden, Charles XII., landed
of Copenhagen to assist the
h *majesty now agreed to the* peace of Travendahl, which was entirely in the duke's favour. By another treaty, concluded with the States-General, Frederic obliged himself to furnish the confederates with troops, and afterward took a very active part against the French in the wars with Queen Anne. Being still hostile to the Swedes, he attacked them with vigour, when their king was in exile at Bender, and made a descent upon Swedish Pomerania, and another, in 1712, upon Bremen, and took the city of Stade. His troops, however, were totally defeated by the Swedes at Gadesbusch, and his favourite city of Altona was laid in ashes. He revenged himself by seizing a great part of Ducal Holstein, and forcing the Swedish general, Count Steinbock, to surrender himself prisoner, with all his troops. In 1716, his success was so great, by taking Tonningen and Stralsund, by driving the Swedes out of Norway, and reducing Wismar, that his allies began to suspect he was aiming at the sovereignty of all Scandinavia. Charles, returning from exile, renewed the war against Denmark with the most implacable violence; but, on the death of that prince, Frederic durst not refuse the offer of his Britannic majesty's mediation; in consequence of which, a peace was concluded, which left him in possession of the duchy of Sleswick. He died in 1730, after having, two years before, seen his capital nearly reduced to ashes by an accidental fire. His son and successor, Christian Frederic, or Christian VI., made the best use of his power, and of the advantages with which he mounted the throne, by cultivating peace with all his neighbours, and promoting the happiness of his subjects, whom he relieved from some oppressive taxes. He died in 1746; and his pacific example was followed by his son Frederic V., who, though he was the son-in-law of king George II., declined all concern in the German war. Christian VII., who ascended the throne in 1766, married Caroline Matilda, sister of George III.; but this alliance, though seemingly auspicious, had a very unfortunate termination. In 1772, this princess, whose great influence over her husband had excited the jealousy and odium of the queen-dowager, was accused of an adulterous intercourse with Count Struensee, a German adventurer, who had raised himself by his talents to the station of prime minister. The count and his friend Brandt were seized, put in irons, and very rigorously treated in prison: both underwent long and frequent examinations, received sentence of death, and were beheaded. Struensee at first absolutely denied having had any criminal intercourse with the queen: but this he afterwards confessed; which, however, he was induced to do by the fear of torture. His Britannic majesty sent a small squadron to convey the queen to Germany, and appointed the city of Zell for the place of her future residence. She died there of a malignant fever, *in the* twenty-fourth year of her age.

In 1784, another court revolution took place.

The queen-dowager's friends were removed; a new council was formed under the auspices of the prince royal, who was declared co-regent of his father; and, as the king laboured under a debility of understanding, it was required that every instrument should not only be signed by him, but be countersigned by the prince.

After a long interval of peace, the Danish court, in 1801, acceded to the confederacy formed by the northern powers against the naval superiority of Great Britain, under the title of a Convention of Neutrality. But this league was quickly dissolved by the appearance of an English fleet in the Baltic under the command of Nelson, who forced the line of defence formed by the Danish fleet, and compelled the Danes to agree to a cessation of arms to preserve their capital. In this short war they lost their islands in the West Indies, and their settlement of Tranquebar; but, the dispute between England and the northern powers being soon after amicably adjusted, their foreign possessions were restored to them.

Conceiving that the vast and still increasing power of the French emperor rendered it impossible for Denmark to resist him, or to refuse anything that he might demand, the British court resolved to obtain the Danish fleet, that it might not be employed against our country. A secret expedition was therefore planned; and, in August 1807, a great armament proceeded to Copenhagen. A proclamation was immediately issued by the commanders, declaring the circumstances under which they were obliged to make a descent; that the Danish fleet was the sole object of their enterprise, which was undertaken entirely in self-defence, to prevent the resources of Denmark from being directed against Great Britain; and that, if the fleet should be delivered up, every ship would be restored, after a peace with France, in the same condition in which it was then surrendered. The Danish government, however, determined on resistance; and the city was, therefore, bombarded for four days, until General Peiman, seeing that any farther opposition must be unavailing, sent out a flag of truce. The articles, by which the fleet was delivered up, were then settled; and the English brought away 16 ships of the line, 15 frigates, six brigs, and 25 gun-boats, beside vessels on the stocks, and a prodigious quantity of stores from the arsenals. The loss of the British, in this attack, was trifling, while 1500 of the Danes lost their lives, and a considerable part of the city was consumed.

While the war, which this dreadful invasion produced, continued between Denmark and Great Britain, the imbecile king died, on the 13th of March, 1808; and Prince Frederic, who had long acted as sovereign, became king in his own right. He wished to inflict vengeance on his enemies, but had not the means of making a powerful impression. Some small vessels were quickly constructed; and these, with a number of privateers, molested the British commerce; but the trade of his people, at the same time, severely suffered. The Danes were also involved in a war with the Swedes, whom they were desired by Napoleon to attack; but, satisfied with the defence of Norway, they made little impression upon their northern enemies.

When a successor to the throne of Sweden was required, in 1810, the king of Denmark offered himself as a candidate; but he was obliged to yield to the superior influence of Marshal Bernadotte. He continued to be at variance both with the British and Swedish courts; but, while he thus gratified the ruler of France, he did not so far promote the ambitious views of that restless monarch, as to send a great auxiliary army against the Russian emperor. When the French, in 1813, were rapidly retreating from Germany, he began to dread the vengeance of Sweden. His troops were harassed in various conflicts; and he could not have saved his continental territories, if he had not agreed to an armistice, which led to a pacific treaty. He even purchased the forbearance of the confederates by consenting to the cession of Norway and of Danish Lapland, without regard to the inclinations of his subjects in those countries. After the settlement of the affairs of France, he acquiesced in the arrangements of the Congress of Vienna; and either his fears were so great, or his wishes so moderate, that he consented to accept the insignificant duchy of Lauenburg, in exchange for the province of Pomerania and the isle of Rugen, which were at first given to him as an indemnification for Norway. When the German empire, in 1815, assumed a new form, he was admitted into the confederation as duke of Holstein; and, till the time of his death, he pursued a quiet course, attending to the interest of his people, and promoting the prosperity of his diminished realm. He was, in the true sense of the expression, a patriot king. He was affable, friendly, and humane; frugal in his domestic expenditure, that he might be better enabled to be liberal to others; he encouraged every useful art, patronized every philanthropic institution, and allayed, by benevolence and equity, the sternness of power and the rigours of justice. His last beneficent act was to grant to his people the new constitution which has already been mentioned.

Frederic VI. died December 3rd, 1839, and was succeeded by his cousin Christian, the crown prince, who was born September 18, 1786, and who now reigns as Christian VIII. In 1806, he espoused the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburg, from whom he was divorced; after which he married, in 1815, a sister of the duke of Holstein-Augustenburg. By his first wife he had Frederic Charles, prince royal, born 1808.

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AND SITUATION.

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OLCANOES—LAKES—RIVERS.

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from twenty-five to thirty miles in circuit, and in some places more than one hundred fathoms deep; the Fiske Vatn, to the north-east of Hecla, which has no apparent outlet; and the My Vatn, so called from its immense swarms of mosquitos, in the opposite part of the island, appear to be the principal. The chief rivers are the two White Rivers, the Thiorsau, the Lagerfliot, the Blandau, the Herads-Votn, the Jokulsau i Axarfiordi, and the Jokulsau a Bru, or Bridge River. Over the latter is the only bridge in Iceland, from which it derives its name. This bridge was built at the end of the 17th century, is only five feet broad, and much dilapidated. At one spot the traveller crosses this river in a wooden box, which is suspended on two ropes, and, by means of those ropes he either draws or pushes himself over.

MINERALS—FOSSILS.—No mines are worked in Iceland, though large pieces of silver, copper, and iron ore, have been found on the surface of the ground. The principal minerals are sulphur, pumice, zeolite, chalcedony, the famous refracting spar, and malachite, or copper stalactites. The substance called surturbrand is a remarkable fossil: it is evidently bituminized wood. There are two sorts of it; one pale brown, which the natives cut into tables, dishes, and ornamental articles; the other, black and shining like pitch-coal, but generally retaining its ligneous structure. It is found at a great depth, and indicates that trees were formerly much more abundant in the island than they are at present.

CLIMATE—SOIL.—The temperature of the air in Iceland, in its ordinary state, is moderate: the cold of winter is not rigorous; but the weather in summer is subject to great inequalities; and violent tempests, accompanied sometimes with piercing cold, frequently destroy the fruits of the earth. The soil is tolerably fruitful in grass, but it varies according to different situations, being in some places sandy, and in others a stiff clay.

VEGETABLES—ANIMALS.—As the interior of Iceland, says Mr. Henderson, consists of a vast inhospitable desert, traversed in various directions by barren mountains, between which are immense tracts of lava and volcanic sand, it cannot be supposed that vegetation flourishes, or that the fruits of the earth are abundant; yet it appears that corn was produced on this spot in distant times. At present grass is the chief product, beside potatoes and other ordinary vegetables. Forests of considerable extent were observable on the island in former ages; but now few trees grow, and those which appear are miserably stunted.

Iceland has not any wild quadrupeds, except *rats, cats,* and white and brown foxes. The *horses* are small, but stout and serviceable.

Birds are extremely numerous; there are several kinds of falcons, swans, and eider-ducks, which furnish the inhabitants with eggs, and a valuable down.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—Among the curiosities of Iceland the hot spouting springs are particularly remarkable. Some of these, called *Geysers*, throw up columns of water, of several feet in thickness, to the height of seventy or eighty feet. From some the water flows gently, as from other springs, and it is then called a bath; from others boiling water spouts with great noise. Though the degree of heat is unequal, yet Dr. Von-Troil says that he does not remember ever to have observed it under 188. of Fahrenheit's thermometer. At Geyser, Rœynum, and Laugarvalla, he found it at 212. (the boiling heat;) and in the last place, in the ground, in a small hot current, at 213 degrees. It is very common for some of the spouting springs to cease, and others to rise up in their stead. Frequent earthquakes, and subterranean noises, heard at the time, cause great terror to the people. In several of these hot springs the inhabitants who live near them boil their victuals, only by hanging a pot, into which the flesh is put in cold water, in the water of the spring.

Krug von Knidda is the latest visitor who has given an account of the Geysers. A summary of his narrative is inserted in the 28th volume of the Edinburgh Cabinet Library. "When our author arrived at the Geyser," says the writer, "an intelligent peasant from the neighbouring cottage told him, that a great eruption had occurred shortly before, and that they only happened once in twenty-four or thirty hours, and he had accordingly to wait till next day. During the night the small spoutings waked him several times, but nothing extraordinary followed till past six the following evening. He was standing on the margin of the basin, when a hollow rumbling sound, succeeded by twelve or fifteen thundering explosions, producing a violent quivering motion in the ground, drove him from the spot, which seemed about to burst. Turning at a little distance, he beheld a thick pillar of vapour shooting like an arrow to the clouds, and surrounding a body of water, rising with a fluctuating motion to the height of eighty or ninety feet. Some veins of the fluid rose above this, or streamed in arches from the cloud. Sometimes the stream divided, and revealed the aqueous columns shooting upwards in innumerable rays, spreading out at the top like a lofty pine, and descending in a fine rain. At other times it closed in thicker darkness round the centre, veiling it from the eye of the spectator. Often its giant powers seemed exhausted, and the pillar appeared about to sink into the earth, when again the thunder rolled in the deep, and the vapours burst forth, rising *to the sky.* The eruption continued about ten *minutes, when the water sank* down into the *pipe, and the whole was again* in repose. On looking into the basin it was comple and the water far down the tube ascending. Experience and the a the natives told him, that the sple menon would not return till the fol before which he had to leave the pla a short time another spectacle of e and sublimity attracted his attentior Geyser, or Strokr, about 150 paces of the former, which had hitherto inactive, began to display its pov spring rises from a small mound feet high, forming a border at the m tube, which is five feet in diameter with water to within ten or fifteen surface. A thick cloud of smoke sud forth, succeeded by a liquid column almost immediately dissipated by t of the eruption into fine spray, and immense height. From time to tim upwards more than a hundred feet large stones which had been throv cast out with great violence, rising of sight, several of which ascended s cularly as to fall back into the ba for balls to this gigantic jet. The soon exhausted, but the clouds of tinued to escape with a whistling sound for three quarters of an hour eruption ceased, and the fluid remai in the tube as usual."

The moveable ice-fields may be among the natural curiosities of t Some of the yokuls suddenly move, a of ice travel over the adjacent coun not stop or recede before they have great devastation. Accumulations frequently arrive on the coast of Ic Greenland. The field-ice is of the t two or three fathoms, is separated by and less dreaded than the rock or mo which is often seen fifty and more fee water, and is, at least, nine times below water. These prodigious mas quently left in shoal water, fixed, as the ground; and in that state remai months undissolved, chilling the amb sphere. When many such masses a together, the wood, which is often dr between them, is pressed with so muc that it is said it sometimes takes fire- stance which has occasioned fabulou of the ice being in flames. A numb arrive with the ice, which commit gre among the sheep; they are, however soon destroyed, or driven back.

POPULATION.—According to the l that of 1834, the number of inhabita land was then 56,034. The country as populous in 1703 and 1750; but quently been ravaged by contagiou The plague, in the beginning of th century, almost depopulated the islar 1707 and 1708, the small-pox carried persons. Iceland has also suffered ex different times by famine.

INHABITANTS—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—The Icelanders in general are middle-sized, and well made, though not very strong. A frank open countenance, a florid complexion, and yellow flaxen hair, are more frequently observable among them than contrary appearances. The women are shorter than the men, and more disposed to corpulence. The insalubrity of the climate, poorness of living, and the want of proper exercise, prevent either sex from living to a great age. They are an honest, faithful, well-meaning people, very hospitable and obliging. Their chief employment is attending to fishing, and the care of their cattle. On the coasts, the men employ their time in fishing both in winter and summer; and the women prepare the fish, and sew and spin. The men also prepare leather, and work at several mechanic trades; and some work in gold and silver. They likewise manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, which they call *wadmal*. Their dispositions are serious, and they are much inclined to religion. They never pass a river, or any other dangerous place, without previously taking off their hats, and imploring the Divine protection. They have a high regard for their clergy; and the ministers in general so conduct themselves, as to deserve all the respect which they receive.

"The melancholy character of the climate and scenery," says an able writer on this subject, "together with the remembrance of the faded glories of their country, has given a peculiar impress to the minds of the people. Dwelling in desolate places, deprived of almost all vegetation, in dark miserable houses where the light of day can scarcely penetrate, amidst scorched rocks of rugged lava, or enclosed between the racing sea and the black cliffs, they become serious, quiet, humble, and little disposed to exert themselves, unless compelled by necessity. Influenced by these causes, the Icelander of the present day closely resembles his native land, where the most destructive fires are concealed beneath its snow-clad rocks. Still and unmoved, they account it shameful to be betrayed into any violence, or to intermingle their conversation with those gestures so common in more southern countries. While the most powerful passions are raging in their breasts they stand like statues; but, once roused into action, they prove the blood of the Vikingr still flows in their veins. Firm, patient, and enduring, they occasionally remain on the water in their fishing-boats thirty-six hours without tasting food, it being a disgrace to take even a piece of bread along with them. The same character manifests itself in all their undertakings: difficult to be set in motion, they persevere with the utmost energy, and never desist so long as there remains the smallest probability of success. Acute observers, they soon discover the difference between themselves and other nations, but exhibit no predilection for foreign customs; and, however violent enemies to *each other*, they constantly *make common cause against* any stranger. The unwearied industry with which they pursue their several avocations forms a strong contrast with their opposition to all improvement; arising, not from want of ability to learn, but because their reverence for the past inspires them with distrust of all things not derived from their fathers."

The houses of the Icelanders are generally ill-constructed: in some places they are built of drift-wood; and in others they are raised of lava, cemented with moss. Their roofs are covered with sods laid over rafters, or sometimes over ribs of whales, which are more durable and less expensive than wood. They have not even a chimney in any of their kitchens, but only lay their fuel on the hearth, between stones, and the smoke issues from a square hole in the roof. Their food principally consists of dried fish, sour butter, milk mixed with water and whey, and a little meat. Bread is so scarce among them, that there is hardly a peasant who eats it above three or four months in the year.

With regard to the dress of the Icelanders, it may be observed, that the men wear shirts made of wadmal, blue waistcoats, jackets, and trowsers edged with a red stripe; and a large cloak is used to defend them from the rain or cold. The ordinary female dress consists of a chemise, a petticoat, and a jacket; and, in their houses, many of the women are content with the two former: but they frequently cover and adorn their heads with a stiffened turban of white linen, which, after rising to the height of a foot by a backward curve, bends forward, and terminates in a square form. It is usually fastened to the head by a dark-coloured kerchief, so as completely to hide the hair; but, when it is worn by a bride, it is enriched by a fillet embroidered with gold lace. The state dress of a lady is both cumbrous and ornamental. Two or three petticoats, fastened by a velvet girdle, which is studded with polished stones—an apron bordered with dark velvet, and hung with trinkets of silver or gilt brass—a rich bodice, a black jacket with long and tight sleeves, and a black cloak, besides a thick ruff embroidered with silver, and chains hanging from the neck with medals in front—exhibit the pompous extreme of Icelandic fashion.

TOWNS—TRADE—REVENUE.—Skalholt was long considered as the capital of Iceland; but that honour is claimed by Reykiavik, situated on the eastern coast, the present seat of government and justice. At this town is an annual fair, which, however, is very thinly attended. The commerce of the island was carried on by a Danish company before the year 1788, when it was declared free for every subject of the realm. The exports are fish, salted meat, tallow, train-oil, wool, coarse cloth, skins, eider-down, feathers, and sulphur: among the imports are corn, tea, coffee, tobacco, wine, brandy, salt, wood, iron, and flax.

As Iceland affords no incitement for avarice or ambition, the inhabitants depend entirely on

the protection of Denmark, which derives from the country a revenue not exceeding 50,000 crowns.

GOVERNMENT—LAWS.—The government of Iceland, after it became subject to Norway and Denmark, was at first regulated by a marine officer who was sent every year to inspect the state of the island; but the king of Denmark now appoints a governor, who constantly resides there. Each district has an officer, who acts as a magistrate, and before whom actions are usually commenced; but they may be carried by appeal to the courts of two superior judges, and thence to the supreme court of judicature at Copenhagen. Justice is, in general, administered according to the Danish laws, but sometimes according to the old Icelandic ordinances. Men convicted of capital crimes are put to death by beheading or hanging; but, when a woman is condemned to die, she is sewn up in a sack and thrown into the sea.

RELIGION.—Thorwald Kodranson, an Icelandic pirate, being converted to Christianity by a Saxon bishop, introduced his new religion, in 981, among his pagan countrymen. The doctrines and forms of the church of Rome were followed for some centuries; but, in 1551, the Lutheran system was established. Two bishops, those of Skalholt and Holum, governed the church both before and after the Reformation; but, in 1797, the united sees gave way to one episcopate, which was founded at Reykiavik. The bishop's revenue is about £200. All the ministers are native Icelanders, and many of them receive a salary of four hundred rix-dollars from the king of Denmark, exclusive of what they obtain from their congregations. Some, however, have not more than three or four pounds annually.

LITERATURE.—From the introduction of the Christian religion into Iceland, till the year 1264, when this island became subject to Norway, it was one of the few countries in Europe, and the only one in the North, in which the sciences were cultivated with zeal. It appears from some ancient chronicles, that astronomy, natural history, and other branches of science, were studied with success by many of the natives, who were also particularly conversant in poetry. It was on this island that the *scalds* or bards indulged their poetic taste with peculiar avidity; and hence arose the Edda, in which the Scandinavian mythology is fancifully portrayed. There are very few schools: education is therefore conducted at home by the parents; the clergymen visiting each family several times in the year, and inspecting the progress of the pupils. In this manner they acquire an astonishing degree of knowledge, and become intimately acquainted with the history even of classical times and oriental countries. The bishop and the clergy have the power of forbidding the marriage of any female who cannot read; and this no doubt acts as a powerful stimulus. The people of the very lowest class are not so ignorant as they are in many parts of Europe; and a peasant is seldom to be found, who, besides being well instructed in the principles of religion, is not also acquainted with the history of his country and the works of its bards. In winter evenings, one person commonly reads out of some old saga, or history, to the rest of the family, who are pursuing their domestic avocations.

LANGUAGE.—The Icelandic is a very ancient dialect of the Gothic, and has been preserved so pure that any native can understand the most ancient chronicles of his country. The Lord's Prayer in Icelandic is as follows:—

"Fader vor, som est i himlum, halgad warde thitt nama: tilkomme thitt rikie: skie thitt vilie so som i himmalam so ogh po jordanne: wort dachlicha brodh gif os i dagh: ogh forlat os nora skuldar, so som ogh vi forlate them os skildighe are, ogh inled os ikkie i frestalsan: utan frels os ifra ondo. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—In Iceland are found circles of upright stones and transverse stones, in a manner similar, though upon a smaller scale, to Stonehenge, in England. They are called *dumrings*, or circles of judgment. There likewise still exists a bath built by Snorro, the celebrated Icelandic historian, in the 13th century.

HISTORY.—A Norwegian colony, under the conduct of two chiefs, named Ingolf and Hiorleif, settled in Iceland in the 9th century. Other colonies soon followed, consisting principally of emigrants who fled from the tyranny of Harold Harfager, king of Norway. These formed separate independent communities, which, in time, united into one commonwealth under a supreme elective magistrate. In consequence, however, of internal dissensions, and the arbitrary conduct of some ambitious citizens, the Icelandic republic, in the year 1264, submitted under certain conditions to Hacon, king of Norway; and afterwards became, with that country, a part of the dominions of the crown of Denmark, to which it still remains subject.

THE FARO OR FEROE ISLANDS

Are 25 in number, though only 17 are said to be inhabited, and lie between 61 and 63 degrees N. lat. and 6 and 7 degrees W. long. from London. The space of this cluster extends about 70 miles in length, and 40 in breadth, 400 miles to the westward of Norway; having Shetland and the Orkneys on the south-east, and Greenland and Iceland on the north and north-west. Stromoe, the largest island of this group, is 27 miles long, and 8 broad. Its only town is Thorshavn, which contains about 100 habitations, mostly huts. These islands are not unfruitful; but the few trees which they exhibit are small and feeble. The inhabitants amount to 5000: their manners are simple and unaffected, and their industry deserves commendation. They export feathers, eider-down,

me articles of dress. Their man-; the species of whale called the der as it seems, is attested by y. The fishermen approach gently, e tickles it on the back with an eems to give it much pleasure, ts his mitten or stocking into the animal's blowing-holes. By this latter operation, the whale is prevented from sinking. A hole is then cut in the blubber, taking care not to wound the flesh, and through this a fishing-line is fastened, by which the whale is softly towed to the shore.

SWEDEN.

alled, in the present language of *wea-rike*, or the kingdom of Swea; a of great antiquity, and probably the ancient Suiones.

TENT AND SITUATION.

Degrees.

between { 56. and 70. North lat. 10. and 19. East long.

60,000 square miles, with nearly 20 o each.

ES AND DIVISIONS.—Sweden is the south by the entrance of the m the west by the mountains of the north by Norwegian Lapland; east by the Baltic, the Gulf of d the Russian territories. The divided into four general parts; er, Gothland, Norland, and Swedish Lappmark. These were formerly subdivided into the following provinces, for which 24 governments, or prefectures, have been substituted:—

SWEDEN PROPER.—Upland, Sudermanland, Nerike, Westmanland, and Dalecarlia (properly Dalarne.)

GOTHLAND.—East Gothland, Smaland, Island of Œland, Island of Gothland, West Gothland, Wermerland, Dahlsland, Bohnslehn, Halland, Schonen, and Blekingen.

NORLAND.—Gestrikeland, Helsingland, Medelpad, Jæmtland, Herjedalen, Angermanland, West Bothnia, and Swedish Lapland.

SWEDISH LAPLAND.—Asele Lappmark, Umea Lappmark, Pitea Lappmark, Lulea Lappmark, Tornea Lappmark, and Kimi Lappmark.

The following is the modern division into governments, the number of which is twenty-four. The names in brackets indicate the ancient provinces.

Governments.		*Chief Place.*
PROPER:—		
olm	(Upland and Sudermanland)	Stockholm.
. . . . .	(Upland)	Upsal.
as	(Westmanland)	Westeras
ping	(Sudermanland)	Nykœping.
o	(Nerike and Westmanland)	Œrebro.
adt	(Wermerland)	Carlstadt.
Kopparberg . . .	(Dalecarlia)	Falun.
org	(Gestrikeland and Helsingland)	Gefleborg.
AND GOTHLAND:—		
ping	(East Gothland	Linkoping.
r	(Smaland)	Calmar.
ping	(Smaland)	Jonkoping.
berg	(Smaland)	Wexio.
igen	(Blekingen)	Carlscrona.
borg	(West Gothland)	Mariestad.
rg	(Dahlsland and West Gothland)	Wenersborg.
borg and Bohus .	(Dahlsland and West Gothland)	Gothenborg.
stadt	(Halland)	Halmstadt.
ianstadt	(Schonen)	Christianstadt.
ohus	(Schonen)	Malmo.
nd	(Island)	Wisby.
D:—		
otten	(West Bothnia and Lappmark)	Pitea.
rbotten	(West Bothnia and Lappmark)	Umea.
r Norland	(Medelpad and Angermanland)	Hernosand.
and	(Jæmtland and Herjedalen)	Œstersund.

THE COUNTRY—MOUNTAINS—The face of the country presents diversity of the romantic and the profusion of *mountains, hills, and* eminences, intermingled with extensive lakes, numerous rivers, and winding streams, rocks, cataracts, and cultivated lands. The principal *mountains are found* in the chain which sepa-

rates Sweden from Norway. The mountain Swucku is deemed the highest of this chain. Kinekulle, on the banks of the lake Wener, consists of a number of terraces rising one above another. Rætvik, another mountain, is estimated to be 6000 feet above the level of the sea. These, as well as the other mountains of Sweden, are composed of granite, calcareous stone, and slate. The basis of the majority is granite, which is frequently found in large separate masses, rising to a considerable height. Jetteberg, in West Gothland, forms a mass of this kind. Taberg, in Smaland, is composed entirely of iron ore.

Vast forests, principally of pine, overspread a great part of the country, and the province of Dalecarlia in particular. Beside pine, birch, poplar, mountain-ash, and fir, abound in them. In these forests conflagrations are remarkably frequent, which consume or scorch the trees to a great extent. These are to be attributed, in part, to the carelessness of the peasants, who kindle fires in the woods without extinguishing them; and in part to the privilege allowed to them to make use of the timber thus damaged in the crown forests, without paying the usual tax on it.

Lakes—Rivers—Canals.—The lakes are very numerous. The largest is the Wener, which is about 100 English miles long, and between 50 and 60 broad. It contains several islands, and receives 24 rivers. With the exception of the Russian lakes of Onega and Ladoga, it is the largest lake in Europe. It receives more than 30 tributary rivers. The Wetter is about the same length, but of unequal breadth, being from only 6 to 26 miles broad. It is reported to be 200 fathoms deep, contains two islands, and receives about 40 small streams. The Mælar is about 70 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. It contains about 1300 small islands, some of which are three or four miles in extent, and extremely fertile. At Stockholm this lake communicates with the Baltic, by two rapid currents. The Niurunda is a magnificent stream, and the Angermann rivals the Rhine in the beauty of its scenery. The Hielmar washes Sudermanland and Nerike: it is about 40 miles in length, and 20 in breadth, and communicates with the Mælar.

The principal river is the Dahl, which rises in the mountains that separate Sweden from Norway, and, after a course of about 260 miles, falls into the Gulf of Bothnia, about 10 miles to the east of Gefle. The rivers Gotha and Motala are the outlets of the lakes Wener and Wetter.

Inland navigation has not been entirely neglected by the Swedes. The canal of Trollhætta, which was completed in 1800, was wrought with great labour, assisted by the force of gunpowder, through the midst of rocks. Its object was to open a communication between the North Sea and the lake Wener, by forming a new channel where the Gotha is rendered innavigable by cataracts. The length of this canal, in which are *nine locks, is nearly three miles*, the width 36 feet, and the depth in some place In connexion with these magnific others were subsequently prosecu view to unite the two great inland canal of Westrogotha passes from t the inlet of Viken, which joins the was opened in 1832. This is conti canal of Ostrogotha, which procee Wetter, by the lakes Boren and R Gulf of Slatbaken, near Soderkopi opens the navigation with the Ba are some other canals of less impor

Metals—Minerals.—The min copper, lead, and iron, in Sweden the principal wealth of the country gold-mine was discovered near Ade never was very productive, and at not defray the expense of working. mines, though greatly reduced i more profitable; but the most valu mines of copper and iron, though the less productive than they were form

The copper-mines near Fahlun, i have been worked for nearly 1000 are sunk to the depth of 1080 feet, 1000 workmen. The copper is fo veins, but in great masses. In t mine at this place, Dr. Clarke found oppressive, that he could not pro bottom. When any air was admitt doors, and the sulphureous vapour partially dispersed, whole beds matter appeared in a state of ignit had been constructed to oppose the this element, which, if not kept i at the same time, by the smotherin its own exhalations, would destroy

The iron-mines, near Danemora, are accounted to produce the best world. The metal is sometimes f masses, of which the most remarl hill of Taberg, which is one imme iron ore, above 400 feet high, and th miles in circuit. Sweden likewi porphyry, rock-crystal, cobalt, anti and molybdena; and mines of coa discovered in Smaland.

Climate—Soil—Agriculture.- of the winter in Sweden is intense. spring has continued for a week or t of summer becomes extreme, fro length of the days, and the reflexion rays from the rocks and mountains some of the northern provinces, th sown and reaped in the space of se weeks. Frequent winds purify the the salubrity of which is evinced b instances of longevity. Intense as winter is anything but a season of g equally favourable to commerce and "The merchant finds a path to distu across the solid gulfs, and over hard which no other process could rende Pleasures and amusements are kep stant succession. In the environs c the plains and borders of the lakes a

into frozen race-courses, where the elegance and richness of the sledges, the splendour of the harnessing, and the beauty of the horses, fleet as the wind, and making the air resound with the clear tinkling of their little bells, present a scene surpassing in gaiety and animation the most brilliant assemblages that crowd the public promenades in softer climes. Military bands often accompany these lively fêtes; and the contest is occasionally prolonged by torch-light, which gives a picturesque effect to the trains of joyous carriages, moving with great velocity over the whitened fields." The soil is in general indifferent, but in some valleys surprisingly fertile. Of late years, agriculture has, comparatively speaking, made a greater progress than in any other country. Numerous societies have been instituted for its improvement, and this has been a favourite object with the king and the nobles. Upwards of 6000 farms have, since 1803, been created out of the crown lands. Instead of being dependent on foreign supplies, Sweden now exports grain to a considerable amount.

The cultivation of tobacco has succeeded very well in this country. It grows in the greatest quantities in the province of Upland; and Sweden at present does not require any importation of this commodity from foreign countries, except to have it superior in quality to that of its own growth.

Vegetables—Animals.—The pine and the fir are the principal forest-trees of Sweden; the birch grows in all the provinces; but it has been remarked that no beeches grow to the north of East Gothland, and no oaks beyond Upland.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, and beans, are cultivated with success in Sweden; and, though beyond Gefle and Biorneborg fruit-trees are rarely to be met with, common cherries, gooseberries, strawberries, raspberries, currants, and several sorts of pears and apples, ripen in the open air in several of the provinces; and melons, by artificial culture, are brought to perfection in dry seasons. The heaths and woods abound with the juniper, the bilberry, and the cranberry.

The wild animals of Sweden are wolves, bears, beavers, elks, rein-deer, foxes, hares, and squirrels. The Swedish wolves are not so fierce as those which infest the southern parts of Europe. In winter the foxes and squirrels become grey, and the hares as white as snow. The horses and oxen, and the cattle in general, are small, but hardy. About 200 species of birds are found in the country; the most remarkable is the *falco rubirinus*, a bird between the hawk and the eagle. The rivers and lakes abound in fish; and several species of them, pike and salmon in particular, are pickled and exported.

Natural Curiosities.—These consist in the cataracts, and the scenery of the forests and lakes. About 50 miles from Gothenborg are the famous cataracts of Trolhætta, formed by the river Gotha, which issues from the lake Wener, and, being *united after several breaks*, falls with its whole and undivided stream into so deep a bed of water, that large masts, and other pieces of timber, precipitated down it, disappear for a very considerable time before they rise again to the surface. There is another cataract, on the river Dahl, about 10 miles to the east of Gefle, deemed little inferior to that of the Rhine at Schaffhausen.

Population.—The number of inhabitants amounted, in 1751, to 2,229,661; in 1772, to 2,584,261. In 1809, when Finland formed a part of the realm, the population was calculated at 3,320,600 persons; but in 1811, when that province was no longer an appendage of Sweden, the amount was estimated at 2,414,150; and now, even without reckoning the inhabitants of the added kingdom of Norway, the number has risen, according to the latest enumeration (1839) to 3,110,000.

National Character—Manners—Customs.—The Swedes are, in general, tall, well-formed, and capable of enduring the greatest fatigues. They are lively in their conversation, good-humoured, hospitable, industrious, sincere, honest, and brave. The upper classes imitate closely the manners of the French, the fashions of which nation have long been followed by the ladies, few of whom adopted the national dress which Gustavus III. endeavoured to introduce in 1777. This was worn, however, by many of the men, and consisted, for them, of a close coat, very wide breeches, a girdle, a round hat, and a cloak. The women were to wear a black robe, with puffed gauze sleeves, a coloured sash, and ribbons. The Swedes, in general, wear short dresses, of a blue or black hue. Veils are much used by the women of all classes: even the female peasants, while at work in the fields, cover their heads with black crape. There is no country in the world where the women do so much work as in Sweden: they manage the plough, thresh the grain, row boats, serve the bricklayers, and carry burdens.

Cities—Chief Towns—Edifices.—An unusually small portion of the population of Sweden, or not more than a tenth part, is collected in towns, the number of which is estimated at 104. Of these, 24 are staple-towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships.

Stockholm is the capital. The approach from the interior, by the Mælar lake, is highly picturesque. The scenery of the lake is very soft and beautiful—wooded points of land crossing each other—the woods dipping into the waters without visible shore between—and these, not the stern spear-like pines of the Norwegian lakes, bristling against the sky, but rounded wide-spreading masses of foliage and shade from beech, plane, and luxuriant drooping birch trees. The country is not flat, but has no abrupt elevations, and runs with long gentle wooded slopes into the lake.

Stockholm is situated upon seven small rocky *islands, beside* two peninsulas, and is built *upon piles.* It strongly impresses a stranger

with its singular and romantic scenery. A variety of contrasted and enchanting views are formed by numberless rocks of granite, rising boldly from the surface of the water, partly bare and craggy, partly dotted with houses, or feathered with wood. The harbour, which is spacious and convenient, though difficult of access, is an inlet of the Baltic: the water is remarkably clear, and of such a depth that ships of the largest burden can approach the quay, which is of considerable breadth, and lined with spacious buildings and warehouses. Toward the sea, about two or three miles from the town, the harbour is contracted into a strait, and winds among high rocks; and the prospect is terminated by distant hills, overspread with forests. The central island, from which the city derives its name, and the Ritterholm, are the handsomest parts of the town. The houses of the nobles, the mint, the exchange, and other public buildings, decorate the former isle; but its chief ornament is the palace, which is built in the Grecian style, and is very spacious and magnificent. "The palace," says Lang, "is the object which first and last fixes the traveller's eye at Stockholm. In every view of the city, this noble building attracts his attention from all other objects. Its chaste style, unincumbered with unmeaning ornaments, as in our abortive attempts at Grecian architecture, its vast volume, its effect on the mind of the spectator as a grand object—an effect produced, no doubt, by the architect's skill in being simple, and not distracting the attention by superfluity of breaks and details in his masses, place this edifice among the few modern structures which have attained the end and aim of the art—the impressing the beholder with an unmixed feeling of grandeur." In the northern suburb stands the opera-house, in which Gustavus III. was shot: externally, it is not splendid; but the interior is very elegant. With an exception of the suburbs, where the houses are chiefly of wood, painted red, the generality of the buildings are of stone, or brick stuccoed. The inhabitants are about 84,000 in number.

Upsal, formerly the metropolis of Sweden, is famous for its university and its cathedral, the finest church in Sweden, built in imitation of the church of Notre Dame, at Paris. It is a small but very neat town, divided into two almost equal parts by a small river named Sala; and the streets are drawn at right angles from a central kind of square. It only contains about 4000 inhabitants, beside the students, of whom there are about 500.

Gothenborg, the second city of Sweden in magnitude, stands partly on the ridges of rocks, and partly in a plain, and is consequently divided into the Upper and Lower towns. The latter is entirely level, intersected by several canals; and its houses are all constructed upon piles. The upper part hangs on the declivities; and rows of buildings rise one above another, like *the seats of an amphitheatre*. The whole is *regularly fortified; and its* circumference is nearly three miles, exclusive of the suburbs. The population, in 1791, scarcely exceeded 15,000; but, in 1811, it amounted to 24,850. The estimate has now risen to 27,000, as the trade of the town continues to increase.

Carlscrona, the station of the royal navy, has a harbour capable of containing 100 ships of the line. It is celebrated for its covered docks, and for the practice of making an artificial rise and fall of water, to remedy the want of the ebb and flow of the tide. Its inhabitants amount to about 12,000.

Gefle is a considerable town, better built than many of the Swedish towns. It has about 9000 inhabitants, who carry on a great foreign trade.

Norkoping, with a population of 10,000 souls, is a flourishing town, with an extensive commerce, and many manufactures. It ranks third among the manufacturing towns of Sweden. Its cloths are reckoned the best in the kingdom.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.—The manufactures of Sweden were very inconsiderable before the middle of the 17th century; but then, by the assistance of the Dutch and Flemings, the natives began some manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, soap, and leather; and they have now some of sail-cloth, cotton, linen, fustian, and other stuffs. Vast quantities of copper are wrought by the Swedes. They have founderies for cannon, forges for anchors and fire-arms, armories, wire and slitting mills, mills also for fulling, and for boring and stamping: they likewise build many ships for sale. Their exports principally consist of iron, copper, timber, pitch, tar, herrings, and fish-oil. Their imports are rye and other kinds of grain, flax, hemp, tobacco, sugar, coffee, silk, and wines.

In some parts of Sweden manufactures and agriculture are carried on together. This is particularly the case in Angermanland, where the loom is heard in every room of every house. The men sow and till the flax, the women weave it. "The people of North and South Angermanland," says a traveller, "seem to unite, on a small scale, all the advantages of an agricultural and manufacturing population, more fully than any district I have ever seen. The land is all in small estates in the possession of the peasants. The men do the farm business, the women are driving a no less profitable branch of industry. There is full employment at the loom or in spinning, for old and young of the female sex. Servants are no burden. About the houses, and inside, there is all the cleanliness and neatness of a thriving manufacturing, and the abundance of an agricultural population. The table-linen laid down even for your glass of milk and piece of bread, is always clean—the beds and sheets always nice and white. Everybody is well clad, for their manufacturing is like their farming—for their own use in the first place, and the surplus only a secondary object for sale; and, from the num-

ck-sacks in their households, ables and chairs, window cur- s—which no hut is without— ling, papered rooms, and a few ident that they lay out their ir comforts, and that they are le of social well-being."

—The government of Sweden many changes. The Swedes, were originally free, and during the crown was elective; but, olutions, Charles XII. became s succeeded by his sister, Ul- nted to the abolition of des- ored the states to their former hey, in return, associated her ndgrave of Hesse-Cassel, with rament. A new model of the then drawn up, by which the brought too low; but, in 1772, was changed by Gustavus III. nexpected manner. By that es, instead of having the par- of their constitution rectified, g invested with exorbitant au- e form of government then might assemble and dissolve never he pleased: he had the the army, the navy, finances, ments civil and military; and, d not openly claim a power of on all occasions, yet such as were rendered perpetual; and, sion or pressing necessity, he ome taxes till the states could ut of this necessity he was to nd the meeting of the states r upon his will and pleasure; were assembled, they were to nothing but what he thought fore them.

ition of Gustavus IV., a new s given to Sweden, by which is vested in the king and a nembers, who are to be natives he evangelical religion, and to or their advice and the acts of tates of the kingdom are to be fifth year, at Stockholm; and pose no taxes without the con- , nor may he deprive, or cause e deprived of his life, liberty, erty, without trial and judg- e harass or persecute any per- ous opinions, provided the pro- em, or the exercise of his reli- rious to the community. No m be of longer duration than nless business should require composed of four orders: the gy, the citizens, and the pea- stitution is apparently favour- lom of the subject; but, as it to decide *against the opinions lors, and does not sufficiently onsibility, it affords no effec-* tual check to the despotic inclinations of an artful and ambitious prince. At the present moment, there is no danger of the exercise of tyranny; but the nation ought vigilantly to guard against its return.

Laws.—Sweden is not governed by the Roman or civil law, but by its own code. There are four superior courts; the principal towns have inferior tribunals; and a kind of assize is likewise holden twice in the year by provincial judges. Trials are had by a sort of jury of twelve persons, who, when they all agree, may decide against the opinion of the judge; but in general they acquiesce in his dictates.

The common methods of execution in Sweden are beheading and hanging. For murder the hand of the criminal is first chopped off, and he is then beheaded and quartered. Women, after suffering decapitation, instead of being quartered, are burned. No capital punishment is inflicted without a royal confirmation of the sentence. Every prisoner is at liberty to petition the king, within a month after the trial. The petition either complains of unjust condemnation, and in such a case demands a revisal of the sentence; or prays for pardon, or a mitigation of punishment. Malefactors are never put to death except for very atrocious crimes, such as murder, housebreaking, robbery upon the highway, or repeated thefts. Other crimes, many of which in some countries are considered as capital, are chiefly punished by whipping, condemnation to live upon bread and water, imprisonment and hard labour. Criminals were tortured to extort confession, before the reign of Gustavus III., who, in 1773, abolished this cruel and absurd practice.

Revenue.—The revenues of Sweden, arising from the rents of crown-lands, capitation taxes, land-tax, customs, post-office, and various other articles, amount to about £1,800,000. Sweden, which, some years ago, was so indebted that she was on the verge of ruin, has now no national debt. The enlightened management of the government has enabled it not only to extinguish the debt, but to assist every branch of industry, and to undertake public works of immense magnitude and utility.

Army and Navy.—No country in the world has produced greater heroes, or braver troops, than the Swedes; but, in recent times, their reputation has in some degree declined. The Swedish army consists of three classes. The *Vaerfvade* comprehends what may be called the regular troops, as guards, artillery, and garrisons, and is drawn from the two other classes by voluntary enlistment. The *Indelta* army, infantry and cavalry, is composed of a species of peasant yeomanry, who receive no pay except when engaged in a campaign. They derive their subsistence from portions of land, which in time of peace they cultivate. They can also be called upon to aid in public works, such as roads, canals, &c. The *Beväring* is a local militia, entirely infantry. The whole of

this force may amount to 150,000 men. The number of troops on foot, in 1840, was 39,846 men. This does not include the Norwegian army.

In 1840, the royal navy consisted of 21 ships of the line, 8 frigates, 8 brigs, and 247 gun-boats.

ROYAL TITLES—ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.—The king takes the title of King of Sweden and of the Goths and Vandals; Grand Duke of Finland, Hereditary Lord of Norway; Duke of Sleswick, Stormar, and Ditmarsch; Count of Oldenburg and Delmenhorst. The orders of knighthood are the Seraphim, the Sword, the Polar Star, and that of Vasa. The second is bestowed for military merit, and the third for civil services. The ribbons worn by the knights are blue, yellow, black, and green.

RELIGION.—Christianity was introduced into Sweden in the ninth century, and Lutheranism established by Gustavus Vasa. The national church is governed by the archbishop of Upsal and thirteen bishops. The Swedes were, for a long time, very intolerant to those of other religious professions; and severe laws were in force against Catholic priests. But they have now greatly relaxed from this bigotry; and various sects are tolerated in Sweden, Jews and Catholics not excepted. The annual income of the archbishop of Upsal is only £650; the richest bishop, that of Linkoping, but £500, and the poorest only £250. The stipends of the inferior clergy, reckoning their houses, tithes in grain, and other dues, range from £70 to £100.

LITERATURE AND THE FINE ARTS.—In natural history, chemistry, and mineralogy, several natives of Sweden have attained to particular eminence; and in these departments of science the names of the great Linnæus, Sparrman, Wallerius, Quist, Klingenstierna, and Thunberg, are especially conspicuous. Rudbeck, who patronized Linnæus, is deservedly celebrated in the annals both of anatomy and natural history. Cronstedt, Scheele, and Bergman, excelled in mineralogy and chemical analysis; and the fame of Berzelius and Swartz is likewise high in those branches of science. The Swedes have also not neglected the cultivation of general literature. Speaking of those who were patronized by Queen Christina, Dr. Clarke says, "In this list was signalized one whom the Swedes consider as the greatest genius which their country has produced, namely, Stiernhielm; known among them as a poet and a philosopher of such eminence, that they have bestowed upon him the name of Polyhistor." Puffendorff, indeed, who was distinguished among them in the reign of Charles XI., was not a native of their country; but, in modern times, Dalin and Lagerbring acquired the fame of able historians; Creutz was an ingenious poet; and some interesting dramatists and miscellaneous writers might be mentioned, among whom were Gustavus III., the Count de Gyllenborg, Leopold, and Kellgren. More *recently the* Swedes have made rapid strides in *literature. The universal talent* of Counsellor Leopold acquired for him the title of the Scandinavian Voltaire. Atterbonn is also called the Gœthe of the North. Among a crowd of eminent poetical names, that of Tegner, bishop of Wexio stands foremost. His romance of Axel, and legend of Frithiof, have been translated into English and German. In all the branches of natural science, Swedes have also distinguished themselves.

The fine arts were zealously encouraged by Gustavus III.; but no great architect or painter arose under his sway, though the fame of Sergell, as a sculptor, is deservedly high. Since his time, Sweden has produced several painters of talent, among whom may be mentioned Vestin in history, and Lindbrog and Fahlcrants in landscape. Bystrœm, Gœthe, and Fogelberg, excel as sculptors.

UNIVERSITIES.—There are only two universities in Sweden—those of Upsal and Lund; the former established in 1476, the latter in 1666. The former is in a flourishing state, having 60 professors, some of whom are able and learned men; beside privileged teachers, and probably about 2000 students. It has a library of 60,000 volumes, besides a valuable collection of manuscripts. The university of Lund has about 50 professors, but the number of students does not amount to 1000. There are likewise twelve seminaries for the education of youth, called *gymnasia*. In every large town there is a school, maintained at the expense of the crown, in which boys generally continue till the age of eleven, when they are sent to the gymnasia, and thence, at sixteen, to one of the universities. There are also in Sweden many literary and scientific academies, most of which publish memoirs of their transactions.

LANGUAGE.—The language of Sweden, being derived from the ancient Gothic, bears a considerable resemblance to the Danish and Icelandic tongues. The Lord's Prayer in Swedish is as follows:—

"Fader war, som ost i himlom, helgat warde tit namn: tilkomme tit rike: ske tin wilje, sasom i himmelen sa ock pa jordene: gif oss i dag wart dagelige brod: och forlat oss ware skulder, sasom ock wi forlatom them oss skuldige aro: och inled oss icke i frestelse, utan frels oss ifran ondo: ty riket ar tit, och machten, och herligheten i ewighet. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—Sweden contains numerous ranges of stones, similar in some degree, though not comparable in dimensions, to those of Stonehenge. There are also great numbers of small mounts or tumuli like the barrows of Britain, and ancient monuments inscribed with Runic characters. Near Upsal is the *moraten*, or stone on which the king used to be enthroned.

HISTORY.—The early history of Sweden is confused and often doubtful, but replete with murders, massacres, and ravages. The first king is unknown; and the reigns of his successors are wholly uninteresting before the thirteenth century. The government was far from being clearly ascertained or uniformly adminis-

crown was elective, though in this
rights of blood were not altogether
. The great lords possessed the
ierable part of the wealth of the
hich consisted chiefly in land, com-
; unknown or neglected, and even
itself in a very rude and imperfect
a the great respect paid to their
nong the inhabitants of the North,
articularly those of a dignified rank,
ian immense influence in all public
btained possession of the lands that
unoccupied by the nobility. These
f men, enjoying all the property of
rmed a council, called the Senate,
rated on all public affairs. This
vernment was extremely unfavour-
national prosperity. The Swedes
er in the dissensions between their
lay-barons, or between those and
gn; they were drained of the little
possessed, to support the indolent
ew magnificent bishops; and the
situation of their internal affairs
n to the inroads and oppression of
ies. These were the Danes, who,
hbourhood and power, were always
themselves of the dissensions of
to subject under a foreign yoke a
kened and exhausted by its domes-
In this deplorable state Sweden
r more than two centuries; some-
a nominal subjection to its own
ietimes united to the kingdom of
nd in either case equally insulted
ed.

rowned in 1276, seems to have been
r of Sweden who pursued a regular
he extension of his authority. He
the ablest princes who ever sat on
throne. By his art and address he
on the convention of estates to make
dinary grants to him for the sup-
yal dignity. The augmentation of
of the crown was naturally followed
ional increase of the regal power:
by the steady and vigorous exertion
er, Magnus humbled the haughty
nobles, and created in the rest of
due respect for the royal dignity,
me time, by employing his autho-
r points for the public good, recon-
jects to acts of power which, under
rchs, they would have opposed with
iolence. The successors of Magnus
intain their authority with equal
several commotions and revolutions
ich threw the nation into great con-

r 1387, Margaret, daughter of Wal-
of Denmark, and widow of Hacon,
rway, reigned in both those king-
princess, to the ordinary ambition
ided a penetration and enlargement
ich rendered *her capable of con-*
greatest and most complicated de-
signs. She has been called the Semiramis of the North, because she was bold, artful, and ambitious. She obtained the crown of Sweden by encouraging a revolt of the people from Albert of Mecklenburg. She projected the union of Calmar, by which the three kingdoms were to remain under one sovereign, elected by each in its turn. Several revolutions ensued after her death; and at length Christian II. engaged in a scheme to render himself absolute. In order to establish his authority in Sweden, he laid a plot for massacring the principal nobility; and this horrid design was actually carried into execution, November 8, 1520. Of all those who could oppose the despotic purposes of Christian, no one remained in Sweden but Gustavus Vasa, a descendant of the ancient kings of that country. A great price was set upon his head; but by his dexterity and address he eluded the most vigilant search, and escaped to the mountains of Dalecarlia. After undergoing innumerable dangers and fatigues, and working in the copper-mines to prevent being discovered, he at length engaged the savage but warlike inhabitants of that province to espouse his cause, and assist him against his tyrannical oppressor. Sweden, by his means, again acquired independence. Being at the head of a victorious army, he was created, at first, administrator, and afterward king of Sweden, by universal consent. His circumstances were much more favourable than those of any former prince who had possessed this dignity. The massacre of the nobles had freed him from those proud and haughty enemies, who had so long been the bane of all regular government in Sweden. The clergy, indeed, were no less powerful than dangerous; but the opinions of Luther, which began at this time to prevail in the North, and the credit which they had acquired among the Swedes, gave him an opportunity of changing the religious system of the country; and the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion was prohibited in 1544, under the severest penalties. Instead of a Gothic aristocracy, the most turbulent of all governments, and, when empoisoned by religious tyranny, of all governments the most wretched, Sweden, in this manner, became a regular monarchy. Some favourable effects of this change were soon visible; arts and manufactures were established and improved; navigation and commerce began to flourish; letters and civil improvements were introduced; and a kingdom, known only by name to the rest of Europe, began to be formidable by its arms, and to have a certain weight in all public treaties and deliberations.

Gustavus died in 1559, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Eric. The new king's causeless jealousy of his brothers forced them to take arms; and, the senate siding with them, he was deposed in 1566. His brother John attempted, by the advice of his queen, to re-establish the Catholic religion in Sweden; but, though he made strong efforts for that purpose, he was opposed by his brother Charles, and the scheme proved ineffectual.

On the death of John, Charles was chosen administrator of Sweden, in the name of his nephew Sigismund, who had been elected king of Poland. The exclusion of the latter prince favoured the pretensions of Charles, who obtained the crown in 1599, but did not enjoy it in peace, being harassed both by the Polanders and the Danes. His successor, Gustavus Adolphus, found himself, soon after his accession, in an embarrassing and dangerous predicament. Through the power and intrigues of the Polanders, Russians, and Danes, he was engaged in a war with all his neighbours, under infinite disadvantages, all which he surmounted. He had nearly rendered himself sovereign of Russia. In 1617, under the mediation of James I. of England, he concluded a treaty of peace, by which he recovered Livonia.

The ideas of Gustavus began now to expand. He had seen much military service; and he was assisted by the counsels of La Gardie, one of the best generals and wisest statesmen of his age. His troops had become the best disciplined and most warlike in Europe. The princes of the House of Austria were, it is certain, early jealous of his enterprising spirit, and supported his implacable enemy, Sigismund, whom he defeated. In 1627 he formed the siege of Dantzic, in which he was unsuccessful; but the attempt, which was defeated only by the sudden rise of the Vistula, added so much to his military character, that the Protestant princes placed him at the head of the confederacy for humbling the House of Austria. His life, from that time, was a continued chain of wonderful success. After taking Riga, and overrunning Livonia, he entered Poland, where he was victorious. In 1630 he landed in Pomerania, drove the enemy out of the duchy of Mecklenburg, defeated the famous Count Tilly, the Austrian general, and overran Franconia. On the defeat and death of Tilly, Wallenstein, another Austrian general of equal reputation, was appointed to the command against Gustavus, who was killed upon the plain of Lutzen in 1632, after gaining a victory, which, had he survived, would probably have put a period to the Austrian greatness.

The abilities of this prince never appeared so fully as after his death. He left a set of generals trained by himself, who maintained the glory of the Swedish arms with astonishing valour and success. The names of Duke Bernard, Banier, Torstenson, Wrangel, and others, and their great actions in war, will long live in the annals of Europe. It is uncertain what course Gustavus would have pursued, had his life been prolonged, and his successes continued; but there is the strongest reason to believe, that he had various schemes in view beside the mere relief of the Protestants and the restoration of the Palatine family. His chancellor, Oxenstiern, was as able and politic as his master was brave and warlike; and, during the minority of the monarch's daughter Christina, he managed the affairs of Sweden with such success, that she in a manner dictated the peace of Westphalia, (1648,) which gave a new system to the affairs of Europe.

Christina was only six years of age at the death of her father. She received a noble education; but her fine genius took an uncommon and indeed romantic turn. She invited to her court Descartes, Salmasius, and other learned men; to whom she was not, however, extremely liberal. She expressed an esteem for Grotius; and she was an excellent judge of the polite arts, but gross and indelicate in the choice of her private favourites. She at the same time discharged all the duties of her high station; and, though her generals were basely betrayed by France, she continued to support the honour of her crown. Being resolved not to marry, she resigned her crown, in 1654, to her cousin Charles Gustavus, son to the duke of Deux-Ponts.

Charles had great success against the Polanders: he drove their king, John Casimir, into Silesia; and received from them an oath of allegiance, which, with their usual inconstancy, they broke. His progress against Denmark has been already mentioned; and he died of a fever, in 1660. His son and successor, Charles XI., was not five years of age at his father's death; and this rendered it necessary for his guardians to conclude a peace with their neighbours. All differences were accommodated at the same time with Russia and Holland; and Sweden continued to make a very respectable figure in the affairs of Europe. Charles received a subsidy from Louis XIV.; but, apprehending that the liberties of Europe were in danger from that monarch's ambition, he entered into the alliance with England and Holland. He afterwards joined with France against the House of Austria; but, when he had been defeated in Germany, a powerful confederacy was formed against him. The elector of Brandenburg made himself master of Swedish Pomerania; the bishop of Munster overran Bremen and Verden, and the Danes took Wismar, and several places in Schonen: but Charles, by the treaty of St. Germain, recovered all he had lost, except some places in Germany. He then made a base use of the tranquillity which he had regained, by employing his army to enslave his people. The states lost all their power; and Sweden was reduced to the condition of Denmark.

This prince died in 1697, and was succeeded by his minor son, the famous Charles XII. The will of the deceased king had fixed the son's majority at eighteen; but it was set aside for an earlier date, by the management of Count Piper, who became in consequence his first minister. Soon after his accession, the kings of Denmark and Poland, and the czar of Muscovy, formed a powerful confederacy against him, encouraged by the mean opinion they had of his youth and abilities. He entered into a war with them all; and, besieging Copenhagen, dictated the peace of Travendahl to his Danish majesty, by which the duke of Holstein was

his dominions. The czar time ravaging Ingria, at the m, and had besieged Narva. aries did not exceed 20,000 was his impatience, that he head of 8000, entirely routed the Russians, and raised the his successes, and so nume-, that the Russians attributed necromancy. Charles then my, where his warlike achieve-f they did not excel, those of is. He dethroned Augustus, but stained his laurels by e Count Patkul to a death d ignominious. He raised crown of Poland, in 1705: ried with it such terror, that y all the powers of Europe, by the duke of Marlborough, Queen Anne, amidst the full ccess against France. His implacable disposition, how-that he can scarcely be con-r light than that of an illus-for, in 1709, he lost, in the , which he fought in his march czar, more than all he had ctories. His brave army was is forced to take refuge among nder. But his misfortunes did itary madness; and, after his ominions, he prosecuted his Denmark, until he was killed ederichshall, in Norway, in 1718, more than thirty-six years of a supposed, with great proba-as shot by one of his officers, the Swedes were weary of the prince under whom they had provinces, their bravest troops, al riches; and who yet, un-ity, pursued an unsuccessful ar, nor would ever have con-tranquillity to his country.

was succeeded by his sister, e hereditary prince of Hesse; was to make peace with Great e late king intended to invade. , to prevent farther losses by the Russian, the Danish, the arms, made many and great in peace from those powers. wever, about the year 1738, ns party in Sweden, under the , which disturbed the internal dom, and led it into an unfor-Russia. A contest at length cession to the crown; but it ided by the influence of the , who, having procured the it for the bishop of Lubeck, sumptive heir of her crown, Swedes an honourable *peace.* *ndidate, Adolphus Frederic,* *ossession of his new dignity* in 1751. He was a prince of a mild and gentle temper, but much harassed by the contending Swedish factions, and found his situation extremely troublesome, in consequence of the restraints and opposition which he met with from the senate. He passed the greatest part of his reign very disagreeably, and was at length, through the intrigues of the queen, brought over to the French party. He died in February, 1771, and was succeeded by his son, Gustavus III., who possessed abilities greatly superior to those of his father.

In consequence of the death of Adolphus, an extraordinary diet was called to regulate the affairs of the government, and to settle the form of the coronation oath. The new king, after his return to Sweden from France, bound himself by oath to maintain the rights and liberties of the states, the freedom and security of all his subjects, and to reign with equity according to the laws of the kingdom. But scarcely had he taken these oaths, when he resolved to govern at his discretion. Concealing his arbitrary intentions, he practised all the arts of popularity; and, when he found that he had deluded the people into the most favourable opinion of his patriotism, he commenced the execution of his unjustifiable scheme. Having taken measures for bringing a considerable number of the officers and soldiers into his interest, he secured the absolute command of the whole military force of Stockholm, made all the members of the senate prisoners, and issued a proclamation for an assembly of the states. Seated on his throne, surrounded by his guards, and a numerous band of officers, after having addressed a speech to the states, he ordered a secretary to read a new form of government, which he offered to the national representatives for their acceptance. As the place of meeting was encompassed by an armed force, they thought proper to comply with what was required of them; and thus was a bloodless revolution completed, in which the Swedes surrendered the constitution bequeathed to them by their forefathers, after the death of Charles XII., as a bulwark against any despotic attempts of their future monarchs. It must not, however, be concealed that the constitution, which was now destroyed, had worked far better for the aristocracy than for the people; that the nobles had perverted it for their own purposes; and that the monarch had been reduced to a mere cipher in the state.

The exorbitant power which Gustavus had thus assumed, he exercised with some degree of moderation; and, at an assembly of the states in 1786, when many points had been referred to them by the king, and debated with great freedom, he dismissed them with condescension and gentleness, at the same time remitting a tenth part of the subsidy which they *had granted* him.

Gustavus having, in 1788, been impelled into a war with Russia, by the desire of succouring the

Porte, and checking the encroachments of Russia, hostilities commenced on the frontiers of Finland; but, after various engagements both by land and sea, a peace, fixing the frontiers of Russia as they were before the war broke out, was signed at Werela. The reign of this prince was terminated by a premature and tragic end. On the night of the 16th of March, 1792, while he was at a masquerade, he was shot by Ankerstroem, in consequence of a conspiracy among some of the discontented nobles; and, having survived in great pain till the 29th of that month, he expired, in the 46th year of his age, and 22nd of his reign.

The prince-royal, being fourteen years of age, was immediately proclaimed king, by the name of Gustavus Adolphus; and the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, in compliance with his father's will, was declared sole regent, and guardian of the young sovereign, till he should attain his majority, which was fixed at the age of eighteen.

The reign of Gustavus IV. was at first pacific; but, animated by indignation against the violence and ambitious encroachments of the ruler of France, he entered zealously into the war against that power; and when the king of Prussia perfidiously took possession of Hanover, he bravely opposed him, and his troops occupied the district of Lauenburg. But, after the unfortunate result of the battle of Friedland, the French, being now enabled to act more vigorously against him, soon dispossessed the Swedes of Pomerania. Russia, likewise, then the abject instrument of France, declared against him, and invaded Finland in 1808; alleging, as a pretext, that he had connived at the recent seizure of the Danish fleet. The Swedes, under General Klingspor, behaved with great bravery, but were overpowered by the superior number of their enemies, who took Abo, and overran Finland. The king was equally unsuccessful in Norway; and the people, and even the army, began to be highly dissatisfied. To assist Gustavus in his difficulties, Great Britain sent Sir John Moore to the Baltic, with a force of about 14,000 men; but this army, after having remained in the transports for several weeks, returned to England, without even attempting anything. When the king found that the troops declined all offensive hostilities, he was so disgusted, that he ordered the arrest of the general, who, not without some difficulty, effected his escape to the fleet. On this occasion the conduct of the monarch was marked by such absurdity and violence as can scarcely be accounted for, except on the supposition that his intellect was deranged.

As great discontent was occasioned by the ill success of the war, a conspiracy was formed against Gustavus by the nobles, in 1809. The troops on the frontiers of Norway mutinied; and this was the signal for the disaffected at Stockholm. The king, being informed of the *advance of the insurgents, despatched a courier to the western army,* with orders to *remove Baron Cederstrom from* the command; but no effect resulted from this authority. As his majesty w leave the palace, he was surro general Adlercreutz and oth quickly overpowered. Even t forbore to assist him; and eve to call for his dethronement, a the country into serious dang possess sufficient sense or cou torrent. At the desire of the duke of Sudermania declared h of the kingdom; and, so unpop vus, that the states not only d declared his offspring incapable small pension being assigned obliged to retire from Sweden.

The result of this revolution w of the duke to the throne, under of Charles XIII., and the termir with France and Russia. Finl Alexander, who would not other hostilities. The new king, h impracticable to preserve pe clashing interests of other pow seriously regard the feeble and lities of Denmark; but he drea Napoleon's resentment, if he s declare war against his Brit While he was deliberating o concurred with the diet (in 1810) ment of the prince of Augus future possession of that thron want of issue would render vaca So popular was this prince amo although he was a Danish sub of his election, that his sudde was occasioned by a fit of apop the multitude imputed to poi assassination of Count Fersen, w suspected of the murder of th As the choice of another heir of now thought necessary, the dif mination kept the nation for so xious suspense. At length, wit exercise of French influence, a proposal was submitted to the c the diet. It was the general object of election should be di military talents, as well as by po and, as Bernadotte, whom Napol Prince of Ponte Corvo, had con with integrity and moderation mand which he exercised in the many, he was proposed by his S as a candidate whose character tionable. The nobles, clergy, peasants, acquiesced in the n confirmed the choice. Thus, b instance of revolutionary cap general was permitted to supe claims of the illustrious family erect a new dynasty in a kingd he had no connexion.

War was now declared again nation; but it was war only in n the king nor the crown prince

amerous enmity or vigorous
a want of zeal disgusted Napo-
venge, ordered the seizure of
nd the re-occupation of Pome-
g to the voice of an insulted
ste thought it his duty, in his
to attend to the interest of
anxiously hoped that an oppor-
n be offered for the formation
racy as might crush or humble
ator. By the aid of a British
considerable force in motion;
ived strong detachments from
Prussian armies, he made dis-
defence of the north of Ger-
ed Berlin from danger by the
ren; and, under his auspices,
still more seriously checked at
the memorable success at
lso a respectable share; and
bringing the Danes within the
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the confederates, in 1814, were
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orm of hostility; and, when he
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presence in France was not
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and promoting the general
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invaded their country, and
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pe of Napoleon from Elba had
ewal of the war, the Swedes
ist in his overthrow; but there
for their interference, as the
e of the British and Prussian
hat momentous object. The
n distinguished himself by a
n of the arts of peace; and, by
his affability and courtesy, and his seeming regard for the welfare and happiness of the people, he acquired a high degree of popularity. In the mean time, the king, whose health had long been unsettled, visibly drooped; but he lived to complete the sixty-ninth year of his age. He died on the 5th of February, 1818. He had displayed his courage in the reign of his brother; but his talents did not strongly appear after his elevation to the throne; and his character suffered, in the opinion of many observers, from his readiness to supplant his nephew. The crown prince ascended the throne without the least opposition from the Swedes.

The reign of Charles John, happily for his subjects, has been uninterrupted by war. This circumstance has enabled him to devote himself entirely to the amelioration of their state, and to providing for the safety of the kingdom. His efforts have been incessant and successful. Commerce has been aided, internal traffic extended by the formation of canals, agriculture improved, the national debt extinguished, and measures taken to render the country unassailable by an invader. "These are imperial works, and worthy kings."

Charles XIV. king of Sweden (formerly Jean Baptiste Julien Bernadotte) was born at Paris, on the 26th of January, 1763. When he adopted the Lutheran religion, in compliance with the requisition of his electors, he assumed the baptismal designation of Charles John. He was married in 1798 to Eugenia Bernardine Desirée; and has a son, Joseph Francis Oscar, now the crown prince, who was born on the 4th of July, 1799. On the 3rd of May, 1826, the crown princess gratified the royal family by the birth of a son, named Charles Louis Eugene, who is duke of Scania. He has since had three more sons, and one daughter: Francis Gustavus Oscar, duke of Upland, 1827; Oscar Frederic, duke of Ostrogothia, 1829; Nicholas Augustus, duke of Dalecarlia, 1831; and the princess Charlotte Eugenia Augusta, 1830.

NORWAY.

the *Northern Way* or country.
alled *Norrike*, or the *Northern*

T AND SITUATION.

Degrees.
tween { 58. and 71. North lat.
{ 5. and 25. East long.
) square miles, with more than
each.

ND DIVISIONS.—Norway is
outh by the entrance into the
st and north by the Northern
he east it is *separated from*
chain of mountains.
of three great divisions: Son-
denfield, Nordenfield, and Nordland, which are subdivided into 17 bailiwicks. The division of *Sondenfield* consists of the bailiwicks of Aggershuus, Smaalehnene, Hedemarken, Christian, Buskerud, Bratsberg, Nedences and Raabygdelaget, Lister and Mandal, Jarlsberg and Laurvig, and Stavanger. That of *Nordenfield* comprehends North and South Bergenhuus, North and South Trondheim, and Romsdal. *Nordland* comprises a bailiwick of the same name, and Finmarken.

MOUNTAINS—LAKES—RIVERS.—Norway is *one of the most* mountainous countries in the *world: continued* mountains run through it *from south* to north; to pass one of which,

called the Ardanger, a man must travel about 60 English miles, and, to pass others, above 40. Dofrefeld is the highest of these mountains. The rivers and cataracts which intersect those dreadful precipices, and that are passable only by slight tottering wooden bridges, render travelling in this country very terrible and dangerous, though the government is at the expense of providing, at different stages, houses accommodated with fire, light, and kitchen furniture. Detached from this vast chain, other immense mountains present themselves all over Norway; some of them with reservoirs of water on the top, and the whole forming a most stupendous landscape. The caverns in these mountains are more wonderful, perhaps, than those which are found in any other part of the world, though less liable to observation. That which is called Dolsteen was in 1750 visited by two clergymen, who reported that they proceeded in it until they heard the sea dashing over their heads; that the passage was as wide and as high as an ordinary church, the sides perpendicular, and the roof vaulted; that they descended a flight of natural stairs; but, when they arrived at another, they would not venture to proceed, but returned; and that they consumed two candles in going and returning. In a mountain in Norway, called Torg Hallen, whose summit has fancifully been imagined to resemble the figure of a giant with a hat on his head, there is a vast pervious aperture 100 yards high and above 2000 in length, along which a road runs.

The lakes of Norway are numerous: the largest is the Miosen, about 60 miles in length, but of no great breadth, except toward the centre, where it is from 12 to 15 miles. It has in it an island about 8 miles in circumference. The Lake of Randa-Sion is almost 50 miles long, but scarcely more than 2 broad. The lake of Fæmund is 43 miles long, and 8 broad; and that of Ojeren, formed by the river Glommen, 23 miles long. Some of these lakes contain floating islands 60 or 80 feet in diameter, formed by the cohesion of roots of trees and shrubs; which, though torn from the main land, bear herbage and trees.

The principal rivers of Norway are the Glommen and the Drammen. The former, from its source among the Dofrine mountains on the borders of Sweden, to the bay of Swinesund, where it falls into the sea, runs about 414 English miles; and the latter flows into the Bay of Christiania.

Metals—Minerals.—Gold has been found in Norway, and some ducats were coined from it in 1645. The silver-mines of Konigsberg, about 40 miles from Christiana, were long very productive, but they are now declining. The copper-mines of Roraas afford considerable revenue; but the iron-mines near Arendahl are, perhaps, the most profitable. Norway produces abundance of marble, quicksilver, sulphur, salt, coal, vitriol, and alum: mines of cobalt have likewise been discovered at Fossam. The mine of *Storvatz, the largest of the* Roraas mines, situated on the brow of a mountain, 3068 feet above the sea, is thus described by Mr. Barrow: "The entrance is by an adit of long and easy descent from the external orifice; so gradual, indeed, that carts are driven up and down to and from the farthest extremity, which is said to be not less than 2800 English feet. The greatest breadth in any one part is about 1170 feet; the height of the passage is seldom less than 7 or 8 feet, and frequently 12 or 15; and the depth from earth to day-light is stated to be upwards of 260 feet. At a short distance from hence is the largest shaft, to which the ore is conveyed in carts from the spot where it is blasted, and hoisted up in barrels to the surface, by means of a large water-wheel of 36 feet in diameter. There are three of these shafts and wheels above ground, of equal dimensions, at short distances from each other; the water that turns them is led on by wooden aqueducts of rude construction. In addition there is a building where the ore is broken down into small fragments by nine large wooden tilt-hammers, lifted by cog-wheels. The ore is very ponderous sulphuret of copper, the matrix of which is chlorite slate, containing also multitudes of imperfect garnet crystals. Beautiful specimens of amianthus are likewise found here. The fragments of ore are washed clean in troughs, and then sent to Roraas, where it is piled in heaps, and roasted, to drive off the sulphur. It is then passed into the smelting furnaces, and the metal runs out into circular cakes. Only the breaking and washing is done above ground, and chiefly by boys. The busy process is below; the noise produced by the blasting reminded me of a loud clap of thunder, particularly so as it gradually became fainter and fainter, till it died away. So violent was the concussion of the air, that it seemed as if the mountain itself actually shook. On entering the mine we were preceded by men carrying torches, made of bundles of deal splinters, to give light to the cavernous passages. This was the more necessary, as these subterraneous streets branched out in every direction, reminding me strongly of the labyrinth of passages in the catacombs of Paris, which are no longer open to the public, in consequence of repeated accidents from persons having lost themselves. The foreman showed me a plan of the mine, which resembled the streets of a town. The lines are mostly on the same level, owing to the veins of the ore being found to run nearly horizontal. These different streets or chambers bear the names of the different parties to whom the concern belongs, the produce of the mine being divided among about 70 shareholders. One of the caverns, in compliment to the king of Sweden, is called Charles John, and another bears the name of Oscar, in commemoration of their having visited the mine in 1818. On that occasion, a great part of the mine was splendidly illuminated with variegated lamps, and a military band stationed to play in the interior."

Climate—Soil—Vegetable Productions.—The climate varies according to the latitude,

dition with respect to the sea. At nter is moderate, and the sea not stern parts are commonly covered d the cold generally sets in about October, and continues with in- to the middle of April, the waters time frozen to a considerable it even frost and snow have their as they facilitate the conveyance nd. In the more northern parts the cold is intense. In summer, s can read and write at midnight the sky; and in the most north- ut midsummer, the sun is con- w. In those parts, however, in rinter, there is only a faint glim- at noon for about an hour and a reflexion of the sun's rays on the ature, notwithstanding, has been Norwegians; for, in the midst of the sky is so serene, and the moon a borealis so bright, that they several trades in the open air.

eneral is exceedingly pure, and natives live to a very great age. climate, however, are certainly to agriculture, and no parts of ield sufficient corn for interior yet, though it is deficient in is rich in pasture.

al vegetable production of Nor- The extensive forests of this st of fir, oak, elm, ash, yew, birch, er trees. The fir in Norway is in n, being firmer, more compact, to rot, than that of most other f the large sums received from s for timber, one-tenth is paid to weden, and forms no inconsider- s revenue.

The horses, and in general the Norway, are small, but strong, ive. Among the wild animals are rabbit, wolf, lynx, fox, glutton, ne, marten, beaver, and bear. The e bear is enormous. One of them walking on his hind feet along a t stretched across a river, bear- rse in his paws. His sagacity ngth: it is a common saying that he has the wit of two men th of seven. He grows till he is ves fifty years. From November mains dormant in his den. Bear- favourite sport in Sweden and most common mode is for two riduals, armed with guns and ompanied by their dogs, to attack nter quarters. On other occa- le population of several parishes t are called *skalls;* when a num- rround a district, and drive all als to the centre, where they are alls often resemble armies rather parties; 1500 men being some- ed.

The elk is a tall ash-coloured animal, its shape partaking at once of the horse and the stag: it is harmless, and in the winter social. The hares are small, and are said to live upon mice in the winter, and to change their colour from brown to white. The wolves, though fierce, are shy even of a cow or goat, unless impelled by hunger: the natives are dexterous in digging traps for them, in which they are taken or killed. The lynx is smaller than a wolf, but as dangerous; it digs under ground, and often undermines sheep-folds, making dreadful havoc. Its skin is beautiful and valuable, as is that of the black fox. White and red foxes are likewise found in Norway, and partake of the nature of that wily animal in other countries: they have a particular way of drawing crabs to the shore, by dipping their tails into the water, of which the crab takes hold. The glutton resembles a turn-spit dog, with a long body, thick legs, sharp claws and teeth; his fur, which is variegated, is so valuable that he is shot with blunt arrows, to preserve the skin unhurt: he is bold, and extremely ravenous. The ermine is a little creature, remarkable for its shyness and cleanliness; and its fur forms a considerable item of royal magnificence. The lemming, or Norwegian mouse, is of a reddish hue, and about five inches in length. Vast multitudes of these animals sometimes proceed from the mountains towards the sea, devouring every production of the soil, and spreading desolation like the locust. When they have consumed every eatable, it is said that they at last prey on each other.

No country produces a greater variety of birds than Norway, especially water-fowl. The auks, which breed on the rocks, frequently appear in such numerous flocks that they darken the air, and the noise they make with their wings resembles a storm. Various kinds of wild ducks and pigeons are also found here. The Norwegian cock of the wood is a noble bird: it is of a black or dark-grey colour, with an eye resembling that of a pheasant. Eagles of different species breed among the mountains and rocks of Norway; some of which are of a prodigious size and strength, and will seize lambs and kids. The sea-eagles sometimes dart on large fishes with such force, that, being unable to extricate their talons, they are dragged into the water and drowned. Foxes, hares, and sheep, also are destroyed by them, and even children have been carried off. They will attack cows, horses, and deer; in which cases they are said to resort to a curious stratagem. Having first soaked their wings in the water, they cover them with sand, and flap them in the face of the animal, which, blinded and stung with pain, runs about till it falls over some precipice, and becomes a prey to the eagle. The bird-men of Norway display remarkable agility and address in mounting the steepest rocks, and bringing away the young birds and their eggs; the latter of which are *nutritive food*, and are parboiled in vinegar.

The seas and lakes of Norway are liberally productive of most kinds of fish, which are found on the sea-coast of Europe. Stock-fish innumerable are dried upon the rocks without salting. The haac-moren is a species of shark, ten fathoms in length, and its liver yields three casks of train oil. The tuella flynder is an excessively large turbot, which has been known to cover a man who has fallen overboard, to keep him from rising. The season for herring-fishing is announced to the fishermen by the spouting of water from the whales while they follow the herring shoals. The coast of Norway may be said to be the native country of herrings. Innumerable shoals come from under the ice, near the North Pole, and, about the latitude of Iceland, divide themselves into three bodies. One multitude supplies the Western Isles and coast of Scotland; another directs its course round the eastern part of Great Britain, down the Channel; and the third enters the Baltic through the Sound. They form a great part of the food of the common people; and the cod, ling, kabeliau, and torsk fishes, follow them to feed upon their spawn, and are taken in prodigious numbers: these, especially their roes, and the oil extracted from their livers, are exported and sold to great advantage. The sea-devil is about six feet in length, and is so called from its monstrous appearance and voracity. The sea-scorpion is likewise of a hideous form, its head being larger than its whole body, which is about four feet in length; and its bite is said to be poisonous.

The northern districts of Norway and Sweden are exposed to the almost insufferable plague of swarms of flies, gnats, and mosquitos. Dr. Clarke says, that at a mosquito court the precedence is always given to a stranger; the insects leaving all others to pay their respects to him. They pierce through leather gloves, and compel the country people to smear themselves with a mixture of tar and cream. In Lapland their numbers are so immense, that they have been compared to a heavy flight of snow, or the dust of the earth, filling every place in such multitudes, that you cannot draw a breath without having your mouth filled, nor lie down to sleep without fumigating the room till you are almost suffocated. Cattle as well as man suffer from these pests, there being particular species which attack horses, cows, and rein-deer, causing diseases which often end in death.

Natural Curiosities.—The dreadful vortex or whirlpool of Maelstrom, or Moskoestrom, is the most remarkable of the natural curiosities of Norway. It is caused by a furious current, which runs among the Loffoden isles, particularly between the island of Moskoe and the point of Moskoenas, where its violence is greatest, flowing contrary to the motion of the tide, in a kind of circular stream. Twice in twenty-four hours, at the turn of ebb and tide, the current ceases, and the water is calm during almost an hour; after which it gradually *increases, till it becomes tremendous*, and roars with a noise unequalled by the loudest cataracts. It is heard at the distance of many leagues, and forms a vortex of great extent and depth, so violent that, if a ship comes near it, it is immediately drawn irresistibly into the whirl, and there disappears, being absorbed in a moment, and dashed to pieces against the rocks; and, when the water becomes again still, rises in scattered fragments, scarcely to be known for the parts of the ship.

Population.—Notwithstanding the great extent of Norway, about 1,300,000 persons are supposed to form the whole number of its inhabitants. Of these above two-thirds occupy the southern division.

National Character — Manners.—The Norwegians in general are strong and brave; friendly and hospitable, but quick in resenting injuries. The women are handsome and courteous; and the Norwegian modes of living greatly resemble those of the Saxon ancestors of the present English. The Norwegians of all ranks have nearly the same manners and language, and all are polite, kind, and courteous in their domestic intercourse, as well as in society. The rough and brutal way in which our workmen and peasantry talk to and treat each other, are unknown in Norway. Every one pulls off his hat or cap, whether to friends or strangers; common labourers, private fishermen and soldiers, salute each other; and the children, scrupulously taught respectful manners, bow to each other in the street. Almost every Norwegian plays on some musical instrument; and the nation is fond of dancing, to which social pastime their long winter nights and easy friendly habits are particularly favourable. A recent traveller says, "Kindness of manner towards each other, and towards strangers, honesty, patience, industry, contentment, are qualities they possess in an eminent degree. As an instance of their honesty, I never saw a door fastened, and seldom shut, by night or day; and as a proof of their kindness of heart, I never witnessed a quarrel among them except upon one occasion, when several expressed great indignation with one of their own body, who annoyed me a little by attempting to angle before me." The traveller is speaking of the inhabitants of the Nummedal, but the character is generally applicable.

Every inhabitant is an artisan, and supplies his family in all its necessaries with his own manufactures; so that in Norway there are few who are by profession hatters, shoe-makers, tailors, tanners, weavers, carpenters, smiths, or joiners. They often mix with oat-meal the bark of the fir, made into a kind of flour; and they are reduced to very extraordinary shifts for supplying the place of bread or farinaceous food. The middling Norwegians lead that kind of life which we may say is furnished with plenty; but they are neither fond of luxury, nor do they dread penury: and this middle state prolongs their lives surprisingly. Though their dress is in many respects accommodated to

ir climate, yet, by custom, instead of guard-
against the inclemency of the weather, they
brave it; for they expose themselves to cold,
hout any covering upon their breasts or
cks. A Norwegian of a hundred years of age
ot supposed too old for labour; and, in 1733,
r couples were married, and danced before
Danish majesty, at Fredericshall, whose
s, when joined, exceeded 800 years.

ITIES—CHIEF TOWNS.—Christiania is ac-
nted the capital of Norway, because it is
seat of the supreme court of justice. It is
eeably situated on the shore of a bay, about
distance of 25 miles from the sea, and is
nsidered as the handsomest town in the
untry; the buildings are regular, and mostly
stone. It contains about 21,000 inhabitants,
appear to live in ease and comfort. Bergen
the next commercial town in Norway, con-
ing between 19,000 and 20,000 inhabitants.
principally built of wood, and has suffered
peated fires. A great number of its inha-
nts are Dutch and other foreigners.

rontheim (or Tronyem) was formerly the
tal of Norway. It has a fine cathedral,
embling the remains of that of Elgin in
tland,) a public library, a museum, and
modious structures belonging to various
al institutions. The population is supposed
mount to 12,000. The inhabitants are agree-
and friendly in their manners, if not so po-
ed as those of Christiania. The society of
ntheim is considered as representing under
happiest light the genuine Norwegian charac-
—its warmth of kindness and generous hos-
lity. The affairs of the corporation are regu-
ed by twelve persons, chosen from the body
raders.

OMMERCE.—The exports of Norway are
ber, hemp, flax, tar, turpentine, fish, tallow,
per, iron, glass, alum, the hides of oxen and
ts, and the skins of bears, lynxes, and foxes.

OVERNMENT—LAWS.—When Norway be-
e subject to the Danish crown, the general
s of the country were retained; and even
peasants were permitted to enjoy that civil
dom which was not allowed to the Danes:
the diets or national councils were discon-
ued, and political liberty was an empty name.
renunciation of all authority over them, in
, in consequence of the imperious demands
he enemies of Denmark, furnished the peo-
with an opportunity of framing an inde-
dent constitution, in which they adopted the
tish model; and, on the transfer of the
untry to Sweden, Charles XIII. bound him-
f to the observance of the new code. By this
w constitution, every native Norwegian, aged
nty-five years, who, as the owner or life-
ter of land, has for five years paid direct
es, or is a burgess of any town, or possesses
re a house or lands of the value of £30, is
itled to elect, and, when he reaches the age
thirty, to be elected, provided he is neither in
y department of the state or court, *nor on*
e pension list, *nor yet in the counting-house*
or office of any placeman or courtier. The parliament, or storthing, is chosen every three years, and sits for three months, or till the public business be despatched; and their meeting is not by virtue of the issue of the king's writ, but of constitutional right; though, on any great national emergency, as a war, or the demise of the crown, an extraordinary storthing may be assembled by the royal edict; but it can only pass interim acts, which must be ratified or annulled by the next regular parliament. The storthings are in every respect independent of the executive; nor is the royal assent necessary to give effect to any bill which has passed the chambers in three different storthings. The members of the storthing are paid about 9*s.* 6*d.* a day, and a small sum for travelling expenses. The number is 96. Hereditary nobility has been abolished in Norway. The press is entirely free.

REVENUE — ARMY — NAVY. — Before the Swedes gained possession of Norway, its revenue did not amount to £300,000. In 1839, it was about £370,000; and the national debt was nearly extinguished. The whole of the military force consists of 12,550 men: the naval has only 6 brigs, and 117 gun-boats.

RELIGION.—The religion of Norway, like that of Denmark, is Lutheranism. Christian sects are tolerated by law; but the Jews are not favoured with that indulgence. The average income of the rural clergy in Norway, is about £170: in towns it is larger. Bishops have between £800 and £900 a year.

ACADEMICAL INSTITUTIONS—LITERATURE—LANGUAGE.—Christiania has a university; Bergen, Drontheim, and Christiansand have colleges; and, in the chief town of each diocese, there is a Latin school. The language of Norway is the Danish, with a mixture of Swedish words: the gentry, and inhabitants of the principal towns, speak purer Danish than is usual even in Copenhagen.

HISTORY.—The first inhabitants of Norway were probably tribes of the Finnish race, the ancestors of the modern Laplanders. These were conquered and driven out by the Goths. Norway, before the close of the 9th century, was divided into ten or twelve small states, under their several chiefs, which were then united into one nation by Harold Harfager. From that time Norway remained a distinct and independent kingdom, except that twice in the 10th and 11th centuries it was subjected, for a short time, to Denmark, and in the 13th, united likewise, for a while, with Sweden. At length, by the marriage of Hacon, king of Norway, with Margaret of Denmark, and the succession of their son Olaf, in 1380, it became an appendage to the crown of Denmark. With that kingdom it remained for many centuries in a state of union; but the insignificance of the protecting realm, and the subserviency of the Danish court to the dictates of *Napoleon*, concurring with the earnest wish of *the enemies* of France to attach the Swedes to

the interest of the grand confederacy, led to an important change. Alexander, the Russian emperor, drew the court of Stockholm into the Anti-Gallican league, by promising to procure a cession of the whole Norwegian territory. After the successful campaign of the year 1813, the allies intimidated the king of Denmark into a resignation of all authority over Norway; and preparations were made for enforcing the submission of the people, who were known to be unfriendly to the unjust and humiliating transfer. In the hope of warding off the storm, the Norwegians offered the sovereignty of their country to the Danish prince Christian, who, without reflecting on the improbability of success, undertook the task of governing and defending the menaced kingdom. Under his auspices, a new constitution was framed; and he began to reign with the general assent of a nation which deserved to be free. But, when a Swedish army had passed the frontiers, and when the chief ports were blockaded by British ships, the new king, after risking some partial conflicts, relinquished all opposition to the will of the confederates. The diet of Norway assembled; and the majority of the members, yielding to necessity, transferred the crown, in November 1814, to the king of Sweden, who bound himself to an acceptance of the most material articles of the new constitution. Discontent still prevailed among the people; but they were obliged to acknowledge the sovereignty of that prince whom they deemed a usurper; and it does not appear that they have had reason to complain of misgovernment or oppression. Among the few events which have since occurred, may be mentioned the abolition of hereditary nobility, which he in vain attempted to oppose. It was persisted in by three successive storthings, and consequently became a law of the land.

LAPLAND.

Though Lapland has no peculiar government as a distinct nation, but is divided between Sweden and Russia, the peculiar character and manners of its inhabitants entitle it to a distinct section; and, as the largest and most cultivated part of it belongs to Sweden, it appears most proper to place the account of it after that of the country on which it is principally dependent.

The name of *Lappe* was given to the Laplanders by the Swedes, and is of uncertain derivation. Some say that it signifies exiles or fugitives, because they are of the race of the Fins driven out of their own country; others, that it signifies sorcerers. The Laplanders call themselves *Same*, and their country *Same-ednam*; whence it has been conjectured that they are of the race of the Samoleds.

Extent.—Lapland, taken in the aggregate, extends from 64 to 71 degrees of northern latitude, and from 15 to 40 degrees of eastern longitude, and contains about 120,000 square miles. Both the southern and northern parts appertain to Sweden. The eastern extremity belongs to Russia.

Mountains — Lakes — Rivers. — Lapland contains many mountains, but none with which we are sufficiently acquainted to notice them particularly. The principal rivers are the Tornea, the Tana, and the Alten. The Tornea springs from the lake of the same name, and, after a course of 300 miles, falls into the Gulf of Bothnia. The Tana and Alten fall into the Frozen Ocean. The lakes in Lapland are numerous; the Great Lake, Tornea, Lulea, and Enara, are the chief.

Minerals—Metals.—Lapland abounds in *metals and minerals of every* kind. Native gold has been found at Svappawara; copper, iron, lead, zinc, and plumbago, or black-lead, are found in various parts; and in the southern districts are mines worked by the Swedes. Limestone, marble, gypsum, rock-crystal, jasper, amethysts, and garnets, are also among the mineral productions of this country.

Climate—Soil—Vegetable Productions. —The winter in Lapland is extremely severe. In the most northern part the sun remains below the horizon from the 20th of November to the 10th of January: from the beginning of September to the middle of March the whole country is covered with snow and ice; and in the depth of winter the lakes and rivers are generally frozen to a great depth. In summer, on the other hand, the sun continues in like manner two months above the horizon; and, in the valleys and plains, the heat is excessive. Innumerable insects are produced, and the inhabitants are infested with mosquitoes to an intolerable degree.

With respect to the soil and vegetable productions of Lapland, the whole country is an immense wilderness, where agriculture is rarely practised, except in very few parts in the south, in which corn, principally rye and buckwheat, is cultivated. In the north, tracts of considerable extent are overgrown with moss, which is the principal food of the reindeer. The trees are the fir, birch, larch, and small beech, which form vast but not very thick forests.

Animals.—The animals are nearly the same with those described in the account of Norway; but Lapland more peculiarly claims the reindeer. This very useful quadruped, which seems to have been provided by Nature to recompense the Laplanders for their privation of the other

forts of life, resembles the stag, except that roops the head, and the horns project. In mmer the reindeer provide themselves with ves and grass, and in the winter they live on moss, which they have a wonderful sagay at finding, and, when found, scrape away e snow that covers it with their feet. The ntiness of their fare is inconceivable, as is length of the journey which they can perm without any other support. In a kind of dge, shaped like a small boat, the traveller, ll secured from cold, is laced down, having reins, which are fastened to the horns of the er, in one hand, and a kind of bludgeon in the ner, to keep the carriage clear of ice and snow. e deer, harnessed in a very simple manner, d fixed to the sledge, sets out, and continues journey, with prodigious speed; and is so and tractable, that the driver has little ible in directing him. At night these animals out for their own provender; and their k often contributes to support their master. ir instinct in choosing their road, and directtheir course, can only be accounted for by r being well acquainted with the country ing the summer months, when they live in woods. Their flesh is well tasted food, whe- fresh or dried; their skins form excellent hing both for the bed and the body; their milk cheese are nutritive and pleasant; and their ntines and tendons supply their masters h thread and cordage. When they run about d in the fields, they may be shot at as other me. But, if one be killed in a flock, the survon, it is said, will gore and trample him to ses; therefore single stragglers are generally oses. With all their excellent qualities, however, the reindeer have their inconveniences. It difficult in summer to keep them from straging; they are sometimes buried in the snow; d they frequently grow restive, to the great ager of the driver and his carriage. Their eed is scarcely credible; for they are said to e at the rate of 200 miles in a day. None but Laplander could bear the uneasy posture in ich he is placed, when he is confined in one these carriages or pulkhas; or would believe at the reindeer could learn, from a whisper, e place of his destination.

POPULATION — INHABITANTS — MANNERS— TIONS.—Lapland is very thinly peopled. ssian Lapland scarcely contains 6000 perns, and the population of the whole of this tensive region is supposed to be not more an 40,000, or one person to about three square les.

Both men and women are in general considably shorter than more southern Europeans. Linnæus measured a woman who was sucking her child, whose height did not exceed four t two inches and a half. The Laplander is a swarthy and dark complexion; his hair is ck and short, his mouth wide, and his cheeks hollow, with a chin somewhat long and inted. The women are complaisant, chaste, d industrious. It *would not be readily sup-*posed that their nerves are weak; but it is said that they are as ready to faint at the smallest shock of apprehension or surprise, as the most sensitive or delicate lady in a region of refined civilization.

Agriculture is not much attended to among the Laplanders. They are chiefly divided into fishers and mountaineers. The former always make their habitations in the neighbourhood of some lake, from which they draw their subsistence. The others seek their support upon the mountains and their environs, possessing herds of reindeer more or less numerous, which they use according to the season, but go generally on foot. They are excellent and very industrious herdsmen, and are rich in comparison with the fishers. Some of them possess 600 or 1000 reindeer, and have often money and plate beside. The fishers are also hunters, and choose their situation by its convenience for either purpose. They are active and expert in the chase; and the introduction of fire-arms among them has almost entirely abolished the use of the bow and arrow. Beside looking after the reindeer, the fishery, and the chase, the men employ themselves in the construction of their canoes, which are small, light, and compact. They also make sledges, harness for the reindeer, cups, bowls, and various other utensils, which are sometimes neatly carved, and sometimes ornamented with bones, brass, or horn. The women are employed in making nets for the fishery, in drying fish and meat, milking the reindeer, making cheese, and tanning hides; but it is understood to be the business of the men to look after the kitchen.

The Laplanders live in huts in the form of tents. A hut is from about 25 to 30 feet in diameter, and not much above 6 feet in height. They cover them, according to the season and the means of the possessor, some with briers, bark of birch or of linden—others with turf, coarse cloth, or felt, or the old skins of reindeer. The door is of felt, made like two curtains which open asunder. A little place, surrounded with stones, is made in the middle of the hut for the fire, over which a chain is suspended to hang the kettle upon. They are scarcely able to stand upright in their huts, but constantly sit upon their heels round the fire. At night they lie down quite naked; and, to separate the apartments, place upright sticks at small distances. They cover themselves with their clothes, or lie upon them. In winter they put their naked feet into a fur bag. Their household furniture consists of iron or copper kettles, wooden cups, bowls, spoons, and sometimes tin or even silver basins; to which may be added the implements of fishing and hunting. That they may not be obliged to carry such a number of things with them in their excursions, they build in the forests, at certain distances, little huts, made like pigeon-houses, and placed upon the trunk of a tree, cut off at the height of about six feet from the root. In these elevated *huts they keep* their goods and provisions; and,

though they are never shut, they are never plundered. The reindeer supply the Laplanders with the greatest part of their provisions: the chase and the fishery supply the rest. Their principal dishes are the flesh of the reindeer, and puddings which they make of the blood, by putting it, either alone or mixed with wild berries, into the stomach of the animal from whom it was taken, in which they cook it for food. But the flesh of the bear is considered by them as their most delicate meat. They eat every kind of fish, even the sea-dog; as well as all kinds of wild animals. Their common bread is made of barley and chaff; and sometimes they make cakes of the inner bark of the fir-tree, and of the root of the water-dragon. They are fond of the *angelica sylvestris*, and of the sow-thistle, which has a milky stem. Their winter provisions consist chiefly of flesh and fish dried in the open air, both of which they eat raw, without any sort of dressing. Their common drink is water, sometimes mixed with milk. They make also broths, and fish-soups. Brandy is very scarce with them; but they are extremely fond of it. Whenever they are inclined to eat, the head of the family spreads a carpet on the ground; and the men and women squat round this mat, which is covered with dishes. Every Laplander always carries about him a knife, a spoon, and a little cup for drinking. Each has his portion separately given him, that no person may be injured; for they are great eaters. Before and after the meal they make a short prayer; and, as soon as they have done eating, each gives the other his hand.

The maritime Laplanders, and a great part of those in Kemi Lappmark, live principally by fishing. They have few reindeer, but generally ten or a dozen sheep. In summer, they subsist on fish from the lakes, and drink, as a luxurious draught, the water in which they have been boiled. In winter, their diet consists of dried fish, and soups made of water, fir-bark, and reindeer tallow, with a little ewe milk, and a few mountain brambleberries. In the lakes and larger rivers, they take the salmon by means of nets, or by striking with the spear. The latter mode is practised chiefly during the night, by means of lights or fires, and the scene is singularly picturesque. On the front of the boat is an iron basket or grate, fastened to the end of a long crooked stick, so that the burning wood which it contains stands far above the boat. Immediately behind the fire stands the fisher with his trident, which is a long spear, with five or six strong barbed points; and behind him sits the pilot, who moves the boat along with gentle and imperceptible strokes. The salmon is attracted by the blaze of the fire, and, raising himself slowly to the surface of the water, comes within reach of the spear. The silence of the moving boats, the crossing of the fires as they advance in different directions, the immoveable figures of the fishers hanging forward over the prow in readiness for the blow, and the sudden animation imparted to these seeming statues when the salmon is struck, render these fishing scenes peculiarly interesting to the eye of a spectator.

The dexterity with which the Laplanders guide their boats down the most rapid falls in the rivers, is not less remarkable, and presents a spectacle as sublime as the last-mentioned is beautiful. Baron Von Buch thus describes his passage through the fall of Elanpaika, below Muonianiska. "I heard the noise of the fall long before we approached it, while the river still glided on smoothly. Then followed several falls, which were not high nor long, but the stream became rough and agitated. Rocks began now to rise along both sides, and points to appear above the surface. The agitated water pressed through between the closely approaching rocks. The waves began to rear themselves up, to foam, and dash over. They drove the boat with incredible rapidity down the abyss; they dash over in the most wild and alarming commotion; the sky, rocks, and woods, all disappear; and nothing is seen or heard but the foam and roaring of the water. The wave dashes the boat with one sweep against the rock; but the bold pilot guides it with a strong and steady hand with still greater rapidity than the wave, as if in sport, from one side to the other, and the next moment it is again floating on the long agitated current. The two men in the fore part of the boat have a most frightful appearance. Their fixed look, their eyes, which seem to start from their sockets, endeavour to read every thought of the pilot, whether they ought to row in the fall more rapidly or more slowly. Their own preservation depends on their correct understanding of the thoughts of the pilot. Every muscle is stretched in the highest degree, and the arms only are in motion." The boats are as strong as sea-boats, and their huge helms seem made for large ships. In this way the natives proceed down to Tornea with large burdens of butter, tea, fish, and hides; and drag the boat with incredible labour along the bank, when they come to the fall in ascending the stream.

In their dress the Laplanders use no kind of linen. The men wear close breeches, reaching down to their shoes, which are made of untanned skin, pointed and turned up before; and in winter they put a little hay into them. A doublet is made to fit their shapes, and open at the breast. Over this they wear a close coat with narrow sleeves, the skirts of which reach down to the knees, and which is fastened round them by a leathern girdle, ornamented with plates of tin or brass. To this girdle they tie their knives, their instruments for making fire, their pipes, and the rest of their smoking apparatus. Their clothes are made of fur, leather, or cloth; the close coat, of cloth or leather, always bordered with fur, or bindings of cloth of different colours. Their caps are edged with fur, pointed at the top, and the four seams adorned with list of a different colour from that of the cap. The women wear breeches, shoes,

close coats, in the same manner
ut their girdles, at which they
the implements for smoking
ommonly embroidered with brass
these, they wear handkerchiefs,
as made of painted cloth, rings
s, and ear-rings, to which they
g chains of silver, which pass
mes round the neck. They are
n caps folded after the manner
ey wear also caps fitted to the
head; and, as they are much
ery, they are all ornamented
oidery of brass wire, or at least
erent colours.

is not permitted to marry before
te and kill a reindeer. When he
d, and has chosen a female to
es to make proposals, he com-
desire to his own family, who
a body to the dwelling of the
girl, taking with them a quantity
nk on the occasion, and a slight
young woman; for instance, a
ted with silver, a ring, or some-
e kind. When they come to the
in which she lives, the principal
ers first, followed by the rest of
e suitor remaining in the open
r fills out a bumper of brandy,
s to the girl's father, who, if he
s thereby that he approves the
. The brandy is handed round,
girl's father and mother, and her
ds, but likewise to the intended
the course of this compotation,
d for the young man to forward
own person. The orator then, in
makes a beginning; and in this
courtship the lover is himself
t takes his seat at a distance
placing himself near the door.
the girl at length signify their
the match, the suitor offers the
esent he has brought with him,
edding-clothes to the father and
parents, after having thus given
depart from their word, it is an
v amongst the Laplanders that
s incurred must be made good,
ndy drunk at the first visit. The
thus betrothed, the young man
visit his mistress from time to
day of the nuptials the bride
d in her gala habit, with this
t, whereas her head is closely
er times, on this occasion her
w loose upon her shoulders, and
ndeau of variegated stuffs, and
let. Such of the guests as are
the bride a present of money,
ething toward a stock.

ers entertain a strong aversion
as never been found practicable
to convert them into soldiers; but this is rather to be attributed to their habits of life, which disqualify them for military discipline, as they will brave the fury of the tempestuous ocean with astonishing intrepidity, and skait without fear along the edges of tremendous precipices.

Language.—The language of Lapland appears to have an affinity to the Finnish, with an intermixture of some words evidently of Gothic origin, derived from a frequent intercourse with the Danes and Swedes. The Lord's Prayer, in this tongue, is as follows:—

"Atki mijam juco lee almensisne. Ailis ziaddai tu nam: zweigubatta tu ryki: ziaddus tu willio naukuchte almesne nau ei edna mannal: wadde mijai udni mijan fært pæfwen laibebm: jah andagasloite mi jemijan suddoid naukuchte mije andagasloitebt kudi mije welgogas lien: jah sissalaidi mijabni: æle tocko kæckzællebma pahast. Amen."

Religion.—The Laplanders have been induced by the persuasions of missionaries to profess Christianity; but this does not prevent many of them from sacrificing to the gods of their forefathers, and practising their ancient superstitions. The principal instrument of their magical rites, to which they are still, but not universally addicted, is the Runic drum, which is a box of an oval shape, covered at one end with a skin, and furnished on the other with several strings and pieces of iron to rattle and make a noise: strange figures, intended to represent the heavenly bodies, beasts, and birds, with many other characters, are drawn on the skin. The magician puts a ring upon his drum, and beats on it with his drumstick, which is made of the horn of the reindeer; and, according to the figure on which the vibration of the skin causes the ring to fall, he answers all questions concerning former or future events. At the same time he invokes the spirits to assist his drum; and, in the course of this mummery, falls into a fit, during which his soul is supposed to be with the spirits of the air, hearing their converse and learning the decrees of Heaven. Families in general possess such a drum, which the Laplander consults before he commences a journey, and which is his guide and director on all common occasions; but, in affairs of greater moment, he applies to the magicians. These drums are preserved with great care and secrecy, and are hidden except when they are used. Women dare not approach the place where a sacred drum is concealed.

Trade.—The Laplanders carry on some trade with the Swedes and Norwegians, by supplying them with the skins and furs of quadrupeds; such as ermines, sables, squirrels, foxes, bears, lynxes, and wolves. In return they receive meal, cloth, various utensils, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. As the furs are of extreme fineness, and bear a high price, the balance of this trade is much in favour of the Laplanders.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Russia derives its name from the *Russi* or *Rossi*, a Sclavonic tribe, the first known possessors of the country. It has been frequently denominated Moscovy, from Moscow, the ancient capital.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1600 / Breadth, 1000	between	44. and 72. North lat. / 21. and 60. East long.

Containing about 1,000,000 square miles, with nearly 51 inhabitants to each.

EXTENT AND SITUATION OF THE WHOLE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 6750 / Breadth, 2320	between	21. and 190. East, or 120. West long. / 44. and 78. North lat.

Boundaries—Divisions.—Russia in Europe is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the east by the river Cara, the Uralian mountains, and the Volga; on the south by the Black Sea and Turkey; and on the west by Prussia, the Baltic Sea, and Sweden.

The whole of European Russia is divided into the following governments:—*Northern Provinces.*—Arkhangel, Olonetz, Vologda. *Great Russia.*—St. Petersburg, Novogorod, Pskoff, Smolensk, Moscow, Tver, Yaroslaff, Kostroma, Nishnei Novogorod, Vladimir, Riazan, Tamboff, Tula, Kaluga, Orel, Kursk. *Baltic Provinces.*—Esthonia, Livonia, Courland. *White Russia.*—Vitepsk, Mohiloff, Minsk. *Lithuanian Provinces.*—Vilna, Grodno, Bielostok. *Little Russia.*—Volhynia, Podolia, Kieff, Tschernigoff, Poltova, Kharkoff, Voronetz, Don Cossacks. *New Russia* (including the cities of Taganrog, Marienpol, Rostoff, Nakhitschevan and Azoff.)—Catherinoslaff, Kherson, with the city of Odessa, Taurida, with the city of Kertsch, Bessarabia. *Provinces on the banks of the Volga and Caspian.*—Casan, Penza, Simbirsk, Saratoff, Astracan, Caucasian provinces, and Black Sea Cossacks. *Provinces along the Uralian chain.*—Orenburg, Perm, Viatka. *Grand duchy of Finland.*—Nyland, Abo Biorneborg, Tavasthuus, Viborg, Kuopio, St. Michael, Vara, Uleaborg. Poland forms a separate article. The governments generally derive their name from the chief town or city.

Mountains—Lakes—Rivers—Canals.—Russia is in general a level country; but between Petersburg and Moscow are the high grounds called the Valday Mountains, though the highest is only 350 yards above the surface of the sea. Between the lakes Ladoga and Onega is the chain of Olonetz, which runs in a direction almost due north for a great extent. The vast Uralian chain, which divides European from Asiatic Russia, extends from about the 50th to nearly the 67th degree of N. lat. or more than *1000 English miles.* The Russians call this range *Lemnoipoijas*, the Girdle o *Ural* also is a Tartarian word sign or girdle. These mountains are be the *Montes Hyperborei* or *R* ancients.

The principal lakes in Europe: the Onega, in the government of C 150 miles in length by 30 in brea Ladoga, in the government of Vy between the lake Onega and the land, 130 miles in length by 70 in b the largest lake in Europe; the P divides the governments of Pe Riga, about 60 miles in length and the Ilmen, on which stands the gorod; and the Bielozersk, or W called because it has a bottom The most considerable river i running east and south, which, a course of 1700 English miles, Caspian Sea. This is the largest rope, and it is remarkable, that in there is not a single cataract to navigation. As it approaches t it divides itself into a greater nu than any known river; there bei 70. By means of this noble strea butaries, the city of Moscow mai munication, not only with all the s of Russia, but even with Persia, tary, and other countries borderi pian Sea. The Don, or Tanais, di eastern part of Russia from Asia, a itself into the sea of Asof, about 4 its rise. The Borysthenes, or D is likewise one of the largest rive runs through Lithuania, the cc Zaporog Cossacks, and that of the tars, and falls into the Euxine at Ockakof: it has 13 cataracts w distance. To these may be add which empties itself at Riga, in the Dwina, which has its source tiaga, and, dividing itself into t near Archangel, there falls into t and the Neva, which issues from doga, and falls into the Gulf of F Petersburg.

Though the plan of Peter I., Volga and the Don by a canal, execution, a communication betv and Petersburg is effected by Vishnei Voloshok, which unites and the Shlina. The canal of I runs along the edge of that la Volkof to the Neva, extending 67 miles, and communicating wit Vishnei Voloshok and the two c hivine and Maria. Two canals Kubensk and the North, open a co between the White Sea, the Ca

ng. Other canals, some of considerable magnitude, connect the great rivers. Another has been cut from Moscow to the Volga; and arrangements have been made for connecting this with the

s—Minerals.—The principal mines Asian empire are in Siberia; but there of copper and iron in the European , in one of the mountains of Olonetz, ine was discovered in 1739; but it ly 57 pounds of gold in the year. In Uralian mountains, a mine was found year 1803, and others have since been l, from which a considerable quantity s been obtained.

s—Soil—Agriculture.—The seve- climate, in Russia properly so called, est. At St. Petersburg, the cold, months of December, January, and is usually from 40 to 52 degrees be- zing point. When a person walks severe weather, the cold makes the and that water, freezing, hangs in the eye-lashes. As the peasants ir their beards, icicles are frequently ng to their chins like a lump of ice. though a hardy species of bird, have quite numbed by the intense cold, to fly; and drivers, when sitting on d carriages, have sometimes been n to death in that posture. Boiling rn up into the air by an engine, so ad, has fallen down perfectly dry, ice. A bottle of strong ale has been n hour and a half; but in this sub- re was about a teacupful in the rozen, which was as strong and in- as brandy or spirits of wine. Not- ng this severity of cold, the inha- e such various means and provisions ainst it, that they suffer much less n might be expected. The houses in tolerable circumstances are so ted, both without doors and within, re seldom heard to complain of cold. d of warming the houses in Russia, ven constructed with several flues; can regulate the warmth in their s by a thermometer, with great ex- ening or shutting the flues to in- minish the heat. When the Russians ey are clothed so warmly, that they defiance to the rigours of the season. antage which the Russians derive everity of their climate, is the pre- provisions by the frost. Good house- on as the frost sets in for the winter, oultry, and keep them in tubs packed yer of snow between them, and then out for use as occasion requires; by ns they save the nourishment of the several months. Veal frozen at and brought to St. Petersburg, is he finest they have; nor can it be ed from that *which has been recently* killed, being equally juicy. The markets in St. Petersburg are thus supplied in winter with a variety of provisions, at a cheaper rate than would otherwise be possible. The great "winter market" at St. Petersburg is a curious spectacle. "A southern European," says a writer, "is struck with astonishment to see rising, in the midst of an immense square, enormous pyramids, formed of the bodies of animals heaped upon each other. Here, are oxen, sheep, hogs, fowls; there, butter, eggs, fish, in short, all kinds of provisions. Cold has rendered the whole of these objects as hard as stones. The fish have still all the brilliancy of their natural colours; they might almost be thought alive. But the other animals offer a sight which may almost be called frightful. There they are, in thousands, all skinned, ranged side by side, standing on their hind paws, as if they were going to climb over each other. Their hardness is extreme; a hatchet is used to cut them, and the splinters fly about, as though it were wood that was being chopped." The method of thawing frozen provisions in Russia, is by immerging them in cold water; for, when the operation of thawing is effected by heat, it seems to occasion a violent fermentation, and almost a sudden putrefaction; but, when produced by cold water, the ice seems to be attracted out of the body, and forms a transparent incrustation round it.

The seasons, in that part of Russia which is beyond the 55th degree of latitude, can scarcely be said to be more than two, as the spring and autumn are very short and transient. That which is called the spring resembles the temperature of an English winter; and some portions of the summer, as in Sweden, are oppressively hot.

The effect of the breaking up of the frost has been described with infinite pleasantry and graphic skill. The scene is laid at Revel, in Esthonia; but the picture is of general application. "I have had the opportunity of witnessing the revolution of thaw both in country and town. In the former it is sublime, in the latter ridiculous. It must be remembered that the towns here, like the state of society, have no drains. Therefore the Dome, which, from its natural position, offers the utmost facility for drainage, here simply pours its tribute of dirty ice-water with a kind of stepmother love into the town below. For several days the householders contemplate, with perfect equanimity, the spectacle of the Douglesberg and Domberg, one stream of running water, while deep puddles of a black, merging into an orange hue, settle at the foundations of their houses, particularly embosoming the house door, and ooze into their cellar grates. Choice of footing there is none, and gentlemen turn up their trowsers, and ladies tuck up their petticoats, and, in lieu of these, drabble the corners of their cloaks, and the tails of their boas, and go about stepping from Scylla to Charybdis, and complain that their houses are damp. And if two bosom friends chance to *start on opposite* sides of the street, there they

must remain, were their hearts to break. With gentlemen no such dilemma exists, they being just as cordial on bad roads as on good ones. And now the sun darts a fiercer ray, and the thaw increases, and the roofs bring their tribute, and pour and patter down upon seal-skin caps, or pink satin bonnets, or into baskets of white bread, or hot *brei* puddings; and, these being passed, bore deep holes in the yet unmelted ice pavement, and lay bare the rough old stones beneath; and then little puddles join their force to great puddles; and the Domberg stream widens and deepens, and goes babbling along as if delighted with the novelty. At length the aristocratic count, who all this time has sat up stairs in his dressing-gown, smoking his long pipe, not supposed, in the nobility of his heart, to know what the vulgar elements are about, issues from his house door, delightfully situated on the very margin of the new stream, himself dressed *à quatre épingles*, and fully bent upon calling on the governor. At the first step he flounders above his calosheshes—looking bewildered about him, he catches the eye of an elderly maiden lady at her window opposite—courteously takes off his hat, and down comes a volley of drops on his bare head. This comes of a man's walking, whose ancestral papers are falling to pieces with mere age; so he recrosses his threshold, not knowing exactly who or what to find fault with, orders his carriage and four to take him a hundred yards, and sends out a couple of man-servants to cut a channel as far as his boundary extends. And the water follows their strokes, and splashes them to the ears, and runs merrily past the count's house, to spread itself in a fertilizing stream over the market-place. Here again it enjoys perfect liberty of conscience, undermining every last morsel of firm ice, filling the cellars with a dirty mixture, and the houses with a dirty smell; while all the filth of the preceding autumn—all the various *souvenirs* which a merciful winter had rendered innoxious both to eye and nose, now assault both organs, and go swimming about, and doubtless take refuge in the cellars also. Then, one after another, the householders, zealous to shut the door after the steed is stolen, cut drains before their houses, and the streets and *places* of the Dom are divided into patchwork canals; and old *coya mutters*, or portresses, assist all remote puddles with worn-out brooms, and the whole collection sooner or later finds its way to the town beneath, where we forbear to follow it. Such is the history of a town thaw—but the apotheosis of the country is very different. Here the soft hand of spring imperceptibly withdraws the bolts and bars of winter, while the earth, like a drowsy child 'twixt sleeping and waking, flings off one wrapper after another, and opes its heavy lids in showers of sweet rivulets. And the snow disappears, and the brown earth peeps almost dry from beneath; and you wonder where all the mountains of moisture are gone. But wait;—the rivers are still locked, *and, though a strong current* is pouring on their surface, yet, from the high bridge, the green ice is still seen deep below, firm as a rock—and dogs go splashing over in the old track, and peasants with their horses venture long after it seems prudent. At length a sound like distant thunder, or the crashing of a forest, meets your ear, and the words, '*Der eisgang, Der eisgang*' pass from each mouth, and those who would witness the northern scene hurry out to the old stone bridge, and are obliged to take a circuitous route, for the waters have risen ankle deep—and then another crash, and you double your pace, regardless of wet feet, and are startled at the change which a few hours have produced. On the one side, close besetting the bridge, and high up the banks, lies a field of ice, lifting the waters before it, and spreading them over the country; while huge masses flounder and swing against one another with loud reports, and heave up their green transparent edges, full six feet thick, with a majestic motion; and all these press heavily upon the bridge, which trembles at every stroke, and stands like a living thing labouring and gasping for breath through the small apertures of the almost choked arches. On the other side the river is free from ice, and a furious stream, as if all the imprisoned waters of Russia were let loose, is dashing down, bearing with it some huge leviathan of semi-transparent crystal, and curdling its waters about it, till this again is stopped by another field of ice lower down. The waters were rising every minute—night was approaching, and the beautiful old bridge gave us great alarm, when a party of peasants, fresh from their supper at the *kof*, and cheered with brandy, arrived to relieve it. Each was armed with a long pole with an iron point, and, flying down the piles and on to the ice itself, began hacking at the sides of the foremost monster, till, impelled by the current beneath, it could fit and grind itself through the bridge, and gallop down to thunder against its comrades below. The men were utterly fearless, giving a keen sense of adventure to their dangerous task, which rivetted us to the spot; some of the most daring standing and leaning with their whole weight over the bed of the torrent, upon the very mass they were hewing off, till the slow swing which preceded the final plunge made them fly to the piles for safety. Some fragments were doubly hard with embedded stones and pieces of timber, and no sooner was one enemy despatched than another succeeded; and although bodies of men continued relieving each other all night, the bridge sustained such damage as could not be repaired. All was over in twelve hours, but meanwhile the waters 'prevailed exceedingly upon the earth,' and every hill and building stood insulated."

A diversity of soil necessarily results from the great extent of the empire. The most fertile land, perhaps, is that which is situated between the Don and the Volga. In other parts, likewise, ample supplies of corn might be procured, if the Russians would pay greater attention to agriculture than they have hitherto

to bestow upon it. Yet it cer-
nch neglected as some visitants
are pretended. In the middle
istricts it is carried on with
l the returns are abundant and

ODUCTIONS—ANIMALS.—Many
are found in Russia. Those in
consist of pines: in other parts,
rch, alder, and maple, are more
the oak, horn-beam, ash, and
with great luxuriance. Wheat,
d rye, are cultivated with suc-
he south, and millet in almost
l crops are afforded: the hop
-plant prosper in the southern
n the Crimea or Taurida, the
ine has been prosecuted with
hards abound in many parts;
not supply the nation with a
dit, it is because luxury requires

f the northern parts of Russia
differ from those of Denmark
he lynx, famous for its piercing
of this empire; it makes prey of
t can master, and is said to be
in the fir-tree forests. Hyænas,
asels, and sables, afford their
; the inhabitants; and those of
d ermine are more valuable in
ewhere. The dromedary and
nerly almost the only beasts of
in many parts of Russia. Peter
raged a breed of large horses
riages; but those employed in
rposes of life are small, as are
eep.

Russia are similar to those of
rway. The same may be said of
at the Russians are better pro-
neighbours with sturgeon, cod,
luga. Of the roe of the stur-
celuga they make the famous
a esteemed for its richness and

, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.—
class the thirteen cataracts of
y be enumerated, and also other
government of Olonetz. The
several miles in extent, and sur-
which float in the ocean to the
a, may likewise be reckoned
ral curiosities of this country;
rtificial may be commemorated
ice which the empress Anne
lit on the bank of the Neva, in
ce, constructed of square blocks
the manner of free-stone, was
, 16 in breadth, and 20 in height;
3 feet thick. In the several
e tables, chairs, beds, and all
old furniture, of ice. In the
ce, beside pyramids and statues,
ns, carrying balls of six *pounds*
mortars, of ice. From one of

the former, as a trial, an iron ball, with only a quarter of a pound of powder, was fired off: the ball went through a two-inch board at sixty paces from the mouth of the cannon, and the piece of ice artillery, with its carriage, remained uninjured by the explosion. The illumination of the ice-palace at night, had an astonishingly grand effect. This curious structure remained entire for two months, and then began to melt away.

The great bell of Moscow, belonging to the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary, at Moscow, may be termed an artificial curiosity. It was cast in 1734, by the command of the empress Anne. It weighs 360,000 pounds: its height is 21 feet, its circumference at the bottom 21 yards 11 inches, its greatest thickness 23 inches: the clapper is 14 feet long.

POPULATION.—It is stated that, in 1772, all the Russian dominions contained only 14,000,000 of inhabitants. In 1818, they had increased to 45,500,000; and in 1838, the number had swelled to about 50,750,000 in Europe, exclusive of Poland.

NATIONAL CHARACTER—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—The Russians, properly so called, are in general a well-looking people, hardy, vigorous, and patient of labour. Their complexions differ little from those of the English or Scots; but the women think that an addition of red heightens their beauty, and paint seems to be as necessary an article in the dress of a Russian lady, as linen. Their eye-sight seems to be defective, in consequence, probably, of the snow, which for the greater part of the year is continually present to their eyes. The officers and soldiers always possessed a large share of passive valour, and, in several of the late wars, have shown themselves as active as any troops in Europe. They are implicitly submissive to discipline, endure extreme hardships with great patience, and can content themselves with wretched fare.

The nobles, in their mode of living, unite Asiatic pomp with an imitation of European refinement. They indulge in every luxury which opulence places within their reach, and domineer like sovereigns, over large households. In the capital, 30 or 40 resident slaves will content their pride; but, in the country, some have 500 or 600 connected with their mansions, in imitation of the practice which prevailed among the Romans, many of whom employed slaves in every branch of art or manufacture. The emperor Alexander generously encouraged the emancipation of these degraded beings; and it is an increasing custom for the great proprietors of men to exact an annual rent from their vassals, and permit them to earn money by any kind of labour or business which they may prefer. Many of the nobles have released their slaves from all claims, and have thus entitled themselves to the highest respect and gratitude. The impolicy as well as the *brutality of the* serf system is strikingly manifested in Russia. The slave who must weekly

give up three days' labour to his lord, of course works as little as he can. "A Russian nobleman," says Mr. Stephens, "told me that he believed, if the serfs were all free, he could cultivate his estate to better advantage by paid labour; and I have no doubt that a dozen Connecticut men would cultivate more ground than a hundred Russian serfs, allowing their usual non-working days and holidays. They have no interest in the soil, and the desolate and uncultivated wastes of Russia show the truth of the judicious reflection of Catharine II., that 'agriculture can never flourish in the nation whose husbandmen possess no property.'"

"The Russians, of the higher and middle classes," says Dr. Lyall, "are insinuating and cunning, deceitful and perfidious, sensual and immoral, given to levity, fond of novelty, and improvident. With the command of little money, they are avaricious and mean; when cash abounds, they are generous, ostentatious, and prodigal. They are cheerful, good-humoured, and social; luxurious, hospitable, and charitable; they love light occupations and amusements, but, above all, playing at cards. They have a great curiosity to pry into the affairs of others; they have quick apprehensions; their talents for imitation are universally allowed; they are fluent in languages; a few are endowed with good parts and ingenuity, and are men of literature; the generality are moderately well informed and accomplished, as to what regards the exterior of life, while few are distinguished for their proficiency in the sciences. They are accustomed to good living, but are generally moderate in their cups. They are disposed to indolence, to a sedentary mode of life, and to much sleep; yet, when urged by affairs or necessity, they are exceedingly active, and withstand extraordinary hardships and fatigues." It may be added, that theft is so common in almost all classes in Russia, as scarcely to be thought disgraceful; that corruption and venality pervades every department of the state; and that to decency no regard whatever is paid.

The same author speaks unfavourably of the beauty and morals of the Russian ladies. He allows that their manners are easy and agreeable; but beautiful faces and elegant figures are, he says, rare among them, and they are not remarkable for chastity.

The higher clergy are respectable men; but the inferior ecclesiastics are, in general, ignorant and dissolute, and are treated with contempt by the gentry. The peasants are shrewd, lively, and active; fond of drinking, and pleased with the song and the dance. Beside those amusements, which likewise belong to almost every nation, the use of the swing is a common diversion. The ice-hills also afford great amusement. A scaffold, about 30 feet high, is erected on some river; on one side of it are steps for ascending to the platform on the top; on the opposite side, a steep inclined plane descends to the river, supported by strong poles, and protected at the sides by a parapet of planks. Large square blocks of ice are laid upon the plane, and consolidated by water thrown over them. Each person, provided with a small sledge, mounts the steps, and glides with great rapidity down the plane, poising the sledge as he goes down. Summer-hills, in imitation of the ice-hills, are formed of a lofty scaffold with an inclined plane, protected by boughs, a narrow four-wheeled cart being used instead of the sledge.

There is one custom more general in Russia than in any other country; that is, the use of the warm and vapour bath. This practice is found to be healthful; and, although its frequency might be supposed to relax the frame, it does not appear to have that effect. In almost every village this passion is indulged, being at once subservient to cleanliness and to luxury.

The mode of travelling in Russia is remarkable. In sledges of rude construction, drawn by small strong horses, long journeys are performed over the frozen snow, with great ease and rapidity; and sometimes a kind of coach is placed on the sledge, in which the convenience of repose is mingled with the advantage of motion. Travelling is rendered less easy in the summer, by the badness of the roads, which, in many parts, are formed of trees thrown across the earth, or ill-contrived wooden platforms.

The nobility, and almost all the people of quality, dress either in the French or the German fashion; and the ladies, even in the remotest parts of the country, appear most modishly attired than would easily be imagined. The peasants, burghers, and most of the mercantile class, still adhere to the national dress. They let their beards grow, which are commonly long and bushy; their hair is cut and combed. They wear a short shirt without any sort of collar, and loose trowsers, over which the shirt usually hangs, girt round the waist with a string. Over the shirt they wear a short breast-cloth, or vest, furnished with buttons, and a coat girt about with a sash that passes twice round the body. The covering for the head is either a flat fur cap, with a narrow rim, or a cap which forms a bag of a span in depth, in which they keep the handkerchief on the head. Leg-wrappers are worn instead of stockings, especially by the lower class of people; these are tied about their feet and legs with packthread, so as to make them look very thick. The women wear a *sarapken*, or vest without sleeves, which is close about the neck, and sits tight to the body down to the hips: from the hips it spreads without gathers, and reaches down to the shoes. On the facing it is garnished with a thick row of little buttons, from the top to the very bottom: it is also girt with a sash, from which the keys in ordinary use are suspended. The girls in general wear their hair uncovered more than the women: the former dispose it in three

ribbons and beads tied to the points
n some provinces they wear a band
orehead, decorated with pearls and
rious colours; in others they wear
orm of an upright crescent. In the
Moscow, and in several of the neigh-
ernments, the cap has a stiff flap
a jockey-cap, and is adorned with
tering stones.

o the humbler regions of a noble-
on, in one of the Baltic provinces,
onia, will give some idea of the
onomy of such establishments.
ng a review of the dwelling-rooms
s, all spacious and airy, and want-
ave that most desirable of all bed-
ites, privacy, our hostess," says
, "led the way to her *schafferei*,
n, and, unlocking the door with a
nity of manner, ushered me into
easury of household goods. The
ery warehouse, hung round, fitted
ed about, with the numerous items
eeper's economy, to which those
sume them often attach too little
nd those who have to provide them
ide by side on the floor, stood big-
es of spirit and liqueur, rolls of
, jars of pickles and preserves,
l, loaves of sugar, and bundles of
p chests around were the Moscow
go, saffron, starch, &c., &c., while
ers displayed large provisions of
pples, pears, cherries, pease, beans,
pplied as a decoction for wounds—
rfect *hortus siccus* for kitchen use.
g balls of twine and yarn, nets,
s of as many colours and sizes as
to the Virgin of Casan, tanned
oth black and white, and number-
ident treasures, while one side was
numerous partitions, where the
and spices for daintier palates,
This schafferei is the particular
the lady of the house, who, if she
ough business to transact. For
f an Esthonian *wirthschaft*, or
not confined to ordering dinner,
servants, but, like those of our
s, a few generations back, who
weighty concerns of a large coun-
, include the weaving of linen, the
ndles, the boiling of soap, brewing
c.; and, communication with dis-
ing necessarily seldom, it requires
ethought to provide, that during
nths of winter the family shall
sugar or plums, nor the many
the back settlements in the more
s of subsistence. It is true every
housekeeper to advertise her that
more home-brewed vinegar in the
me-made starch in the tub; or, if
ally wealthy, an extra assistant,
styled a *mamselle*, on whom all
res descend. After again consign-
ing this eclectic magazine to its safe solitude, we continued our walk to the housekeeper's rooms, very comfortable and warm, with three little children and half a dozen chickens sharing the brick floor; to the kitchen, where the men cooks were in active preparation round their flat stoves; and then on to the *volkstube*, or people's room, where all the lower servants, the coachmen and grooms, (here not included as house-servants,) the cow-girls and the sheep-boys, &c., all come in for their meals at stated times, and muster between twenty and thirty daily. This was a room for an artist—a black earthen floor, walls toned down to every variety of dingy reds, blacks, and yellows, with a large bulwark of a stove of a good terra-cotta colour, and earthen vessels, and wooden tubs and benches; and, in short, every implement of old-fashioned unwieldiness and picturesque form. But the chief attractions were the inmates; for, hard at work, plying their spinning-wheels, sat, either singly or in groups, about fifteen peasant girls—their many-striped petticoats, and dull blue or grey cloth jackets, their tanned locks falling over their shoulders, and deep embrowned spinning-wheels, telling well against the warm tones around them. In some the hair was of so light a hue as exactly to repeat the colour of the flax upon their spindles, and these, the housekeeper informed us in broken German, were the surest of husbands—flaxen hair being a feature which the hearts of the peasants are never known to resist. Most of these picturesque damsels were bare-footed; and one pretty yellow-haired lassie, observing that she was particularly an object of attention, let her hair fall like a veil over her stooping face, and peeped archly at us from between the waving strands. Some of them rose on being addressed, and, stooping low, coaxed us down with both hands—much as if they were trying to smooth down our dresses. This is the national salutation to their superiors, especially if there be a request to make. Further on stood a stout kitchen-girl, her jacket thrown off, and only a shift over her shoulders, kneading in a deep trough, with a strong wooden bat, the coarse bread which is called by distinction the *volksbrod*, or people's bread. The spinning-girls belong to the estate, and attend at the *hof*, or court, as the seigneur's house is termed, for so many weeks in the winter, to spin under the housekeeper's superintendence; nor do they appear very averse to this labour, for, besides the smart grooms and soft shepherds who assort with them at meal times, this volkstube is the resort of every beggar and wandering pedler, and the universal tattle-shop of the neighbourhood. The further branches of this spinning department are among the most interesting of a lady's wirthschaft. The commoner linen is woven in the cottages of the peasantry, but the more fanciful and delicate manufactures, the diaper for towels, the damask for table-linen, devolve to a regular weaver, of which each estate maintains one or more; and who sends in his book of patterns for the lady

to select grounds, centres, and borders, according to her taste. If she possess this quality in a higher degree, she may further diversify the work by sketching some flower or arabesque, which the weaver imitates with much ingenuity."

Let us now see the Esthonian peasantry in their Sunday attire, and at their Sunday devotions. "It was," says the same traveller, "our first visit to the village church, about five miles from our superb dwelling, and of which, with rare exception, the peasants are the exclusive monopolizers. Here we found the peasants' sledges standing in double rows as thick along the road as the carriages before the opera-house at a morning concert; and, entering through a dense crowd, smelling strongly of their sheep-skin habiliments, and the smoky atmosphere in which they live, we mounted a gallery to a pew reserved for the family, whence we looked down upon a platform of human heads of every variety of rich blondes and browns—blacks there were but few, and greys none at all; though of wrinkles, failing limbs, and other signs of age, there was a premature profusion. The service, which was in Esthonian, had commenced, and, after the first careless wonder with which you listen to a new language subsided, my eyes busied themselves with what was around them. The men were all on one side, their long hair, untouched by scissors since their birth, divided down the centre of the head and flowing on their shoulders; the women on the other, with high helmet-shaped caps of every variety of bright colour—their gay ribbons and bright locks streaming promiscuously from beneath; or sometimes all this lowly vanity covered with a white handkerchief, which, disposed in a band across the forehead, and falling in ample folds down the cheeks, ennobled many a homely set of features. Beauty there was but little: here and there a young rosy cheek and bright eye shot through the crowd, but the generality were plain rather than ugly. The first impression on the mind, of this dense crowd of attentive poor, was almost painful. Our Saviour's audiences were only the poor; and among the silent, listening throng, who stood, each leaning with clasped hands upon his foremost neighbour's shoulder—here and there a child held aloft above the crush of limbs, while a row of sick and decrepit beings, ugly, abject, yet venerable, lying on mattresses in every picturesque form, occupied the centre, and Hebrew-draped heads, and apostolic countenances crowded around—you missed only the divine aspect from this ready-made and most touching picture. The women were chiefly in sheep-skins or wolf-skins, with gay bands round their waists—the men in the same, or in a coarse brown cloth with rows of silver buttons down the breast. The scene was enlivened by the presence of a bride—in other words a *fiancée*, who, at the publication of her banns, has the enviable privilege of appearing before the public in every rag and ribbon which it ever entered the head of any Esthonian Madge *Wildfire to desire, being literally* loaded with all the ribbons, handkerchiefs, and petticoats, which herself or her neighbours can muster; only the outer edge of each, in the insolence of her wealth, being visible, till the bride looks like the walking pattern-book of the *hirschpiel*, or parish, and the admiring swain views at one glance both his companion and her wardrobe for life. But the head is more particularly the centre of attraction; the helmet-shaped cap on these occasions being stuck full of flowers, ribbons, scraps of tailors' cabbage, peacocks' feathers, and, in short, all the sweepings of the baron's mansion, like an overgarnished shape of *blanc mange;* while the young lady, oppressed alike by her feelings and her finery, keeps every tag in a perpetual quiver, and hardly dares to lift up her heated countenance from her pasteboard of garments. The service, to our idea, was by no means impressive; being little more than a succession of monotonous psalm-singing in a minor key, sustained by the congregation, after which the clergyman, a spare-looking gentleman, with a very long nose, and, I should be inclined to think, a very cold one—for the churches are not heated, and the thermometer kept its average of 10 degrees of Fahrenheit—delivered a sermon, leaning with Knox-like energy over the side of the pulpit, and at the full stretch of his voice; for the congregation, who otherwise were devotion itself, would not have disturbed him by a whisper, took no account of coughs, sneezes, blowing noses without the aid of pocket handkerchiefs, and other little noises, including now and then a stout squall from a baby, and as loud a hush from the mother, till the preacher's voice was sometimes drowned. The church itself was a heavy ancient building, with simply groined roof, gay bedizened altar, and whitewashed walls behung with tin urns, and armorial bearings. Before the conclusion of the sermon a contribution was levied with long pole and bag at end, as elsewhere, into which kopecks of all weights and sizes tumbled, upon which the clergyman retreated to the altar, and, facing the audience, chanted a few sentences in a high key. This was the signal for dismissal; the solid mass stirred, and broke up into hundreds of fragments—the reeking church was abandoned—each recognised his own little sledge and horse among multitudes which seemed cast in the same mould—poles stuck—rope reins entangled, and voices scolded and laughed alternately; and in five minutes the whole congregation were scouring away across the country."

The nuptial ceremonies, among the Russians of the lower class, are sufficiently remarkable to arrest our attention. When a man wishes to provide himself with a female companion for life, he goes with a friend to the house in which a young woman resides who may suit his taste, and says to her mother, "Produce your merchandise; we have money to exchange for it." The girl is brought forward; and if, on a private examination, she should not

have any personal blemishes, and
he same time be declared to possess
ealties, she is acknowledged by the
: worthy of his affection; and pre-
re made for the nuptial solemnity.
of marriage, the bride is crowned
land of wormwood; and, when the
erformed his duty, his clerk throws
f hops upon her head, wishing that
ove as fruitful as that plant. She
n formal parade into another apart-
after the consummation, an enter-
given, at which a reputed magician
h a view of repelling every sinister
other dealers in witchcraft, to the
f the new couple. The men who
testify their joy by the obstrepe-
of inebriety.

owns the obsequies of persons of
nducted in much the same manner
countries of Europe; but people of
ass still retain some peculiar cere-
fter the dead body is dressed, a
ed to pray for the soul, to purify
ith incense, and to sprinkle it with
while it remains above ground.
carried to the grave, which is done
esticulations of sorrow, the priest
ticket, signed by the bishop and
gyman, as the passport of the de-
aven. This is put into the coffin,
: fingers of the corpse; after which
y return to the house, where they
r sorrow in intoxication, which is
asionally during forty days. Within
a priest every day recites prayers
ve of the deceased; for, though the
o not believe in purgatory, they
at their departed friend may be
prayer in his long journey to the
destination after this life.

OWNS — EDIFICES. — Petersburg is
the Neva, between the lake of La-
e eastern extremity of the Gulf of
n 1703, a few fishing-huts, on a spot
that the ground was formed into
, marked the spot where now stands
ated capital, which contains every
or magnificence, the improvement
, revenue, navigation, war, com-
the like, that is to be found in the
guished and admired cities of Eu-
ia," says Mr. James, "a city of
alaces, where the residences of in-
ie with the effusions of imperial
ce, and where the buildings des-
ublic works hold a rank of ostenta-
ore striking, and are of a magnitude
ig with the mighty concerns of this
." The impression produced upon
y the first approach to this capital,
scribed by a recent accomplished
eller. "About our three hours' pas-
rsburg, I can't say much. The air
very keen, the couches below were
nd *the scene on either hand being a* mere dismal swamp, many of our party dosed most comfortably till such time as Petersburg became visible; when we all hastened on deck to take the first impressions of this capital. Behind us Cronstadt had sunk into the waters, and before us Petersburg seemed scarcely to emerge from the same, so invisible was the shallow tablet of land on which it rests. The mosque-like form of the Greek churches—the profusion of cupola and minaret—with treble domes painted blue, with silver stars, or green with gold stars, and the various gilt spires, starting at intervals from the low city, and blazing like flaming swords in the cold rays of a Russian October setting sun, gave it an air of orientalism little in accordance with the gloomy mantle of snow clouds in which all this glitter was shrouded. The loftiest and most striking object was the Isaac's church, still behung with forests of scaffolding, which, while they revealed its gigantic proportions, gave but few glimpses of its form. Altogether, I was disappointed at the first *coup d'œil* of this capital—it has a brilliant face, but wants height to set it off. The real and peculiar magnificence of Petersburg, however, consists in thus sailing apparently upon the bosom of the ocean, into a city of palaces. Herein no one can be disappointed. Granite quays of immense strength now gradually closed in upon us, bearing aloft stately buildings modelled from the Acropolis, while successive vistas of interminable streets, and canals as thickly populated, swiftly passing before us, told us plainly that we were in the midst of the northern capital ere we had set foot to ground. Here all observations were suddenly suspended by a halt in the pyroskaff, which ceased its paddles, and lay motionless in the centre of the stream."

On the right bank of the river stands the old town, in which is still seen the cottage of Peter the Great: on the left is the new town, through which three canals pass, serving, with their bridges and quays of granite, to embellish the city, and affording a vent to the inundations which are occasioned by the temporary accumulation of the waters of the gulf. Here we may observe, that an awful inundation arose, in 1824, the effects of which were felt for many years. From the admiralty, a spacious and magnificent edifice, three long and handsome streets branch out, intersected by others, in which the houses are of brick, covered with stucco. The Anitschkoff, Taurida, Marble and Grand Duke Michael palaces are admired for their architecture; and some of the churches are magnificent structures. That which was completed in 1813, after the labour of fifteen years, may be considered as the most beautiful ecclesiastical edifice that Russia can exhibit in the modern style. It is called the Cathedral of the Holy Virgin of Casan. It will be rivalled by the church of St. Isaac, the building of *which has* been carried on for many years, and *is yet far* from its completion. Other orna-

ments of the city are the civil and military nospitals; and that of the dowager empress Mary may serve as a model for such establishments, whether we regard its exterior appearance or its internal arrangements. Another decorative object, but of a different species, is the colossal equestrian figure of Peter; it is the ingenious work of Falconet, a French artist, and stands upon a mass of granite, which was brought, by an extraordinary union of skill and labour (for it then weighed 1500 tons) from the province of Carelia to the capital. The immediate fortifications of the city are inconsiderable; but the fortress of Cronslot, at the distance of 13 miles, and the strong town of Cronstadt, the principal station of the imperial navy, serve to defend the entrance of the Neva. Petersburg is supposed to contain nearly 450,000 inhabitants, and Cronstadt above 30,000.

Moscow, formerly the capital of this great empire, stands on the river Moskwa. It was founded by the grand duke George, in 1156. Before the French invasion of Russia, it was a large and magnificent city, and the Kremlin was a superb structure, or rather a motley mass of gaudy buildings, comprehending the imperial palace and chapel, the public offices, the cathedral and other churches, and the arsenal. The circumference of the town was about 12 miles; but the interior was not filled with houses or streets; for it contained so many spacious lawns, gardens, and groves, that it seemed rather to be a cultivated country than a city. Dreadful havoc was made on this spot, in 1812. To prevent the French from fixing their winter quarters in the city, the inhabitants set fire to many of the buildings, after the retreat of the major part of the population; and the flames, spreading with unrestrained fury, destroyed or ruined above two-thirds of the town. Speaking of this extraordinary occurrence, Karamsin says, "Eye-witnesses relate, that the carriage-market and the drug-market were set on fire by the hands of the shopkeepers themselves, and many other houses were fired by their owners;" and Rostopchin, who was the governor at the time, says, "I can neither attribute the conflagration exclusively to the Russians nor to the enemy. Half of the population remaining at Moscow consisted of vagabonds, and it is probable that they occupied themselves in extending the fire, that they might have an opportunity of pillaging during the consequent confusion." The Kremlin, and the celebrated hospital for foundlings, were among the portions which were uninjured by the fire; but Bonaparte, at the time of his retreat, ordered the former to be blown up by mines, yet only with partial effect. As soon as the enemy had retired, the task of repairing and rebuilding commenced; and, within two years, almost 3000 houses were reconstructed or refitted. The work was continued with great spirit, and Moscow is again admired as one of the wonders of the world. *It consists of five grand divisions.* The first includes the Kremlin, where the cathedral of the Assumption of the Virgin Mary dazzles the eye with its splendid decorations, and the imperial palace, though more simple in its architecture, displays the most superb furniture of every description. The second division, though it is called the Kitai-gorod, or Chinese Town, is, in its aspect, the most European part of Moscow: it contains what is particularly called the Beautiful Place, one of the largest and finest squares in the world. The Beloi-gorod, or White Town, exhibits many palaces of the nobles, the Foundling Hospital, the Exercise House, (a building of stupendous magnitude and remarkable construction,) and much better houses than this part of the city contained before the fire. The fourth division, styled the Earthen Town, is handsome, but less splendid, and is surrounded by 35 suburbs, which form the fifth and least striking division. The noblemen's houses are not uniformly built; but the prevailing embellishments are central domes and ranges of columns, terraces, balconies, balustrades, statues, urns, vases, and reliefs. The population of Moscow now amounts to 386,000 souls.

Novogorod "the great," the ancient seat of a powerful Sclavonian republic, and the subsequent residence of Ruric, is situated on the river Volkoff, and is more remarkable for its former fame than for its present dignity or beauty. It has a large but insignificant fortress, a curious cathedral, and churches ornamented with gilt spires.

Kiow, or Kief, which is called "the mother of Russian cities," was once the capital of Russia; and it is still a place of no small importance. It stands at a great height, on the crest of an amphitheatre of hills, which rise abruptly in the midst of an immense plain, apparently thrown up by some wild freak of nature, at once curious, unique, and beautiful. The style of its architecture is admirably calculated to give effect to its peculiar position; and, after a dreary journey on the wild plains of the Ukraine, it breaks upon the traveller with all the glittering and gorgeous splendour of an Asiatic city. For many centuries it has been regarded as the Jerusalem of the North, the sacred holy city of the Russians; and, long before reaching it, its numerous convents and churches, crowning the summit, and hanging on the sides of the hill, with their quadrupled domes, and spires, and chains, and crosses, gilded with ducat gold, and glittering in the sun, give the whole city the appearance of golden splendour. The interior, however, does not correspond; the streets are crooked and narrow, and the houses mostly of wood. In 1833, the emperor Nicholas founded here a university, to which he gave the name of St. Vladimir. Under one of its monasteries are catacombs, excavated from a massy rock, containing the revered remains of many of the primitive Christians of Russia. To this spot frequent pilgrimages are made by the superstition of the Russians, many of whom will

ıtake a pedestrian journey of 700 or
or the performance of acts of devotion
ses of their saints. The city is chiefly
by these pilgrims, and by a fair,
eld in January. The fortifications of
ı excellent repair; and its arsenal is
ce, large enough to contain 100,000
rms. The population amounts to
e city belongs to Little Russia, (for-
Ukraine,) in which division the finest
ths, famous for its trade and for the
llege founded by Count Berborodko.
Novogorod is said to have been at
ted by Peter the Great for a new
is dominions. However that might
rn is now the seat of the greatest
de of the empire. Makarief, on the
to be one of the most frequented
e world; but, in 1818, the fair which
was removed to Nishnei-Novogorod;
population of the latter town has
ed within a few years. It has now
) residents; and, at the time of the
lasts about two months, it swarms
s, agents, and occasional visitants,
he spot from every considerable
Europe and Asia.

to, one of those cities which are
n as sacred by the Russians, was
fore the 9th century, and was long
an independent principality. It is
the government of the same name,
banks of the Dnieper. In 1812 it
e hands of Napoleon, after a san-
tle with the Russian army. It has a
, a military school, and other public
. The cathedral is a noble edifice.
of its splendour, Smolensko is said
tained 200,000 inhabitants. Its pre-
tion is not more than 10,000.

chief place of the government of the
, is situated on the Oupa, about 130
Moscow. It is of comparatively
e, having been founded in 1509 by
ovitch. But it has rapidly risen to
by means of its iron-manufactures:
rmingham of Russia. Here is the
ishment for the fabrication of arms
sian army, in which 7000 workmen
ed. There is also an arsenal here,
sains arms for 100,000. The iron is
om mines in the vicinity. Tula pos-
us public and literary institutions,
opulation of about 40,000 souls.

l, situate at the mouth of the river
he White Sea, was, before the time
e Great, the only port by which
municated with the rest of Europe.
three English miles in length, and
lth. The buildings are principally
at the exchange is of stone. Not-
g the decrease of the trade of Arch-
the building of Petersburg, it still
eat quantity of merchandise, partly
m Siberia, Tartary, and the *frontiers*
t *has about 20,000 inhabitants.*

Riga, a strong town, (formerly the capital of Livonia,) is, next to Petersburg, the most commercial place in the Russian empire. It is also a fortress of the first rank. It contains, in the city and three suburbs, about 40,000 inhabitants, and has many public institutions, among which is a library of 12,000 volumes. There is a floating wooden bridge over the Duna, 2600 feet long, and 40 broad, which, in winter, when the ice sets in, is removed, and in summer replaced.

Abo, which was long the capital of Swedish Finland, now flourishes under the Russian government. It carries on a considerable trade, both inland and foreign. Manufactures of linen, silk, cotton, ropes, glass, and paper, are conducted with skill and efficiency; and the population has increased in no small degree since the incorporation of the country with Russia. The university was rebuilt in a handsome style by the emperor Alexander: the hall is beautiful; and, among other embellishments, it boasts of statuary ornaments from the hand of a pupil of Sergel.

Kherson was founded in 1778, on the right bank of the Dnieper, as a convenient station for the trade of the Euxine; and, for many years, it seemed to flourish, having at one time 40,000 inhabitants and 130 vessels; but, after the death of its patron, Prince Potemkin, and of its imperial foundress, it declined, and does not now contain a population of more than 20,000. Its decline was caused by the commercial rivalship of Odessa, and the removal of the admiralty and dock yards to Nikolaef. Catharine made a triumphal procession to this town in 1787, and was so elevated with the hope of making it a sort of stepping-stone to Constantinople, that she inscribed, over one of the gates, "Through this gate lies the road to Byzantium."

Odessa was founded in 1793, by Catharine II., on the shore of the Euxine; but it could scarcely be called a town before the year 1803, when it became the rallying-point of those nations which had extorted from the Turks the liberty of navigating that sea. It is a handsome well-built town, all the houses being of stone; it contains a fine cathedral, a lyceum, a theatre, and other public edifices both useful and ornamental. The most numerous part of its population consists of Greeks: there are also many Jews; but the most opulent inhabitants are English, French, and Germans. Its commercial success has gradually elevated the number of its occupants to more than 40,000.

About 40 miles from Kherson is Nikolaef, which, though it did not exist before the year 1791, is now a very flourishing town. Almost all the houses are built of stone, and some of the public buildings are particularly grand. The docks are extensive, and furnish many ships of war for the Black Sea, the admiral of which keeps a sort of court in the town. The inhabitants nearly amount to 11,000.

Next to the government of Kherson is that *of Tsurida,* including the Crimea, the former

importance of which peninsula entitles it to a more extended notice than we should otherwise be induced to give. Baktchiserai was its ancient metropolis, but it is not at present in a flourishing state. It is a mean town, and the houses in general are contemptible; but the palace is a remarkable monument of oriental magnificence. The present capital is Sympheropol, which consists of two parts—the Tartarian division, and that which the Russians built after the conquest of the country. This town had been long declining; but it is now increasing in extent and population, though it is not supposed to contain above 3000 inhabitants. The Tartars are sober, temperate, and chaste; submissive to their priests and nobles; orderly and industrious, but not skilful in the mechanic arts, and still less acquainted with the sciences.

Caffa formerly flourished under the Genoese sway; but it is now in a low state of population, not being inhabited by more than 4000 persons. Many of its houses are unoccupied, and the town has a forlorn aspect.

The chief mart of the Crimea is Karassubazar. It carries on a considerable trade in horses and horned cattle, fruit and wine, leather, and other articles. It has 20 mosques, and a few Christian churches; and about 5000 persons compose its population.

About midway between Moscow and the Uralian mountains lies the city of Kasan, which was formerly the capital of a Tartar kingdom of the same name. It ranks third among the cities of the empire, and has a population of between 50,000 and 60,000 souls. It suffered much from conflagrations in 1774 and 1815; but since the latter event it has been rebuilt in a much improved style. It has 58 churches and 4 cathedrals. In 1804, the emperor founded a university here, which was opened in 1814.

MANUFACTURES—COMMERCE.—The Russian manufactures are numerous and important. Great quantities of linen are fabricated: cotton goods, both plain and printed, silken and woollen articles, cordage, sail-cloth, mats, leather, hats, gold lace, glass, porcelain, paper, and many other commodities, exercise the skill and industry of the Russians. All these articles, indeed, are not objects of exportation; but their exports are so valuable, in comparison with the imports, that the balance of trade is greatly in their favour. Beside many of the above-mentioned goods, Great Britain receives iron, timber, hides, hemp, flax, pot-ash, hogs' bristles, tallow, and (from the Polish dependencies of Russia) large supplies of corn. With France and other continental regions, the Russians have also a flourishing trade.

GOVERNMENT.—The sovereign of the Russian empire is absolute and despotic in the fullest extent of those terms, and master of the lives and property of all his subjects, who, though they may be of the highest rank, or may have been highly instrumental in promoting the welfare of the state, may, for the most trifling offence *be seized and sent to* Siberia, or compelled to drudge for life upon the public works, and have all their goods confiscated. He is also supreme head of the church. His title of samodeyetz, or autocrat, is descriptive of his inherent and uncontrollable authority.

But, however despotic a sovereign may be, he must have instruments, by means of which to exercise his power. The authority of the monarch is delegated to the great colleges of the empire, who preside over the central administration, and to the governors-general, civil, and other functionaries, who compose the local administration. The three great bodies of the state are the council of the empire, the directing senate, and the holy synod. The first is divided into four departments, each of which has a president: these are the departments of legislation, war, civil and religious affairs, and finances. The minister and secretary of the empire make part of this college, which has the management of all important affairs, with the exception of those which relate to foreign policy. The directing senate is considered the first body in the state. The monarch presides over it, and can appoint senators in whatever number he pleases. The senate looks to the execution of the laws, watches over the receipt and disbursement of the public revenue, promulgates the laws and the edicts issued by the emperor, nominates to the majority of offices, judges, in the last appeal, all causes, and its decrees have the force of law, like those of the emperor, by whom alone they can be annulled. The holy synod is the college whence emanates the supreme authority of the Greco-Russian church. It is composed of a certain number of prelates named by the emperor; it presents to all ecclesiastical appointments, enforces the observance of the canon laws, and has an eye to the preserving of the purity of doctrine. The executive power, in the strict sense of the word, concentred in some measure in the hands of the emperor, is more specially intrusted to the ministers who are secretaries of state, who form a fourth college, under the name of the committee of ministers, but subordinate to the three great bodies which have been already mentioned.

Russia must therefore be considered as an absolute hereditary monarchy, the sovereign of which is, at the same time, at the head of the state and of religion. But the different parts of the empire display great differences in their administration, and are variously governed, according to the ancient privileges which they have preserved, or the constitutions which were granted to them when they were united with the empire. It is thus that the Don and the Black Sea Cossacks form republics, which may be called military; that the grand duchy of Finland has a constitution entirely different from that of other parts of the empire; and that Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland, enjoy very extensive privileges. The kingdom of Poland had a constitutional government (often, indeed, violated) from 1815 to 1831; but, since the overthrow of the brave and unfortunate

country has been annexed to the
pire.
he system of civil law established
as very imperfect, and, in many
arbarous and unjust; being an
of laws and regulations drawn
f the states of Europe, ill digested,
respects not at all adapted to the
e Russian nation. But Catharine
e attempts to reform and correct
e courts of justice were in general,
very corrupt, and those by whom
istered were extremely ignorant;
icious regulations fixed a certain
office of judge, which before de-
e contributions of the clients, and
dministration of the laws on a
tter basis. Even the slaves were
ft at the mercy of their masters,
e to a prosecution for acts of out-
lty.
times, efforts have been made in
m a uniform and general code of
mission, established by Catharine
solved in 1774, without having
thing. Paul and Alexander also
mmissions with but imperfect suc-
course of half a century, no less
£1,130,000 was expended on this
ngth, between 1826 and 1833, a body
ublished in fifteen volumes, which
al ukase was ordered to come into
he 1st of January, 1835, and to be
ssia in all cases where it was not
to the provincial laws. It was
eight parts, or codes, and con-
hapters, and about 38,000 articles.
son or other, however, this series
ot yet been carried into execution.
ians have various punishments,
th inflicted and endured with won-
sibility. Peter the Great used to
robbers upon the Volga, and in
of his dominions, by iron hooks
ir ribs, on gibbets, where they
mselves to death, hundreds at a
ingle and double knout have been
n ladies as well as men of quality.
m are excruciating; but in the
t the hands are bound behind the
l the cord, being fixed to a pulley,
n the ground, with the dislocation
houlders; and then his back is in
arified by the executioner with a
cut from the skin of a wild ass.
nent has been so often fatal, that
enerally attends the patient, to
it ought to cease. It is not always
of the strokes, but the method of
m, which occasions the death of a
r the executioner can kill him in
strokes, by striking him upon the
persons sometimes recover, in a
who have received three hundred
rately inflicted.
to the *strict letter of the law, there* are no capital punishments in Russia, except in the case of high treason: but there is much less humanity in this than has been supposed; for there are many felons who expire under the knout; and others die of fatigue in their journey to Siberia, and from the hardships they suffer in the mines; so that there is reason to believe that no fewer criminals suffer death in Russia than in those countries where capital punishments are authorised by the laws. Felons, after receiving the knout, and having the cheeks and forehead marked, are sometimes sentenced for life to the public works at Cronstadt, Vishnei-Voloshok, and other places; but the common practice is to send them into Siberia, where they are employed in various labours. It has been said, that the prohibition of the torture does honour to Catharine II.; but she merely ordered that it should not be inflicted without express permission from the government. Its abolition was reserved for the humanity of her grandson Alexander.

Revenue.—The revenue of this great empire arises from the capitation tax, or head-money, the tax on the capital of merchants, the produce of the imperial domains, the customs, the stamp duties, the tax on kabaks or public-houses, and other imposts. The revenue of Russia bears no proportion to the magnitude of the country. It is variously rated by various writers. Mr. Bremner estimates it at £14,200,000, Balbi and others at about £16,000,000. A part of this revenue is absorbed by interest upon a debt of about £50,000,000, and by a sinking fund to extinguish the debt.

Army and Navy.—Before the 16th century, the troops of Russia bore a great resemblance to the militia of other countries. But, about the middle of that century, the czar John formed a few companies of infantry from the vassals of the boyars: they were called *streltzi*, or sharp-shooters, and were retained even in time of peace. Michael added to this force a regiment of cavalry; and Alexis considerably augmented the standing army of the state; but this department was greatly neglected by his successor, until Peter arose, who reformed both the military and civil establishments. In 1712 the army exceeded the amount of 105,500 men; in 1747 it reached the number of 162,750; in 1771 it bordered on 209,000; and, at the accession of Alexander, above 268,700 well disciplined soldiers composed the regular force of the empire. A greater number were in arms at the time of the French invasion; but, after all the exertions of the sovereign and his ministers, it does not appear that the grand army which opposed the invaders exceeded 135,000. The most exaggerated accounts have been given of the present state of the Russian army. It is probable that the Russian government, artful in everything, is the originator of these reports. It has been said, and believed, that Russia has 1,000,000 men in arms. It would appear, *however, that* her actual force is somewhat *between* 600,000 and 700,000 men; a force suffi-

ciently formidable to demand the vigilance of the civilized European powers. The Russian soldiers are distinguished by the most unyielding firmness; and the Cossacks, in particular, are remarkable for alertness and rapidity of movement. These brave and faithful subjects of the empire are descendants of those fierce tribes which formerly occupied the country between the Dnieper and the Volga. They retained their ancient privileges in the reign of Peter the Great; but they have since been more fully incorporated with the government. Furnished with fire-arms and long spears, they usually act as light cavalry, and rush upon the enemy with loud shouts: they are more fitted for desultory hostilities than for the steadiness of regular warfare.

With a view of having a numerous military force ready at the first call, colonies were some years ago formed in various parts of the empire. The grand feature of this plan is the organization of an immense army from among the peasants, who will thus combine the agricultural and military characters. The chief stations of these colonies have the appearance of garrisoned towns; and the scheme tends to make the Russians more decidedly a military nation. The present population of these colonies is about 700,000.

Of late years very great attention has been paid to the navy. Naval reviews are frequent; but the Russian sailors are far from having acquired high maritime skill. The navy consists of 50 sail of the line, 25 frigates, 8 war steamers, 128 brigs, corvettes, &c., and 500 gun-boats.

ROYAL TITLE — NOBILITY — ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.—The sovereign of Russia is called the *czar* or *tsar*, a Sclavonic word signifying king or sovereign. In his ukases or royal decrees, and other public acts, he assumes the title of *autocrator*, that is, an independent and uncontrollable ruler.

The distinctions of rank form a considerable part of the Russian constitution. The ancient nobility of Russia were divided into knezes, boyars, and vaivods. The knezes were sovereigns upon their own estates, till these were reduced by the czar: but they still retain the name. The boyars were nobility under the knezes; and the vaivods were governors of provinces. Those titles, however, so often revived the ideas of their ancient power, that the late empresses introduced among their subjects the titles of counts and princes, and the other distinctions of nobility that are common to the rest of Europe.

The Russian orders of knighthood are six. The order of St. Andrew was instituted by Peter the Great, in 1698, to animate his nobles and officers in his wars against the Turks. He also instituted the order of St. Alexander Nefski; and, in compliment to the empress, that of St. Catharine. Those of St. George and Vladimir were established by Catharine II., the latter being intended for civil officers. Her unfortunate husband had previously founded the order of St. Anne of Holstein, out of resp memory of Anne, the daughter of Great.

RELIGION.—The established religi sia is that of the Greek church. article of faith, by which that churc so long separated from the Latin c church, is the doctrine that the H does not proceed from the Father ar but from the Father only. The Rus siastics deny the pope's supremacy; a they disclaim image-worship, they r idolatrous and superstitious custo churches are full of pictures of sai they consider as mediators. They number of fasts, so that they live miously during a great part of the y the long fast of Lent, they hail the a Easter with a striking solemnity. A all the churches are filled with dev tians, each holding a lighted taper; directed toward the sanctuary, from the clergy of all ranks, preceded b banners and crosses. Search is ma body of our Lord; it is then declared risen; the joy is unbounded; and, clusion of the religious service, feas order of the day. The parochial p no fixed income, but have wooden small portions of land, and receiv tions from their flocks. They are al even required, to marry; but the l obliged to remain in celibacy.

Peter the Great showed his profo ledge of government in nothing m the reformation of his church. H dangerous powers of the patriarch ar clergy, and declared himself the h church. After establishing this gre reformation, he left his clergy in f sion of all their idle ceremonies; no off their beards: that impolitic at reserved for Peter III., and greatly to his catastrophe. Before his tir number of both sexes were shut up i nor has it been thought prudent to those societies. The abuses of ther are in a great measure removed; f can become a monk before he has his thirtieth year, and no female a nu is fifty; and even then not without of their superiors.

LITERATURE.—The Russians cou an annalist, the venerable Nestor, the year 1000; but they have not hit a shining figure in the republic of l in consequence of the great encc given by some of their sovereigns, i tution of academies and other literar sufficient proofs have appeared of the of their intellectual abilities. The hibited at their academical meeting favourably received all over Europe those which relate to astronomy, matics, and natural philosophy; ar poets, dramatists, and miscellaneo

among them. Lomonosof and Sure the poets of the last century, and ee of the present are Derschaven, Zhukovski, Ismaelof, and Karamt of whom is also an historian and us writer. The translations from poetry, made by Dr. Bowring, will der some idea of the merits of the ts.

ITIES AND SCHOOLS.—Three colbunded by Peter the Great at Mosr classical learning and philosophy, for mathematics, and the third for nd astronomy; but they were suffto decay. The empress Elizabeth iversity in the same city, in 1755; l. rebuilt and reorganized it; but it destroyed in 1812. The present not so fine a building as the former, er better regulations. Schools are t, as in the university of Petersburg. rs receive salaries from the crown; tain number of students, not only afforded *gratis*, but they are even boarded by the government. Schools en established over the wide extent re, and many of these seminaries d on the plan of Dr. Bell, or of Mr. There is also a university at Kieff. scientific establishments are the Sciences, founded by Catharine I., demy of Arts, founded by Elizabeth, d by Catharine II.

s.—The Russian language is an imct of the Sclavonian, which, with rs, is still in use in the offices of he letters have a great resemblance he Greek characters. The language nd expressive, and requires great he organs of utterance. The Lord's nsaian is as follows:—

ash, eje esi na nebesech: da svyatvoye: da priedet tzarstvye tvoye: da i tvoya, yako no nebese ee na zemle: nasooshnie dajd nam dnes: ee ostaje nasha yakoje, ee me ostavlyaem nashim: ee ne vovede nas vo iskooesbave nas ot loocavago: yako tvoe , ee seela, ee slava, vo vokee vekov.

.—The foundation of the Russian be traced to the year 862, when nish or Norwegian adventurer, led dy of warriors to Novogorod, and, republic which had long existed on ssumed the dignity of a sovereign. n's widow, having been initiated in an faith at Constantinople, introreligion among the Russians; but t generally embrace it before the adimir, who died in the year 1015. ions and hostilities of the Tartars e strength and checked the progress ian state; and many of its grand rinces (not excepting Alexander triumphed over the Danes) were vassals to the khan of the *golden horde*, or superior tribe. John Basilowitz, in 1477, shook off the degrading yoke; and his prosperous reign of 40 years gave a new aspect to Russia.

His grandson, John II., subdued the kingdoms of Kasan and Astracan, in Asia, and annexed them to the Russian dominions. By his cruelty, however, he obliged the inhabitants of some of his finest provinces, particularly Livonia and Esthonia, to throw themselves under the protection of the Polanders and Swedes. After his death, the succession was filled by a set of weak cruel princes; and their territories were torn in pieces by civil wars. In 1597, Boris assassinated Demetrius, the lawful heir, and usurped the throne. A young monk took the name of Demetrius; and, with the assistance of the Polanders, and a considerable party—which every tyrant has against him—he expelled the usurper, and seized the crown. He was murdered in a tumult at Moscow; and another ambitious impostor was also assassinated.

These impositions prove the despicable state of ignorance in which the Russians were immersed. The country became by turns a prey to the Polanders and the Swedes; but, in 1613, it was rescued from the danger of conquest or ruin by the good sense of the nobles, sharpened by their despair. Ladislaus, son of Sigismund II. of Poland, had been declared czar; but the Russians were so disgusted and enraged at the arrogance of their Polish oppressors, that they resolved to elect a native prince. Romanoff, archbishop of Rostoff, whose wife descended from the ancient sovereigns of Russia, had been sent ambassador to Poland by Demetrius, one of the Russian tyrants, and there was detained prisoner, under pretence that his countrymen had rebelled against Ladislaus. The nobles met; and, such was their veneration for Romanoff, that they elected his youthful son Michael to be their sovereign. The father, being exchanged for some Polish prisoners, returned to Russia, and, being created patriarch by his son, ruled conjointly with Michael, with great prudence and success. They defeated the attempts of the Polanders to replace Ladislaus upon the throne, and likewise the claim of a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. The claims of the Swedes and Polanders upon Russia occasioned a war between those nations, which gave Michael a kind of breathing-time; and he made use of it for the benefit of his subjects. He reigned 33 years, and by his wisdom, and the mildness of his character, restored ease and tranquillity to his people.

Alexis succeeded his father Michael. He appears to have been a prince of great genius. He recovered Smolensk, Kief, and the Ukraine, but was unfortunate in his wars with the Swedes. He promoted agriculture, introduced arts and sciences, promulgated a code of laws, and greatly improved his army by establishing discipline. His successor, Theodore, a weak but benevolent prince, reigned seven years, *and, dying in 1682*, recommended to his nobles

the elevation of his half-brother, Peter, to the throne, as he was strong both in body and mind, in preference to his imbecile brother John. The princess Sophia, by the aid of the streltzi, (the janissaries of Russia,) checked the efficacy of this recommendation, and, while she consented that Peter should share the chief authority with her brother John, arbitrarily governed in the names of both; but, when Peter had attained the age of 17 years, he formed, by his spirit and address, a strong party against the regent, and, sending her to a convent, assumed the administration. Galitzin, who was her favourite minister and general, now dreaded the vengeance of the young czar; but he had the good fortune to escape with his life. His great estate was confiscated, and the following curious sentence was pronounced as his punishment: "Thou art commanded by the most clement czar to repair to Karga, a town under the pole, and there to continue the remainder of thy days. His majesty, out of his extreme goodness, allows thee threepence per day for thy subsistence." Thus was Peter left with no other competitor, in 1689, than the mild and easy John; on whose death, in 1696, the bold and ambitious youth reigned alone, and cruelly provided for his future security by the murder of 5000 streltzi.

Peter, having been indifferently educated, through the jealousy of his sister, associated himself with the Germans and Dutch; with the former for the sake of their manufactures, which he early introduced into his dominions; and with the latter for their skill in navigation, which he practised himself. His inclination for the arts was encouraged by his favourite, Le Fort, a Piedmontese; and General Gordon, a Scotchman, disciplined the czar's own regiment, consisting of 5000 foreigners; while Le Fort raised a regiment of 12,000, among whom he introduced the French and German military exercise, with a view of employing them in curbing the insolence of the streltzi. Peter, after this, began his travels as an attendant upon his own ambassadors. By working as a common ship-carpenter at Deptford and Saardam, he completed himself in ship-building and navigation; and, through the excellent discipline introduced among his troops by the foreigners, he not only overawed or crushed all civil insurrections, but all his enemies on this side of Asia; and at last he even exterminated, except two feeble regiments, the whole body of the streltzi. He rose gradually through every rank and service both by sea and land; and the defeats which he received, especially that from Charles XII. at Narva, stimulated him to new exertions. The battles he lost rendered him at length a conqueror, by adding experience to his courage; and the generous friendship which he showed to Augustus king of Poland, both before and after he was dethroned by the king of Sweden, redounds greatly to his honour. He had no regard for rank distinct from merit; and he at last married *Catharine, a young* Lithuanian woman, who had been betrothed to a Swed because, after a long cohabitatio that she possessed a soul formed his views and execute his plans. comprehensive eye over all parts of and, while he attended to the impr the arts and sciences, and to the g ization of his people, he made such of dominion, that he may be said of his death, which happened in 17 been the most powerful prince of hi

Peter was unfortunate in his elde marrying without his consent, ent father alleged, into some dangero against his person and government he was tried and condemned to dea a sovereign so despotic as Peter wa cult to determine on the justice of It was undoubtedly his will that prince should be found guilty; an reading of the sentence appears to fatal to him. It is said, that, as s tence of death was pronounced prince, in which were the follow "The divine, ecclesiastical, civil, a law, condemns to death, without those whose attempts against their their sovereign are manifest," he f most violent convulsions, from wh with great difficulty that he regain interval of sense, during which he d his father would come to see him asked his pardon, and soon after die ing to other and far more probable he was secretly put to death in pri this extraordinary and disgraceful t in 1724 Peter ordered his wife to b with the same magnificent ceremo she had been a Greek empress, and t nised as his successor; and she m throne on the decease of her husb died, after a glorious reign, in 172 succeeded by Peter II., a minor, son fortunate victim of paternal vengean domestic revolutions happened in F ing the short reign of this prince; more remarkable than the disgrace of Prince Menzikof, the favourite the two last reigns, considered as t subject in Europe. Peter II. died of pox, in 1730.

Notwithstanding the despotism of Great and his wife, the Russian sena bility ventured to set aside the order sion which the deceased monarchs blished. The male issue of Peter extinct; and the duke of Holstein, elder daughter, was, by the destinati late empress, entitled to the crow Russians, for political reasons, fi throne with Anne, duchess of Courla daughter to Peter's brother, though sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, Her reign was very prosperous; an she accepted the throne under limita broke them all, and asserted the prer

t. Upon her death, in 1740, Ivan, less the princess of Mecklenburg, ill entitled to the succession; and, Biron, Duke of Courland, for some nd; but the czar's mother super- ed assumed the administration. the new regent was unpopular; standing a prosperous war which n against the Swedes, Elizabeth, Peter the Great, formed such a he was allowed to ascend the he princess of Mecklenburg, her son, were made prisoners.

apress abolished capital punish- troduced into all civil and mili- ngs a moderation unknown be- t. She was completely victorious les. Her alliance was courted by , at the expense of a large sub- my political, and some private said, determined her to take part se of Austria against the king of 56. Her arms alone gave a turn e of the war, which was in dis- ussia, notwithstanding that mo- ing abilities both in the field and r success was such as portended on of the Prussian power, which saved only by her death.

was succeeded in 1762 by Peter, lstein-Gottorp (a descendant of at,) who had married Catharine, nhalt-Zerbst. This prince had enthusiastic admiration of the Prussian monarch, to whom he nd whose principles and practices have adopted as the rules of his

He might have surmounted the f those peculiarities; but it ap- aimed at a species of reform he Great durst not attempt, and d to cut off the beards of his also alleged that he had formed to destroy both the empress and gh they had been declared heirs by the same authority which e crown upon his head. But all were prevented by a general con- which the empress took a very d this unfortunate prince scarcely val between the loss of his crown of which he was deprived while minious confinement. His wife, was proclaimed empress.

vereign, dreading the rivalry of who was still in prison, contrived his destruction, by collusively officer in an attempt to rescue urnish a pretence for putting him act of cruelty convinced her sub- pirit by which she was actuated, all determination to retain the he had acquired.

d governed for some years with rected her attention *to the affairs laving by her potent influence* raised her favourite Stanislaus to the throne, she fomented the dissensions between the Catholics and Protestants of that realm, and overawed both parties by military terror. Her tyranny at length produced a civil war; and her encroachments roused the grand signor to arms. Her general, Prince Galitzin, twice defeated the Turks near Choczim, in 1769, and gained possession of that strong town; and, in another campaign, Romanzof was equally successful; while the Russian fleet, aided by the skill and enterprising courage of some British officers, who set fire to the oppos- ing squadron, obtained a signal victory in the channel of Scio.

During this war, the partition of Poland, in which the czarina had a great concern, took place; a memorable transaction, which will be more fully noticed in the history of that coun- try. In the progress of hostilities, the Russians generally had the advantage; but, in 1774, the empress, at the earnest desire of the king of Prussia, consented to a pacification, by which she obtained a freedom of trade in the Black Sea, a considerable sum of money, and a large portion of territory between the Bog and the Dnieper.

Peace seemed then to be indispensably neces- sary for the immediate preservation of the Turkish empire; but, within five years, a new war was on the point of breaking out, and was only prevented by a new treaty. Yet the great source of discord still remained. The pretended independence of the Crimea, stipulated by the treaty of 1774, afforded such an opening to Russia into the heart of the Turkish empire, and such opportunities of interference, that it was scarcely possible that any lasting tranquil- lity could subsist between the empires. A claim, made and insisted on by Russia, of establishing consuls in Moldavia, Walachia, and Bessarabia, was exceedingly grievous to the Porte. After long disputes, the Turkish ministers gave up that point; but this conces- sion produced only a short-lived effect. New troubles were continually breaking forth. The emperor of Germany having avowed his deter- mination of supporting the claims of Russia as well as his own, all the parties prepared, with the utmost vigour, for the most determined hostility. The year 1783 accordingly exhibited the most formidable preparations for war on the northern and eastern borders of Europe. However, in the midst of all these menacing appearances, negotiations continued to be car- ried on at Constantinople; and peace was signed early in the following year. By this treaty Russia retained the full sovereignty of her new acquisitions, namely, the Crimea, the isle of Taman, and part of Cuban.

Satisfied for a time with these acquisitions, the empress devoted her chief attention to the arts of peace. But her close political connexion with the emperor Joseph alarmed the Turkish *sultan, who,* dreading an attack from those *ambitious confederates,* declared war, in 1787,

against Russia. Catharine did not then wish for a sanguinary contest; but her favourite Potemkin held out a prospect of triumph, and urged her to vigorous operations. Choczim was again taken; Oczakof was stormed; and other advantages were obtained by her troops. Amidst these hostilities she found herself involved in a new and unexpected war. The Swedes had the greatest cause of resentment against Russia for past injury and loss; at the same time, they had everything to dread from the overgrown power and boundless ambition of the czarina. Gustavus III. was therefore induced to meditate a project of hostilities, which commenced in Finland. The principal action of the campaign was the naval battle off Hoogland. The engagement, which lasted five hours, was fought with skill and obstinacy on both sides; but the victory was undecided. On another occasion the Swedes severely suffered; for two of their ships of the line blew up, and six were captured. This loss induced the king to listen to proposals of peace; but the war with the Turks still continued. Ismael was long besieged by Prince Potemkin, who, impatient of delay, ordered Souvorof to assault the town. This peremptory order was executed with complete success; but it is said that the siege and assault did not cost the Russians less than 10,000 men. The most shocking part of the transaction was, that the defenders (whose bravery merited, and would have received from a generous foe, the highest honours,) were massacred in cold blood by the merciless Russians, to the amount of 30,000 men.

Great Britain and Prussia, after a long and expensive armed negotiation, at length assented to the demand of the empress, that Oczakof, and the territory between the Bog and the Niester, should in full sovereignty belong to Russia; that the latter river should for the future determine the frontiers of Russia and the porte; and that the two powers might erect fortresses on its shores. A treaty was concluded, in 1792, upon this basis.

When the first coalition was formed against the French revolutionists, Gustavus was to have conducted an expedition; and Catharine, on this occasion, promised to assist the allies with 12,000 men. She published a strong manifesto against the progress of the new principles of liberty; but, content with idle promises and nugatory declarations, she merely sent a squadron to join the British fleet, without any intentions of effective service. While she pretended to aim at the ruin of the anti-royal party in France, she beheld, with pleasure, the greatest powers of Europe wasting their strength and treasures; and, undisturbed by foreign interference, made a second partition of Poland. By her intrigues, she also annexed to the crown of Russia the fertile and populous country of Courland. But the acquisition of countries incapable of resistance was *not sufficient to satisfy* her ambition. She *turned her arms against* Persia; and her general, Valerian Zouboff, penetrated, at the head of a numerous army, into the province of Daghestan, and laid siege to Derbent. Having stormed a high tower which defended the place, he put all the garrison to the sword, and prepared to assault the city. The Persians, terrified at the barbarous fury of the Russians, sued for mercy; and the keys of the city were delivered up to Zouboff by the veteran commandant, who had surrendered the same town to Peter the Great. In a battle which soon followed, the Persians were victorious; but they could not retake the important city which they had lost.

The martial schemes of the empress, and her plans of ambition, were interrupted by her sudden death, on the 9th of November, 1796. With respect to her political character, she was undoubtedly what is erroneously called a great sovereign. From the commencement of her reign she laboured to increase the power and political consequence of her country. She encouraged learning and the arts, and made every exertion to extend the commerce of her subjects. She enacted important regulations in the interior police, and particularly in the courts of justice. She abolished the torture, and adopted an excellent plan for the reformation of prisons. The new code of laws, for which she gave instructions, might have contributed still more to mitigate the rigour of despotism. But her reforms were rather apparent than real; more designed to acquire applause from the world than to benefit her subjects. In the execution of her plans for the aggrandizement of her empire, she appears to have acknowledged no right but power, no law but interest. The fate of her husband and Prince Ivan cannot be obliterated from history; the blood spilled in the long-conceived scheme of re-establishing the eastern empire in the person of a second Constantine, will not be expiated, in the estimation of humanity, by the gigantic magnificence of the project; and the dissensions and civil wars industriously fomented in Poland for a period of thirty years, with the horrible massacre which attended its final subjugation, will be a foul and indelible stain on the memory of Catharine. To all which must be added, that she gave herself up to the most unbounded, disgusting, and shameless sensuality.

She was succeeded by her son, Paul I., who in the beginning of his reign appeared to display a more mild and pacific disposition than that of his mother. He ordered hostilities to cease with Persia; and a peace was soon after concluded. He set at liberty the unfortunate Kosciusko, behaved with liberality toward the deposed king of Poland, and reinstated many Polish emigrants and fugitives. In 1799, however, he assumed a military attitude, and took a very active part in the war against France. His troops, under the command of Souvorof, co-operating with the Austrians, drove the French entirely out of Italy. He, at the same time, sent a considerable force to act with the English army which had invaded Holland; but sud-

expidiousness which from this
d to attend all his actions, he
my from Switzerland, where it had
en defeated, and seemed to have
violently hostile to England than
to France. He seized all the
in his ports, and confined the sea-
red into an alliance with France,
a confederacy of the maritime
north against the naval interest
tain. His arbitrary spirit, and
gement, alarmed some of his
les; and, in March 1801, he was
of his throne and life, being over-
strangled by a party of resolute
His eldest son Alexander imme-
ed the throne.

peror soon entered into a pacific
n with Great Britain; and, at
, acted in conjunction with the
' France, in settling the indem-
to the princes and states of the
e. When the coalition was formed
e, in 1805, he acceded to it, and
ing an army into the field; but
of the Austrian troops at Ulm,
advance of the French, involved
eat and disgrace which befel his
erlitz, and dictated the peace of
: continued, however, hostile to
ruler of the French; and, when
ook place between France and
omised assistance. But Prussia
:tim to the vast power of France;
uitlessly continued the struggle,
: doubtful battle of Pultusk, the
nflict of Eylau, and the decisive
dland, the emperor found it neces-
, and concluded, in 1807, a treaty
alliance at Tilsit. The obvious
which he entered into the views
reflected no credit on his cha-
onsenting to receive a portion of
:h had been wrested from his late
ally disgraceful. He was duped
conduct of the conqueror, and
nted, with a simultaneous view to
rest, to promote the ambitious
s new ally. In a previous instance,
:sted a gross contempt of justice,
to a war with the Turks, who had
or provoked him. His troops over-
vinces which were nearest to his
as; but their progress was subse-
ked by the rising spirit of the
war continued above five years,
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l, thanks to the treachery of the
atry, it terminated with the ad-
arabia and a part of Moldavia to
erritories, at a moment when his
dangered.

atime, Alexander engaged in an-
m a desire of extending his do-
had long wished for the posses-
sh Finland; *and the opportunity* seemed particularly favourable, as Gustavus IV. was neither a hero nor a statesman. Great Britain, indeed, sent a respectable force to assist the endangered king; but, in consequence of the folly of the Swedish monarch, the commander remained inactive, while the Russians overwhelmed all opposition. Sveaborg, which Gustavus fondly deemed impregnable, was quickly surrendered; and the enemy would probably have appeared at Stockholm in the next campaign, if the discontent of the Swedes had not produced that revolution which hurled the unfortunate king from his throne.

It was not the good sense and judgment of the emperor that at length roused him from his mean subserviency. Neither was he ashamed of having connived at the usurpation of the Spanish throne, and at the humiliation of his Austrian friend. His pride was wounded at the arrogance with which he was treated by his ambitious ally, who would not allow him to seize upon Constantinople, and his fears were roused by the murmurs of his nobles, whose fortunes were injured by his adherence to the continental system of Napoleon. He began to fear that he would share the same fate as his father. In consequence of this, he put an end to the appearance of war which he had thought himself bound, after the attack upon Copenhagen, to maintain with Great Britain, and renewed his encouragement of that commercial intercourse from which his subjects had derived important advantages. He coolly disregarded the remonstrances of the haughty ruler of France, and resolved to act at last with an independent spirit.

Enraged at these symptoms of a secession from the alliance, Napoleon made extraordinary preparations for a northern expedition, that, by the conquest of Russia, he might become absolute master of the continent. Troops, to the amount of 400,000 men, were led, in 1812, to the banks of the Niemen, while the Russians, whose plans of defence had been badly arranged, retreated before the motley host of invaders. Holding the enemy in check on the side of Petersburg, Napoleon directed his march upon Moscow, the ancient capital, where he hoped to dictate his will in such a peremptory tone, that it should not be opposed or eluded. Having taken unresisted possession of Russian Poland, he advanced toward the Dnieper, and menaced Smolensk with an attack. The fortified suburbs were stormed; and, on the spot which was thus seized, batteries were hastily erected, from which a furious fire poured upon the city. With a view of diminishing the expected advantage of conquest, the citizens, inspired with an extraordinary effervescence of patriotic zeal, set fire to different parts of the town; and all who had an opportunity of escaping retired with the garrison. After some partial conflicts, a general engagement near Borodino exhibited the courage and obstinacy of both parties. The Russians occupied an advantageous position on *the Moskwa*, which they had strengthened with

redoubts. From dawn till night the combat raged with indescribable fury. Some of the redoubts were alternately lost and regained several times, till they were surrounded and filled with piles of dead. At length, the Russian line being broken in various parts, its general withdrew from the scene of carnage. This was one of the most sanguinary battles of modern times; for it is affirmed that 70,000 men (both sides included) covered the field, either dead or wounded.

Regardless of the loss which they had sustained, the invaders pressed forward to Moscow, and the van-guard entered the Kremlin. Suddenly raging flames appeared in the heart of Moscow, confounding the enemy, who had hoped to pass the winter in that city. The consequent havoc was dreadful; and a considerable loss of lives attended that destruction of buildings, which originated in the phrenetic desperation or the patriotic magnanimity of the inhabitants. Having checked the progress of the flames, the French lingered for some weeks in the town, while the Russians endeavoured to surround them. Kutusoff commanded the grand army; another assembled force had Witgenstein for its general; and, in consequence of the conclusion of peace with the Turks, (who had purchased it by an admission of the Russians to the Pruth and the Danube,) a well-disciplined host returned to the northward to assist in the ruin of a malignant foe. When the French ventured to retreat, they were harassed in every mode; and the rigours of a northern winter thinned their numbers, and increased the misery of the survivors. Several conflicts, in which the French displayed their habitual courage, sharpened by despair, marked the retreat. It was, in truth, to the inclemency of the season that the Russians were principally indebted for their triumph. At the Beresina, their retreat was nearly cut off by the pursuers, but they were extricated by the military skill of their leader. As soon as he had accomplished this, he hastened to Paris, to collect the means of making head against the victorious enemy.

The disgrace and ruin of the invading army, of which not more than a fifth part returned into Poland, revived the hopes and courage of the king of Prussia, who had been obliged to send an army even against his former friend. The remains of his auxiliary force now took an opportunity of seceding from their constrained alliance with the French; and the king entered into a new league with the northern potentate. These princes, however, had not a sufficient force embodied to defeat or to repel the French, whose leader again appeared in Germany with a powerful army. In two very sanguinary conflicts they were defeated, but effected an orderly retreat; and, being joined by the Austrians and the Swedes, and liberally subsidized by Great Britain, they became so successful as nearly to ruin the opposing army, *at Leipsic, in October, 1813.*

Alexander now flattered himself wi pect of the speedy deliverance of Eur only Napoleon's principal army re treated to the Rhine, but many of his relinquished the towns which they occupied; and the year 1814 commen an invasion of France. The allie forming two great armies, instead time in the attack of fortresses, whic pected would yield on the total def French, advanced with determined ala the heart of France. Their military pl however, so wretchedly framed, that his force was not more than one-third Napoleon inflicted on them several feats. While he was making a mov reinforce his army with the French which they had left in their rear, a them off from their magazines and they succeeded in forming a junct reached Paris by a forced march. Aft struggle, by dint of an overwhelmi they carried the positions round th and enforced a surrender. Entering in triumph, Alexander, by means of t bon party, and the defection of son poleon's ministers and generals, dic will to the senate. Napoleon was d and the head of the House of Bourbo vited to the sovereignty.

The escape of the deposed monarch island of Elba, which had been assign as an independent principality, occ renewal of the war. The troops of A were not ready to act, when the Frenc into the Netherlands; but, if the Br Prussian armies had been defeated, i triumphing at Waterloo, the Russians trians, boldly advancing, in the sequ have turned the tide against the enem

In the congress of Vienna, the Russi tate had the greatest influence. By the Austrian emperor and the king o were guided; and the three princes att more to their own interest than to th benefit of Europe. Alexander assu crown of Poland, and promised to gra inhabitants of that country such a tion as would be adequate to their w wishes. After a protracted absence native country, which, however, rema fectly free from commotion, he agr dened his people with his presence; return was hailed by every class of his as the appearance of a beneficent be had sacrificed his own comfort and r the happiness of other nations.

Having thus contributed to the re of general tranquillity, Alexander ma study, for the remaining years of hi secure that peace which had been w difficulty obtained. He exercised his i in the suppression of all attempts to s despotism in Spain, Portugal, and Nap strongly supported that "*holy* alliance he had concluded with Austria and

nssy. The strength of his con-
ed to promise him a long life;
was employed in public duties
f Asof, the climate made a rude
his health, and he died on the
er, 1825, in the 48th year of his
supposed by some that he was
but, though such an event was
occur in Russia, there were not
ds for the surmise. His death
lamented by his subjects; and
f an unfaithful husband seems
serious effect upon the feelings
rmerly princess of Baden,) who
ding year.

nfavourable opinion of the dis-
brother Constantine, and of the
rince for the task of government,
der the pretence of his having
egrading marriage with a lady
a persuasion, who was not of
al birth, had procured from the
esignation of his pretensions to
d Nicholas, though younger by
n than Constantine, was there-
d emperor, with the assent of
prince. The cause of seniority
spoused by a regiment of the
he new czar acted with such
l resistance was quelled after a
anguinary conflict.

g at territorial acquisition, Rus-
irected its arms against Persia.
ch will be described more fully
l of Persia, continued till 1828,
sian monarch was compelled to
tageous peace. Russian intrigue
le, busy in Greece, and in the
of Walachia and Moldavia. The
mperor Nicholas bore a part in
n of the Turco-Egyptian squa-
ino. The ruin of that fleet for-
aterially the sinister designs of
aying entirely at his mercy the
l the coasts of the Euxine, and
him to cover his armies, and
of his enemy, in a march upon
e. In 1828, therefore, he declared
e Porte. The first campaign was
for him. He took Brailow and
ich last conquest he was more
ld than steel; but he was foiled
to penetrate into the interior of
stained severe losses in his re-
treat. In the next campaign his forces were more fortunate; they reached Adrianople, and the Porte was under the necessity of making numerous concessions. In the latter end of 1830, the Poles were driven to take up arms, by the tyranny of the archduke Constantine, the viceroy. They were, however, overcome in the following year, and their liberty destroyed; but not till after they had obtained several glorious victories over their oppressors. (*See* POLAND.) In 1833, Russia appeared in a new character, but not with any change in her purposes: she became, ostensibly, the protector of Turkey. Mehemet Ali's army was then marching towards Constantinople; and Nicholas sent an auxiliary force to the Porte to stop his progress. To obtain this boon, the Porte signed the treaty of Unkiar Skelessi, by which it bound itself to ask no other power for assistance, and to close the Dardanelles against all foreign ships of war. Nearly at the same period, the Russian monarch succeeded in obtaining a similar ascendancy at the Persian court. From that time his views were no doubt directed against British India. Russian officers and agents were intriguing in the states bordering upon Hindostan, and, in 1838, a Persian army, directed by Russian officers, marched to the attack of Herat. The attempt, however, failed. Strong remonstrances were made by the British cabinet, and, having missed his first blow, the emperor recalled his agents. The conquest of Afghanistan, by the British, opposed a still more formidable object to his designs in that quarter. Yet, unwilling wholly to relinquish them, he, in 1840, directed a formidable expedition against Khiva, one of the Usbeck states. The pretence was injuries received from the Khivans; but the real reason was doubtless the wish to seize upon a country which might serve as a basis for future operations against India. For many years past, the emperor has been labouring to enslave the brave Circassians; but he has hitherto made but little impression on them; and his forces have repeatedly been defeated by them with terrible slaughter.

The emperor Nicholas was born on the 2nd of June, 1796. In July, 1817, he was married to Louisa, princess of Prussia, by whom he has had seven children; namely, Alexander, born in 1818; Constantine, 1827; Nicholas, 1831; Michael, 1832; Maria, 1819; Olga, 1822; and Alexandra, 1825.

POLAND.

part of Poland is now a depen-
ssian empire, it will be proper
f it in this place. Before the first
ngth and breadth were estimated
miles; *and it was supposed to* contain 214,440 square miles, which were reduced nearly in the proportion of one third by the arbitrary spoliation. Another iniquitous defalcation took place in 1793; and, in 1795, a final *partition took* place, and the country ceased to

be a separate state. That small part of it which was formed into a kingdom in 1815, consists of the governments of Augustowo, Plock, Mazovia, Kalisch, Kielce, Sandomir, Podlachia, and Lublin, and contains 4,300,000 inhabitants. Warsaw is its capital. In this article, the general observations apply to Poland as it formerly was; but only the chief towns of the modern kingdom are noticed; the others will be described under the heads of Austria and Prussia.

Mountains — Forests — Rivers. — Poland in general is a level country; but, toward the south-west, it exhibits the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Hungary. It has some extensive forests, particularly in the interior and eastern parts; and its chief river is the Vistula, which takes a winding course through the western parts, and falls into the Baltic near Dantzic, after a course of more than 500 miles.

Metals — Minerals. — This country contains mines of iron, lead, and copper, and quarries of marble. Near Olkusch are mines of silver and lead. The salt-mines of Wieliczka, near Cracow, which, in 1815, were ceded to Austria, are the richest and most productive in Europe. Among the mineral products we may also reckon rock-crystal, talc, alum, salt-petre, and pit-coal. Various kinds of earth are also dug up, admirably adapted to the use of the potter.

Climate — Soil — Produce. — In the north of Poland the air is cold, but temperate in the other parts. Where morasses and woods abound, however, it is not very salubrious. The soil, more particularly in Galitzia, is fertile in corn, hemp, and flax; and the lands appropriated to pasture, especially in Podolia, are luxuriant and rich. Honey and wax are obtained in great abundance. Manna is produced by an herb that grows in the meadows and marshy grounds: in the months of June and July the inhabitants gather it by sweeping it into sieves, with the dew. The oak, the beech, and the pine, thrive in the woods.

Animals. — The forests in the northern parts contain great numbers of buffaloes, whose flesh is deemed excellent. Wolves, boars, gluttons, lynxes, elks, and deer, are common in the woods: there are also wild horses and asses, and wild oxen. A kind of wolf, resembling a hart, with spots on its belly and legs, is found here, and affords the best fur in the country. The elk is common in the northern parts; and its flesh forms the most delicious part of the greatest feasts. Its body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs are high, the feet broad. Naturalists have observed, that, upon dissecting an elk, there are frequently found in the head some large flies, and the brain almost eaten away; and it is an observation sufficiently attested, that, in the large woods and wilds of the north, this poor animal is attacked, toward the winter chiefly, *by a larger sort* of flies, which, through its ears, *attempt to take up their winter-quarters* in its head. This persecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling-sickness, by which means it is frequently taken more easily than it would be otherwise.

Poland produces a creature called bobac, which resembles a Guinea-pig, but seems to be of the beaver kind. These animals dig holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occasionally for food, until April: they have separate apartments for their provisions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by ten or twelve in a herd. In the northern parts of this country are found eagles and vultures. A species of titmouse is frequently found in these parts, remarkable for the structure of its pendent nest, formed in the shape of a long purse, with amazing art.

Natural Curiosities. — The salt-mines of Wieliczka consist of wonderful caverns, several hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many labyrinths. "The town of Wieliczka," says a modern traveller, "is pleasantly diversified with slight hills. The population of the town exceeds 4000; its position has nothing of the picturesque aspect of the salt-works near Salzburg or in the Valais. Several shafts in the town descend into the excavations which have been made in the salt-rock. Down the principal of these shafts it was my fate to descend; and, having put on a kind of white surplice, and hired a certain quantity of boys to carry iron lamps, I took my place with the guides in a kind of swing, suspended from a capstern, and we were all let down 34 fathoms, hanging like a bunch of grapes from a single rope. This descent brought us to the first story or field of the works, where considerable numbers of men were engaged in packing and pounding the salt in barrels, whence it is raised up the great shaft. We walked for some distance along the wide galleries, which are perfectly dry and airy, till we arrived at various halls or chambers, excavated in the salt. I had been assured that I should find the air so impregnated with saline particles, as to give a strong taste of salt to the lips and tongue, but I did not perceive this to be the case. My guides lit their broom torches, which threw a transient glare over the immense caverns; the hewn vaults and the dark irregular walls glittered with the crystals imbedded here and there in the compact mass; and the vast obscure, thus fitfully illuminated, gave one the gloomy impression of a temple dedicated to the infernal deities. We crossed a salt lake, which fills the bottom of one of these halls on the second field, in a broad flat-bottomed boat, and beyond it we found the workmen continuing the labour of excavation. Some of the galleries through which we passed are 1000 paces in length, and several of the chambers are from 80 to 100 feet in height. It was an appalling reflection, that these prodigious perforations, descending 136 fathoms into the earth, and extending, in a vast labyrinth, 4 stories deep, over a tract as large as a huge

eted for the sole purpose of food; that man has hence boying, it would seem, an an an artificial want; since mmon to all mankind, and ce thus profusely consumed, ter in all the more primitive

Wieliczka is perfectly com- nasms have ever been found ie salt is mixed with no kind stance, except the soil and nearer to the surface. The , which have been gradually course of 900 years, during known to have been worked, r distinguished personages, are adorned with obelisks standing by the workmen. chamber of moderate size, more regular Gothic form, various statues and a huge same material. One of the of a single transparent salt s Sigismund Augustus, of s life, though the emblems ve slightly defloreased since ier statue, which I took for to be St. Cunigunda, once untry, and still patroness of the tradition says were dis- rse of a very vigilant search lding-ring of that princess. d once a year in this subter- the presence of all the miners ie festival of St. Cunigunda. e a fine race of men; their and it is not true that any of ground—they seldom remain eight hours at a time. The se to detach large fragments he mass are of the simplest ses are worked at the present ere in the 9th century, with the gunpowder occasionally The whole nature of the works analogy with the science of uld be more correct to term than salt-mines. inistration is now a monopoly e Austrian government. The an expense of about 4*d.* per to the ordinary purchaser on rice of about 11*s.* per quintal. ent made with the Russian rnments, at the Congress of ld to them at a price which make the same extravagant ling it to their subjects a little old in Austria. The monopoly itzia with the utmost rigour, hments are inflicted on the uld venture to use even the rater drained from the mines: of salt *in the country is im- y the authorities, for the im* perial monopoly. Of course, the quantity of salt raised is regulated entirely by the demand: it now varies from 700,000 to 1,000,000 quintals annually. The wages of the men who work at the excavations, and who are paid by task-work, vary from 1*s.* 4*d.* to 2*s.* per diem. The pay of the men otherwise employed about the mines is only 6½*d.*

"Accidents very rarely happen; and, when they do, they are generally caused by an unforeseen approach to some neglected part of the works, where water has accumulated in the lapse of centuries. Since the Austrians have been in possession of the mines, many of the salt pillars, which had been left by the miners to support the cavities, have been hewn away, and immense piles of wood have been substituted. It is apprehended that this change may be attended with disastrous consequences at some future time, though the wood becomes exceedingly durable, from its being impregnated with salt. In the course of last year, the crust gave way in one part, and a house in the town descended gently into the depths below. But the extent and apparent solidity of the passages gives an air of great security to the immense labyrinth; and, fortunately, the idea of being earthed scarcely crossed my mind. It might seem hard to be drowned as well as buried alive; but in the middle of the lowest field to which I penetrated, I had the satisfaction of learning from the guides, that the lake we had crossed half an hour before was just over our heads. A fortnight would hardly suffice to explore the whole extent of the excavations; but I was perfectly satisfied with a journey of two hours. The monotonous immensity of the subterranean vaults, the broad darkness all around, just rendered visible by our passing torches, and the stony silence—so infinitely more deep than the stillest hour of a summer's night—only broken by the picking heard at intervals, or the rough explosion of the blasting-powder, weighed heavily on the imagination. I took my place again with great pleasure in the swing, which raised me to my native surface, and I joyfully opened my eyes and mouth to quaff, with rare appetite, a draft of light and air."

Population—National Character—Manners and Customs.—The population of Poland, before its first dismemberment, was estimated at 13,404,000. That part of it which now belongs to the modern kingdom of Poland consists of about 4,300,000 souls. The Polanders, in their persons, are tall and well-proportioned: they have good features and fair complexions. The gentry are brave, frank, and hospitable; and the women are sprightly and agreeable in their manners: but both sexes are loose and licentious in their morals. The prevalent diversions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, riding, hunting, bull and bear-baiting. The principal nobles live in great state. When they sit down to dinner or supper, they have *trumpets and other instruments playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table.*

all serving with the most profound respect; for the nobles who are poor, frequently find themselves under the necessity of serving the rich; but their patron usually treats them with civility, and permits the eldest to eat with him at his table, with his cap off.

Though Poland had its princes, counts, and barons, the whole body of the nobility were naturally on a level, except the difference that arose from the public employments which any of them held. They did not value titles of honour, but thought "a gentleman of Poland" the highest appellation they could enjoy. They had many considerable privileges; and, indeed, the boasted Polish liberty was limited to them alone, partly by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from immemorial prescription. Over the peasants they wantonly exercised a high and commanding authority.

Casimir the Great endeavoured, by various ordinances, to rescue the peasants from the brutality of their masters, and to meliorate their condition; but his regulations proved ineffectual against the power of the nobles, and were either abrogated or eluded. Some of these lordly oppressors had estates from 5 to 20 leagues in extent, and were also hereditary sovereigns of cities, with which the king had no concern. One of the nobles sometimes possessed above 3000 towns and villages. Some of them could raise 8000 or 10,000 men. The house of a nobleman was a constant asylum for persons who had committed any crime; for none might presume to take them from it by force. They had their horse and foot guards, which were upon duty day and night before their palaces, and in their antechambers, and marched before them when they went abroad. They made an extraordinary figure when they attended the diet, some of them having 6000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the senate were often determined by the sword. When great men had suits at law, the diet or other tribunals decided them; yet the execution of the sentence was left to the longest sword; for the justice of the kingdom was commonly too weak for the grandees.

The peasants were at the absolute disposal of their masters. They were indispensably obliged to cultivate the earth; they were incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might lead them to freedom, without the permission of their lords; and they were exposed to the dismal and frequently fatal effects of caprice and cruelty. In modern times, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened understandings ventured to give liberty to their vassals; and, as they soon found the good effects of their generosity, or their regard to justice, in the increase of population and revenue, the example was followed by others.

The Polish dress is remarkable. The men shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown; and they generally wear large whiskers. A vest which reaches down to the *middle of the leg*; a gown lined with fur, and girded with a sash; wide breeches, making one piece with their stockings, compose the usual dress of the gentry. They wear fur caps or bonnets; their shirts are without a collar or wristbands, and they wear neither a stock nor a neckcloth. Instead of shoes, they wear boots with thin soles, and deep iron heels bent like a half-moon. When they appear on horseback, they wear over all a short cloak, which is commonly covered and lined with fur. The women do not dress very different from the men. As to the peasants, in winter they wear the skin of a sheep with the wool inwards, and in summer a thick coarse cloth; but linen is worn by few. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the soles of their feet.

In a survey of the Polish community, the Jews are entitled to particular notice. In former times, when they were persecuted by other nations, they were treated in Poland with marks of high regard; and, except the nobles, they are still the most consequential and prominent figures in the population. "The enjoyment of liberty and of civil right," says Dr. Neale, "seems to have produced a strong effect on the physical constitution and physiognomy of this singular race, bestowing a dignity and energy of character upon them, which we may in vain look for in those of other countries." They are the principal traders, the chief distillers of those spirituous compounds with which the common people intoxicate themselves, and almost the only innkeepers in Poland. Like their brethren in other countries, they live (if we except the very opulent families) without regard to cleanliness, as indeed do the Polanders in general. The inns are wretched buildings; and some of them consist only of a long room, which serves for a stable, parlour, kitchen, and bedchamber. Though the habitations of the Jews are better than those of the peasants, they are far from being commodious or comfortable. The latter are their own builders; and their thatched log-huts scarcely shield them from the occasional inclemency of the weather.

CHIEF TOWNS.—Warsaw, the capital, is situated near the Vistula, partly on a plain, and partly on a gentle ascent. The city itself is indifferently built, though it has some magnificent palaces, churches, and other buildings; but the streets of the suburbs are wide, straight, and well paved. Its population is about 130,000. In 1818 a university was founded here, which was soon in a prosperous state. It had numerous professors, a rich library, fine zoological and mineralogical collections, an extensive botanic garden, &c. &c. But it was suppressed after the Russian triumph in 1831; as was also the Royal Society of the Friends of Science. Before that fatal event, no great city of eastern Europe had so many periodical works, in comparison with its population, as Warsaw.

Among the principal towns of this Russo-Polish kingdom are Kalish, which ranks as the second, and contains numerous manufactories,

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Salt is the most important article of
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l, skins, tallow, bristles, honey, and

...ENT.—The old constitution of Po-
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elected him on horseback; and, in
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of the palatines, and commanded

paying 100 Polish florins yearly in taxes. The electors were all landholders, who paid anything whatever to the state, manufacturers or shopkeepers with a capital of 10,000 florins, all rectors and vicars, all professors and teachers, and all artists or mechanics who were distinguished for talent. Each elector must be enrolled, and have attained his twenty-first year. Except for great offences, and then only with the consent of the assembly, no member could be arrested during a session. The legislative power was in the hands of the king and the two chambers; but all projects of law were to originate with the council of state. An ordinary diet was to be held every two years, and sit thirty days, and the king might summon an extraordinary diet whenever he thought it necessary. All kings were to be crowned at Warsaw, and to swear to the observance of the charter. The judges were to be appointed partly by the king, and partly elected by the palatinates; the former for life and unremoveable. Equal civil rights were granted to all dissenters, all offices civil and military were to be filled by natives alone, no subject could be arrested before judicial conviction, the inviolability of person and property was guaranteed, and the liberty of the press recognised in all its plenitude. We shall soon see how this constitution was observed.

RELIGION.—The established religion of this country is the Roman Catholic; and the people of all ranks are prone to superstition. The monasteries are very numerous; and the superior clergy are well provided with the luxuries of life. The primate was the archbishop of

for ages the progress of literature among the Polanders. Elegant historians and pleasing poets, however, have occasionally appeared among them; a taste for science has lately diffused itself among the nobles, and it is now regarded as an accomplishment.

UNIVERSITIES.—The university of Cracow was founded in 1364. It consists of 11 colleges, and has the superintendence of 14 grammar-schools dispersed through the city. The other universities of ancient Poland were those of Wilna and Posen.

LANGUAGE.—The native language of this country is the Polish; the German, however, is understood in many parts of it; and, as above observed, an impure and incorrect Latin is also in use. The Polish language is a dialect of the Sclavonic; and a specimen of it is given in the following translation of the Lord's Prayer:—

"Oycze nass ktory na niebiesiech iestes; niech sie swieci imie twoie; niech przyidzie ono krolestwo twoie, niech sie stanie ona wola twoia iako u niebie tak y na ziemi. Chleba nassego onego powszedniego day nam dzisia, y odpuse nam nasse winy, iako y my od puscszamy winowaycom nassym; y nie u wodz nas u pokussenie; ale wyrwi nas od onego slego; is twoie iest krolestwo, y moc, y chwala na wieki. Amen."

HISTORY.—The ancient history of Poland is very obscure. Before the ruin of the western empire, the country seems to have been chiefly occupied by the Sarmatians. In 830, Piast enjoyed the supreme authority under the title of duke; and, about the close of the 10th century, Christianity was introduced among the people by Miecziaus, whose son Boleslaus encouraged the progress of that religion, and at the same time distinguished himself by his military spirit and ability. He assumed the royal title, and left his dominions, greatly extended, to his son, whose successor, Casimir, was a respectable and patriotic prince. In 1069, Boleslaus II. added Red Russia to Poland, by the marriage of its heiress. Casimir II. was a just and beneficent prince; and the third king of that name was the first who gave written laws to Poland. Jagellon, who in 1384 mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania. He united his hereditary dominions to those of Poland; which gave such influence to his posterity over the hearts of the people, that the crown was preserved in his family, until the male line became extinct in Sigismund Augustus, in 1572, who admitted the reformed, with Greeks and all other sects, to a seat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges which were before confined to the Catholics. He gave such evident marks of favour to the Protestant confession, that he was suspected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown: these were Henry, duke of Anjou, and Maximilian, of Austria. The French *interest prevailed, in* consequence of the arts of corruption; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when he was called to France to receive a more important crown. The partisans of Maximilian endeavoured to revive his pretensions; but the majority of the Polanders made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with some opposition from the Austrian faction, took the wisest method to establish himself on the throne, by marrying Anne, the sister of Sigismund Augustus, and of the royal House of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in military affairs, by establishing a new militia, composed of Cossacks, whom he settled in the Ukraine. On his death, in 1586, Sigismund, a Swedish prince, related to the royal family of Poland, was chosen king. By thus indulging his ambition and his Catholic zeal, he lost the crown of Sweden. He strenuously endeavoured to recover that dignity, and also to acquire the sovereignty of Russia; but, after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He died in 1632, and was succeeded by Ladislaus VII., who obtained some advantages over the Turks, Russians, and Swedes, but injured his reputation by provoking the Cossacks to a revolt, which they maintained against all his efforts. John Casimir, being also unfortunate in his war with the insurgent tribes, granted such terms of peace as the nobles deemed dishonourable. Eager to profit by the general discontent, the Russians invaded the country, and the Swedes, under Charles X., followed the example. The latter nearly subdued the whole kingdom; but the resistance of Dantzic gave the Polanders time to recover from their consternation. John was assisted against his enemies by the active courage of the Tartars; the dispersed parties of Swedes were attacked with indignation and success; and the Lithuanians disavowed the allegiance which they had been forced to yield to Charles, who returned to Sweden with the wreck of his army. It was during this expedition that the Dutch and English protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburg acquired the sovereignty of Ducal Prussia, which had submitted to the Swedes. After the restoration of peace, discontent still pervaded the realm. Some imputed to the king a want of capacity; others accused him of an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Casimir, who probably had no such intentions, and was fond of retirement and study, finding that cabala and factions increased, and dreading that he might fall a sacrifice to the public disgust, abdicated his throne, and became abbot of St. Germain, in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compositions, which are far from being despicable.

Many foreign candidates now presented themselves for the crown; but the Polanders chose for their king a private gentleman, of little interest and less capacity, one Michael Wiesnowiski, because he descended from Piast. His

ssful to Poland. Large bodies had put themselves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered Podolia, greatest part of Poland, and compelled to pay an annual tribute to the e honour of Poland, however, was John Sobieski, the crown-general. ng in 1673, Sobieski was chosen 1676 he was so successful against that he forced them to remit the 1688, though he had not been well e House of Austria, he was so public to enter into the league for the ristendom, and acquired immortal ging the Turks to raise the siege d making a terrible slaughter of He died, after a glorious reign, in

leath of Sobieski, Poland fell into tions. Many confederacies of the formed; and the crown was in a up to sale. The prince of Conti, of yal of France, offered the highest while he thought the election , he was disappointed by the ine queen-dowager, in favour of her , prince Alexander Sobieski. Sustus, elector of Saxony, appeared as ; and, after an irregular election, imed by the bishop of Cujavia, he tion of Cracow with a Saxon army, owned in that city in 1697. The Conti made several unsuccessful establish his interest, and pretended been actually chosen; but he was obliged to return to France, and the s of Europe seemed to acquiesce in i of Augustus. For entering into racy against Charles XII. of Swe- g was driven from his throne, and eczinski received the crown from a victorious invader; but, when the umphed over the Swedes, the Saxon covered his throne, which, however, a precarious tenure. The natives ed to Stanislaus, and frequently piracies against Augustus, who was aintain his authority by means of guards and regiments. He died, quiet reign, in 1733. A war then ich the French king maintained the his father-in-law, Stanislaus, who r re-elected to the throne by a conarty, of which the prince-primate ad. But Augustus II., entering i a powerful army of Saxons and ompelled his rival to retreat to enee, after having been for some d, he escaped with great difficulty . In the history of Germany, the n Augustus, as the Saxon ally of Austria, and Frederic III., king of l be more regularly noticed. It is say, that though he was a mild and ince, and did everything to satisfy the Polanders, he could never gain their affection; and they gave him little more than a place of refuge, when the king of Prussia drove him from his capital and electorate. He died at Dresden in 1763; and, through the influence of the empress Catharine of Russia, Count Poniatowski was chosen king by the name of Stanislaus Augustus. He was a man of talent and address; but, from various concurring causes, he had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, a petition was presented to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, conjointly called the Dissidents, in which they demanded to be reinstated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon an equal footing with the Roman Catholic subjects of the kingdom. The king gave no answer to this petition; but when it was referred to the diet, the ministers of the courts of St. Petersburg, London, Berlin, and Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet received the complaints of the dissidents with moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship; which gave some flattering expectations that the dispute would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this; for, though he openly professed himself a zealous defender of the cause of the dissidents, it was manifest, from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland, at the same time, gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in various provinces; the popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars, partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. Confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771; and, in addition to those evils, in 1770 a pestilence arose, which spread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhynia, and the Ukraine. Meanwhile some of the Polish confederates prevailed upon the Turks to assist them against their powerful oppressors; and a war ensued between the Russians and the Turks, on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand signor toward the distressed Polanders was just and honourable, and the very reverse of that of their Christian, Catholic, and apostolic neighbours.

The king of Prussia, the queen of Hungary, and empress of Russia, now entered into an alliance to divide and dismember the kingdom of Poland. These powers, acting in concert, set up their formal pretensions to the respective portions which they had allotted for each other. They claimed Polish or Western Prussia, and some districts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Prussia; almost all the south-

eastern parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, with the rich salt-works of the crown, for the queen of Hungary and Bohemia; and a considerable part of Lithuania, for the czarina. But though each of these powers pretended to have a legal title to the assigned territories, and published manifestoes in justification of their arbitrary measures, yet, as they were conscious that the fallacies by which they supported their pretensions were too gross to impose upon mankind, they forced the Polanders to call a new diet, and threatened them with military execution, if they would not consent unanimously to sign a treaty for the cession of the demanded territories. The king gave his assent; and his example was followed by many of the nobles.

The conduct of the king of Prussia was infamously tyrannical. In 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and carried off, from that province and its neighbourhood, 12,000 families. In the same year, he published an edict, commanding every person, under the severest penalties and even corporal punishment, to take the money offered by his troops and commissaries, for any useful articles which they might wish to procure. He then, with base coin, bought corn and forage, sufficient not only to supply his army for two whole years, but to stock magazines in the country itself, where the inhabitants were forced to come and repurchase corn for their daily subsistence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commissaries refusing to take the same coin they had paid. At the lowest calculation he gained, by this *honest* manœuvre, 7,000,000 of dollars. When he had stripped the country of money and provisions, his next attempt was to thin it still more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions at the expense of Poland, had been his great aim: for this purpose he devised a new contribution; the towns and villages were obliged to furnish a certain number of marriageable girls, the parents being ordered to give, as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats. His exactions from the monasteries and cathedrals, and also from the nobility, were so heavy, and so far exceeded their abilities, that the priests abandoned their churches, and the nobles their lands. These exactions continued, with unabated rigour, up to the time when the treaty of partition was declared, and possession taken of the usurped provinces. From these proceedings, it would appear that his Prussian majesty knew of no rights but his own—no pretensions but those of the House of Brandenburg—no rule of justice but his own pride and ambition.

It is remarkable that Prussia, whose sovereign thus disgraced his character, was formerly in a state of vassalage to Poland, which had not even acknowledged the Prussian royalty before the year 1764; that Russia, in the earlier part of the 17th century, saw its capital and throne possessed by a Polish prince; and that Austria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preservation of its metropolis, and almost for its very existence.

When the unjust partition had been sanctioned by the intimidated diet, Poland remained for many years in a state of degradation and insignificance, the king even acting as the vassal of Russia. But, when an opportunity of exertion seemed to be offered by the involvement of the empress and the Austrian potentate in a war with the grand signor, many of the nobles resolved, in 1788, to assert the independence of the state. A patriotic confederation was proposed and readily formed; and the military force was augmented to 60,000 men. After long delay, a new constitution was framed, and, in 1791, sanctioned by the diet. It declared the throne hereditary in the Saxon line, gave the king a sufficient degree of authority, restricted the power of the nobles, and afforded protection even to the lowest class of the community. The emissaries of Prussia artfully promoted this revolution, with a view of obtaining a plausible pretence for such an interference in the affairs of Poland, as might gratify the rapacious ambition both of their sovereign and the empress. The new arrangements seemed to give general satisfaction; but they were not carried into full effect. A Russian army attacked the natives with success; Stanislaus was obliged to declare his strong disapprobation of the new code; and, in a diet irregularly assembled, another partition was ordered.

This renewal of injustice roused the people to arms. Thaddeus Kosciusko, who had imbibed in the American war the principles of liberty, was invested, in 1794, with the chief command of the patriotic army; and he soon found an opportunity of signalizing his courage. With very small loss, he defeated General Woronzof, of whose men above 1000 fell; and, soon after, the Russians were baffled in an attempt to seize the arsenal at Warsaw, and driven out of the city with great slaughter; but, when they had recruited their strength, they were successful in several conflicts, and captured the patriotic chief. They then attacked Praga, a fortified suburb of Warsaw, and, when they had overpowered the resistance of the garrison, began to murder the inhabitants. After a respite of some hours, they set fire to the town, and renewed the massacre; and about 9000 persons—unarmed men, defenceless women, and harmless infants—perished either in the flames or by the sword, under the eye of the brutal Suvorof.

The triumphal entry of the victorious general into Warsaw annihilated the kingdom. That city, and the adjacent territories, were added to the Prussian realm; the town of Cracow and various palatinates were transferred to the Austrian dominion; and the troops of Catharine took possession of the rest of the country. The king became a pensioned subject of Russia; but some atonement was made to the people for

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hoped that their ancient state
tablished; but they were doomed
ated. Circumstances prevented
agments from being re-united,
reward of the Poles was the ad-
departments to the grand duchy
llec, Lublin, Radom, and Cracow.
oleon was engaged in his memo-
on to Russia, in 1812, the Polanders
ttered with a hope of the re-esta-
heir kingdom; Napoleon declared
form a barrier between polished
s nations. The diet, meeting at
nounced a general confederation,
ed the revival of an independent
the Prussians and Austrians were
s of Napoleon, he would not allow
es in Poland to enter into the
of the restored kingdom, which,
ld have been sufficiently large,
have extended from the Warta
rs of Russia and Turkey. These
, if they were really intended, were
that reverse of fortune which
opes of the invader; and, in 1815,
of Vienna decided the fate of Po-

exasperated to the highest degree the ferocious Constantine. Hordes of spies were employed by him, and "at his instigation the secret police pursued its fatal career; arbitrary arrests, hidden condemnations, the banishment of many, the imprisonment of more, signalized his baneful activity." A state prison was erected in the capital, and its dungeons were rapidly filled. The students of the universities of Warsaw and Wilna were persecuted for the love of freedom, and nothing was omitted to denationalize and pervert the system of education. The revenue was misapplied, and, in direct violation of the charter, the Poles were compelled to maintain great numbers of Russian troops. "But the worst remains yet to be told. Russian money and influence were unblushingly employed in the dietines, to procure the return to the general diet of such members only as were known to care less for their country than their own fortunes. Then, instead of a diet being held every two years, none was convoked from 1820 to 1825, and only one after the accession of Nicholas. Finally, an ordinance (issued in 1825) abolished the publicity of the debates in the two chambers; and the most distinguished members of the opposition were forcibly removed from Warsaw the night preceding the opening of the diet."

In December, 1825, Nicholas succeeded to the throne, on which occasion he issued a proclamation to the Poles, in which he said, "I promise and swear before God, that I will observe the constitutional charter, and that I will exert all my care to maintain its observation." His

keeping down the people. The insurrection broke out at Warsaw, on the evening of the 29th of November, 1830. The students took the lead, and were enthusiastically joined by the military and the citizens. In twelve hours the revolution was completed, a provisional government was formed, and the archduke Constantine was obliged to retire with his Russian troops from Poland. Though the Poles had taken up arms to defend their liberties, they had not renounced their allegiance to Nicholas; and, accordingly, they despatched deputies to St. Petersburg to state their grievances, and demand redress from the emperor. Nicholas, however, insisted upon their unconditional submission; and, in consequence of this, the diet declared the throne of Poland to be vacant, and organized a national government, under the presidency of Prince Adam Czartoryski. The sword alone could now decide, and that arbiter was speedily appealed to. Having collected an enormous army, the Russian general Diebitsch advanced against Warsaw. A battle, or rather a succession of battles, took place at Grochow, near the capital, in the latter end of February, which ended in the defeat of the invaders, with the loss of nearly 10,000 men. On the last of March and 1st of April, they again sustained a defeat, still more destructive than the former. Their loss amounted to 12,000 killed, and 2000 prisoners. Several other actions were fought, in most of which, though always numerically inferior, the Poles were victorious. The victors even penetrated into Lithuania and Volhynia, and roused the natives in various parts to insurrection. But the overwhelming numbers of the Russians at length gained the ascendancy. Yet even their numbers would scarcely have prevailed, had they not been seconded by the scandalous conduct of the Prussian monarch, who supplied them with provisions and ammunition, afforded a shelter to their endangered corps, and allowed them to avail themselves of his frontiers to cover all their movements. In the latter end of May, the Poles gained a victory at Ostrolenka, but suffered considerably. Diebitsch having died of cholera, Paskevitsch assumed the command of the Russian army, which was powerfully reinforced. At length the fatal moment arrived, when Poland was destined to fall. On the 6th of September, the Russians attacked the outworks of Warsaw, which they carried after a murderous contest of two days. The city surrendered to the victors on the following day. The remains of the Polish army shortly after disbanded, and the remaining fortresses fell into the hands of the conquerors. Since that epoch unhappy Poland has suffered all that a base oppressor can inflict upon an injured people. Her territory has been annexed to the Russian empire, every vestige of freedom has been destroyed, her daughters have been exposed to outrages worse than death, and her sons to wander in poverty as exiles, be sent in banishment to Siberia, or compelled to lead a life of perpetual insult and oppression in the land that gave them birth.

THE REPUBLIC OF CRACOW.

There is yet a small fragment of Poland which preserves a precarious liberty. When, in 1815, the victorious allied powers met in conclave at Vienna, to make a distribution, there was one portion of it which neither of them was inclined to see in the possession of any one but itself. This was the city of Cracow. It was at last determined that the city, and an insignificant portion of territory around it, should be formed into an independent republic, under the protection of the contracting parties. This republic has a superficies of about 56 geographical leagues, and a population of 127,000 souls, of which number 37,000 inhabit Cracow.

The government of the Cracovian republic is administered by a president and a senate consisting of twelve members. Nine of the senators, including the president, are elected by the representative body, and the president holds his office for two years. The legislative body consists of 2 senators, one of whom acts as speaker, 4 justices of the peace, 2 delegates from the university, and 20 representatives, chosen by the electoral colleges of the city and districts of Cracow. The representatives must have attained their 26th year, and the senators their 35th. Persons of landed property paying a contribution of 50 Polish florins, priests, members of the academy, distinguished artists, and merchants, may elect, or in certain cases become, senators. All the citizens are equal, the legislature has the power of controlling the finances and inspecting public functionaries, law proceedings are public, and the judges hold their stations during good behaviour, and are elected partly by the people, and partly by the senate and representatives. The militia of this miniature republic consists of 49 mounted gens d'armes, and 410 foot.

Cracow, which was once the Polish capital, is a large and ancient city, situated in a delightful valley which is watered by the Vistula. Its streets are narrow, irregular, and badly paved; but many of its edifices are magnificent. Its cathedral, a noble structure, has 16 chapels, in which rest the remains of many Polish monarchs and great men, among the latter of whom must be mentioned Kosciusko. There are many other splendid buildings. The university of Cracow is one of the oldest in Europe, and has a library, observatory, and botanic garden. In the environs of the city, at Broneslawa, is the monument which was erected, by the national gratitude, to the memory of Kosciusko.

The only other place of any consequence in the Cracovian territory is the town of Krzeszowice, which stands on the bank of the Rudawa, and is much frequented for its hot baths. It has 3000 inhabitants.

ility and the rights of the republic amedially violated by its powerful but, each is the beneficial effect of at the Cracovians are better off fests of the adjacent states. The and clean dwellings of the peasants are surrounded by orchards, filled with various kinds of fruit-trees; the fields are well cultivated, and produce excellent grain, and are separated by hedges; and the roads are everywhere bordered with willow-trees.

ENGLAND.

of England originated from the ution of the Cimbric Chersonesus, utland,) who conquered a great n.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Degrees.
between { 50. and 55. 45. N. lat. / 1. 50. E. and 5. 40. W. long.

0,535 square miles, with more than its to each.

ES.—England, the largest division bounded on the north by Scotland, y the German Ocean, on the west e's Channel, and on the south by Channel, which separates it from

, ANCIENT AND MODERN.—When the Romans provinciated the country, they divided it into Britannia Prima, which contained the southern parts; Britannia Secunda, comprehending the western parts; Maxima Cæsariensis, which reached from the Trent to the wall of Severus, between Newcastle and Carlisle, and sometimes to the Forth and Clyde; and Flavia Cæsariensis, which contained the Midland Counties.

When the Saxons invaded the island, their chief leaders appropriated the counties which each had been the most instrumental in conquering; and the whole formed, in 585, a heptarchy. In time of war, a chief was chosen from the seven kings, by public consent; so that the Saxon heptarchy appears to have resembled the constitution of Greece during the heroic ages.

THE ANGLO-SAXON HEPTARCHY.

Kingdoms.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
ided by Hengist in 457	Kent	Canterbury
ons, founded by Ella in 491	Sussex	Chichester
	Surrey	Southwark
es, founded by Uffa in 575	Norfolk	Norwich
	Suffolk	Bury St. Edmund's
	Cambridge	Cambridge
ns, founded by Cerdic in	Cornwall	Launceston
	Devon	Exeter
	Dorset	Dorchester
	Somerset	Bath
	Wilts	Salisbury
	Hants	Winchester
	Berks	Abingdon
erland, founded by Ida in	Lancaster	Lancaster
	York	York
	Durham	Durham
	Cumberland	Carlisle
	Westmoreland	Appleby
	Northumberland, and Scotland, to the Frith of Edinburgh	Newcastle
s, founded by Erchenwin	Essex	Chelmsford
	Middlesex, and part of Hertford	London

Kingdoms.	*Counties.*	*Chief Towns.*
7. Mercia, founded by Crida in 585	The other parts of Hertford	Hertford
	Gloucester	Gloucester
	Hereford	Hereford
	Worcester	Worcester
	Warwick	Warwick
	Leicester	Leicester
	Rutland	Oakham
	Northampton	Northampton
	Lincoln	Lincoln
	Huntingdon	Huntingdon
	Bedford	Bedford
	Buckingham	Aylesbury
	Oxford	Oxford
	Stafford	Stafford
	Derby	Derby
	Salop	Shrewsbury
	Nottingham	Nottingham
	Chester	Chester

It is necessary to preserve these divisions, as they account for different local customs, and some essential modes of inheritance, which to this day prevail in England, and which took their rise from different institutions under the Saxons. Since the Norman invasion, England has been divided into forty counties, or shires, all of which, except Middlesex and Cheshire, are comprehended in six circuits, or annual progresses of the judges, for administering justice to the subjects who are at a distance from the capital.

Face of the Country.—No nation in the world can equal the cultivated parts of England in scenes of tranquil beauty. The variety of high-lands and low-lands, the former gently swelling, and both of them forming the most luxuriant prospects; the corn and meadow grounds, the intermixtures of enclosure and plantation, the noble seats, comfortable houses, cheerful villages, and well stocked farms, often rising in the neighbourhood of populous towns and cities, decorated with the most vivid colours of nature, are objects of which an adequate idea cannot be conveyed by description. The most barren spots are not without verdure. But nothing can give us a higher idea of the English industry, than observing that some of the pleasantest counties in the kingdom, naturally the most barren, are rendered fruitful by labour. Among these Norfolk may be cited, which owes its prosperity to the introduction of turnip husbandry.

Mountains.—Though England is full of delightful rising grounds, and the most enchanting slopes, it contains few mountains. The direction of the principal range of eminences in South Britain is from the Land's End to the Cheviot Hills, is about north-east 170 leagues, and the steepest face of it is to the west, particularly in Wales. By far the loftiest of the English peaks are in Yorkshire, Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Northumberland. In *Yorkshire, Wharnside* is 2474 feet high, Ingleborough 2372, Water Crag, 2185, Carnfell 2244, Pennigant 2270, Schanner Fell 2398, and Kilhope Law 2198. In Lancashire, Pendle Hill is 1801 feet, and Coniston Fell 2575. In Westmoreland, Nine Standards is 2136, and Calf hill 2188. Cumberland excels all others in number and loftiness: Cross Fell is 3383 feet, Helvellyn 3313, Bontomand 3285, Oldman 2574, Grisdale Pike 2684, Grassmere Fell 2756, Saddle Back 2889, Pillar 2894, Bow Fell 2910, Scafell Peak 3163, and Skiddaw 3038. In Northumberland, Hedge Hope is 2349 feet, and the Cheviot Hills 2657. The rest of the English hills are of far inferior altitude. The highest point in Derbyshire is Holme Moss, which is 1857 feet above the level of the sea. The Malvern Hills in Worcestershire are only 1444 feet, and the Wrekin in Shropshire 1624, which is near 200 feet lower than Brown Celay Hill in the same county. It may be observed, that the northern eminences in this list are chiefly composed of lime-stone, free-stone, slate, or schistus; that granite abounds in the Malvern Hills; and those of Chiltern are a mass of chalk, mingled with flint; while the Wrekin consists of a coarse grey whin, red on the surface, from the oxydation of its iron ore.

Forests.—The first Norman kings of England, partly for political purposes, that they might the more effectually enslave their new subjects, and partly from the wantonness of power, converted immense tracts of grounds into forests for hunting. These were governed by laws peculiar to themselves; so that it was necessary, about the time of passing Magna-Charta, to form a code of the forest-laws; and Justices in Eyre, so called from their sitting in the open air, were appointed to see them observed. By degrees those vast tracts were disforested; and the chief forests, properly so called, remaining out of no fewer than 69, are those of Windsor, New Forest, Dean, and Sherwood, of which New Forest is the most considerable. These forests formerly produced great quantities of excellent oak, elm, ash, and beech, beside walnut-trees, poplar, maple, and other kinds of wood. In ancient times England contained large woods, if not forests, of

rees, which exceeded all other kinds for the purposes of building, as ma many great houses still standing, he chestnut beams and roofs remain nd undecayed, though some of them 00 years old.

-The lakes of England are few; s evident from history and antiquity, , in some places, from the face of the ast meres and fens were frequent in ntil they were drained and converted : land. The chief meres remaining of Soham and Whittlesea in Cam-, and Ramsey in the county of Hunt-The lakes in Westmoreland, Lan-d Cumberland, are well known, neatly visited for their picturesque

SPRINGS, AND MINERAL WATERS.—in England add greatly to its beauty o its opulence. The Thames, which, ituation of the capital on its banks, laims the first place among the rivers l, rises on the confines of Gloucester-xle S. W. of Cirencester; and, after he many tributary streams of other asses to Oxford, then by Abingdon, rd, Reading, Marlow, and Windsor; Kingston, Richmond, and London; dividing Kent and Essex, falls into the Nore.

dway, which rises near Tunbridge, Thames at Sheerness, and is navigable rgest ships as far as Chatham. The ckoned the second river for import-agland, and the first for rapidity, rises mon-hill in North Wales; becomes at Welsh Pool; runs east to Shrews-n, turning south, visits Bridgenorth, r, and Tewkesbury, where it receives r Avon: after having passed Glouces-es a south-west direction; is, near its ncreased by the Wye and Uske, and s itself into the Bristol Channel, near l, where lie the great ships which et up to Bristol. The Trent rises in lands of Staffordshire, and, running t by Newcastle-under-Lyme, divides nty into two parts; then, turning t on the confines of Derbyshire, visits am, running the whole length of that) Lincolnshire, and, being joined by and several other rivers, toward the tains the name of the Humber, fall-he sea south-east of Hull.

r considerable river in England is the ich falls into the Humber after receiv-aters of many other rivers. A second s in Bucks, and falls into the sea near Norfolk. The Tyne takes its course t to east through Northumberland, into the German Sea at Tynemouth, wcastle. The Tees passes from west ividing Durham from Yorkshire, and the German Sea below Stockton. The s from west to east, on the borders of Scotland, and falls into the German Sea at Berwick. The Eden flows from south to north though Westmoreland and Cumberland, and, passing by Carlisle, falls into the Solway Frith. The Lower Avon runs west through Wiltshire to Bath, and then, dividing Somersetshire from Gloucestershire, proceeds to Bristol, falling into the mouth of the Severn below that city. The Derwent runs from east to west through Cumberland, and, passing by Cockermouth, falls into the Irish Sea, a little below. The Ribble runs from east to west through Lancashire, and, passing by Preston, discharges itself into the Irish Sea. The Mersey flows from the south-east to the north-west through Cheshire, and then, dividing Cheshire from Lancashire, passes by Liverpool, and falls into the Irish Sea a little below that town. The Dee rises in Wales, and divides Flintshire from Cheshire, falling into the Irish Channel below Chester.

The champaign parts of England are generally supplied with excellent springs and fountains, though a discerning palate may perceive that they frequently contain some mineral impregnation. In some very high lands, the inhabitants are distressed for want of water, and supply themselves by trenches, or by digging deep wells. The constitutions of the English, and the diseases to which they are liable, have rendered them extremely inquisitive after salubrious waters, for the recovery and preservation of their health; and, very fortunately, England contains as many mineral wells, of known efficacy, as perhaps any country in the world. The most celebrated are the hot-baths of Bath and Bristol in Somersetshire, and of Buxton and Matlock in Derbyshire; the mineral waters of Tunbridge, Epsom, Cheltenham, Harrowgate, and Scarborough. Sea water is also strongly recommended by the guardians of our health; and, so delicate is the tone of the English fibres, that the patients can perceive, both in drinking and bathing, a difference between the sea water of one coast and that of another.

CANALS.—Since the middle of the last century, a great number of navigable canals have been cut in various parts of England, which have greatly contributed to the improvement of the country, and the facilitation of commercial intercourse between the trading towns. The first, in point of date, is the Sankey canal, the act of parliament for which was obtained in 1755. It was cut to convey coal from the extensive pits at St. Helen's, near Prescot, to the Mersey, and to Liverpool, and is only 12 miles long. But the canals of the late duke of Bridgewater are of much greater importance, both for their extent, and the natural difficulties that were surmounted by the fertile genius of that extraordinary mechanic, Mr. Brindley. Of these great works, the first was begun in 1758, at Worsley-mill, about seven miles from *Manchester*, where a basin was formed, as a reservoir to the navigation. The canal runs through a hill, by a subterraneous passage large

enough for the admission of long flat-bottomed boats towed by hand-rails on each side, near three quarters of a mile, to the duke's coal-works. There the passage divides into two channels, one of which goes 500 yards to the right and the other as many to the left. In some places the passage is cut through solid rock, in others arched over with brick. Air-funnels, some of which are 37 yards perpendicular, are cut, at certain distances, through the rock at the top of the hill. At Barton-bridge, three miles from the basin, is an aqueduct, which, for more than 200 yards, conveys the canal across a valley and the navigable river Irwell. There are three arches over this river; the central one is 63 feet wide, and 38 feet high above the water, which will admit the largest barges to go through with masts and sails standing.

The Grand Trunk or Staffordshire canal was begun in 1766, under the direction of Mr. Brindley, in order to form a communication between the Mersey and Trent, and in consequence between the Irish Sea and the German Ocean; but it was not completed before 1777. Its length is 93 miles; it is 29 feet broad at the top; 26 at the bottom, and 5 deep. It is carried over the river Dove by an aqueduct of 23 arches, and over the Trent by one of 6. At the hill of Harecastle, in Staffordshire, it is conveyed through a tunnel more than 70 yards below the surface of the ground, and 2880 yards in length. In the same neighbourhood there is another subterraneous passage of 350 yards, and at Preston-on-the-Hill another, which is 1241 yards in length. From the neighbourhood of Stafford a branch goes off from this canal, and joins the Severn near Bewdley: two other branches go, one to Birmingham, and the other to Worcester.

The Braunston or Grand Junction canal, (so called from its uniting the inland navigation of the central counties) extends from the Thames at Brentford, to the Coventry canal at Braunston in Northamptonshire, and is 90 miles in length. The Ellesmere and Chester canal, which connects the Medway, the Dee, and the Severn, has a length of 61 miles, independent of its many collateral branches: it has two aqueducts, one of stone, 200 yards long, by which it crosses the river Ceiriog, and another, still more gigantic, more than 300 yards in length, formed of cast-iron plates, supported on 19 pairs of stone pillars, which, at an elevation of 125 feet above the river, bestrides the vale of the Dee, at Pont-y-Cysylte. Many other canals are carried over valleys in a similar manner. Hills, as the reader has already seen, are penetrated by tunnels. Among the longest tunnels, besides those already mentioned, are those of Blisworth, on the Grand Junction canal, 3080 yards; Marsden, on the Huddersfield, 5451; Sapperton, on the Thames and Severn, 2 and 3-8th miles; Pensax, on the Leominster, 3350 yards; and the tunnel on the Thames and Medway canal, which is 2 miles and a furlong in length. The total number of navigable canals in England and their aggregate length is nearly The following are the canals wh course of 30 miles and upwards. B 37; Birmingham and Liverpool, 39; and Abergavenny, 33; Duke of Bri 38½; Chesterfield, 46; Coventry, 32½ and Chester, 61; Grand Junction, Trunk, 93; Grand Union, 45; Gra Kennet and Avon, 50; Lancaster, 76 Liverpool, 127; Leominster, 37; (Rochdale, 31½; Royal Military, 3(shire and Worcestershire, 46½; T Severn, 30; and Wilts and Berks, 5 lowing are the canals which have t rise and fall. Chesterfield has a rise and a fall of 45; Grand Junction h 190 feet, and a fall of 466; Hudder rise of 334½ feet, and a fall of 436; Avon has a rise of 210 feet, and a Leeds and Liverpool has a rise of 41 fall of 433½; Leominster has a rise and a fall of 48; Rochdale has a rise and a fall of 353½; Shropshire has feet, and a fall of 207; Staffordshi cestershire has a rise of 294 feet, a 100½; Grand Trunk has a rise of 3 a fall of 324; and Wilts and Berks 170 feet, and a fall of 205.

RAILROADS.—Within the last tw change, almost amounting to a rev taken place in the mode of convey change has been effected by the exte duction of railroads, traversed by which steam is the locomotive pow rude idea of a railway, under the tramway, dates as far back as the n 17th century. The tramway seems t first used in the neighbourhood of upon-Tyne, to reduce the labour coals from the pits, and was of the ficial construction, consisting mere of wood imbedded in the ordinary perfect as the contrivance was, it p neficial that it gained ground in all districts. The first improvement (ar that a century elapsed before it was to level the earthen road, place v across it, and peg down upon the ba of tracks for the vehicles. Stoneway contrived, but they did not answer being defective in smoothness. I the year 1767, that cast-iron plate placed upon the wooden rails. Th ment was perfected, at a subsequer the invention of edgerails, which danger arising from the lodgment o dirt on the flat rail.

The first railway established in t as a distinct undertaking, and i public use, was the Surrey iron ra Wandsworth to Croydon, the c which was incorporated in 1801. In ing 20 years only 20 new railway were incorporated; but the Stockt llington railway, opened in 1825, a

unnelled, deep cuttings made
es, and magnificent viaducts
pleted. The earth-works on
lines are very extensive, often
),000 cubic yards per mile. On
Birmingham line alone, the
and stone removed was about
c yards, which if formed into
and 1 high, would more than
arth at the equator.

ıvested in the lines already
to between £60,000,000 and
ng, and the length of the lines
les. A single fact will give an
nse traffic which is carried on
ın the 260 miles connecting
gham, Liverpool, Manchester,
h the branch to Aylesbury, the
r the year ending June 30, 1840,
; and they have since largely

lone considerably more than a
sets have been passed. Among
ways are the Great Western
ndon and Birmingham, 112;
76½; South Eastern, 66; North
Grand Junction, 82½; Great
id, 76; Bristol and Exeter, 75½;
arlington, 64; Manchester and
5½; Manchester and Leeds,
Counties, 57; Newcastle and
l Brighton, 61.

MINERALS.—Among the mine-
ies of Cornwall deservedly take
were known to the Phœnicians

roof is supported by 25 pillars, each containing 294 solid yards of rock-salt. Cheshire likewise produces alum. The fuller's earth found in Berkshire, and in some other counties, is of considerable consequence to the clothing trade. Coal is found in many counties of England; but the city of London, to encourage the nursery of seamen, is chiefly supplied from the pits of Northumberland and the county of Durham. The cargoes are shipped at Newcastle and Sunderland. The exportation of coal to other countries is also very considerable. It has been remarked, as a providential or fortunate circumstance, that the countries which are most productive of metals, afford also an abundance of coal for the convenience of extracting and preparing the ore.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND AGRICULTURE.—England, from its insular situation and its proximity to the continent, is liable to a great uncertainty of weather; in consequence of which, the inhabitants, especially on several parts of the sea-coast, frequently suffer by agues and fevers. In many places, the air is loaded with vapours wafted from the Atlantic Ocean by westerly winds; and the weather is so excessively capricious, and unfavourable to certain constitutions, that many of the inhabitants are induced to remove to a more regular climate for the restoration of their health. It cannot, however, be considered as in general insalubrious.

In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons are very uncertain. Spring, summer, autumn, and winter, come by rotation; but in what month their different appearances

hardly ever observed that the inhabitants suffer by a hot summer.

The soil of England differs in every county, not merely from the nature of the ground—though that must occasion a very considerable alteration—but from the progress made in each in the cultivation of lands and gardens, the draining of marshes, and other local improvements, which are here prosecuted with greater skill and attention than in any other part of the world, if we except China. In no country is agriculture better understood. Excellent institutions for its improvement are now common in England; and their members publish periodical accounts of their discoveries and experiments. The proper cultivation of the soil is an object so peculiarly interesting to the community, that those who most assiduously attend to it are perhaps to be accounted the most meritorious citizens.

Vegetables.—England produces in abundance wheat, barley, rye, pease, beans, oats, and other grain. It is almost needless to mention, to the most uninformed reader, in what plenty the most excellent fruit, apples, pears, plums, cherries, peaches, apricots, nectarines, currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and other hortulan productions, grow here; and what quantities of cider, perry, metheglin, and the like liquors, are made in some counties. The cider of Devon and Herefordshire, when kept, and made of proper apples, and in a particular manner, is preferred by some palates to French white wine. The natives of England have made the different fruits of the world their own, sometimes by simple culture, often by hot-beds and other means of forcing nature. The English pine-apples are delicious; but they are not so abundant as to bear a moderate price. Our grapes are pleasing to the taste; yet their flavour is not exalted enough for making wine; and indeed wet weather injures the flavour of all other fine fruits raised in this country. A wonderful improvement has, of late years, taken place in the fruits of England, for a part of which we are indebted to the various horticultural societies. The same progress has been made in floriculture, and numbers of foreign plants have been naturalized in this country.

Woad for dyeing is cultivated in Bucks and Bedfordshire, as hemp and flax are in other counties. In nothing, however, have the English been more successful than in the cultivation of clover, cinquefoil, lucern, and other meliorating grasses for the soil. It belongs to a botanist to recount the various kinds of useful and salutary herbs, shrubs, and roots, that grow in different parts of England. The soil of Kent, Essex, Surrey, and Hampshire, is most favourable to the difficult and tender culture of hops.

Animals.—The English oxen are large and fat; but some prefer for the table the smaller breed of the Scotch and Welsh cattle, after they *have been fed in English pastures.* The English *horses are the best in the world,* whether we regard their spirit, strength, swiftness, or docility. Incredible have been the pains taken, by all ranks, for improving the breed of this favourite and noble animal; and the success has been answerable, for they now unite all the qualities and beauties of Indian, Persian, Arabian, and Spanish horses. The irresistible spirit and weight of the English cavalry render them superior to all others in war; and in a fox or stag chase an English hunter will perform what would appear incredible.

The English sheep are of two kinds; those which are valuable for their fleeces, and those that are proper for the table. The former are very large, and their fleeces constitute the original staple commodity of England. In some counties the inhabitants are as curious in their breed of rams, as in those of their horses and dogs. Mr. Bakewell was particularly famous for his improvements in the breed of sheep. The finest fleeces are those of Herefordshire, Gloucestershire, and Devonshire, while the South-down sheep furnish the most delicate food.

The English mastiffs and bull-dogs are said to be the strongest and fiercest of the canine species in the world; but, either from the change of soil or feeding, they degenerate in foreign climates. James I., by way of experiment, is said to have turned out two English bull-dogs upon one of the fiercest lions in the Tower, and they soon conquered him. The same experiment has been tried in modern times, but not with equal success; the lion being the victor. The mastiff has all the courage of a bull-dog, without its ferocity, and is particularly distinguished for his fidelity and docility. All the different species of dogs that abound in other countries, for the field as well as domestic uses, are to be found in England.

What has been observed of the degeneracy of the English dogs in foreign countries, is applicable to the English game-cocks. The courage of these birds is astonishing, and one of the true breed never leaves the pit alive without victory. The proprietors and feeders of this generous animal are likewise extremely curious as to his blood and pedigree; but we do not see the necessity of keeping up this sort of animal courage, because the feelings which excite it are not those of a civilized being.

Of the wild quadrupeds of this country, the different kinds are not very numerous. We have the wild cat, the fox, the badger, the weasel, the otter, and some others. Deer abound in the parks of the gentry, contributing both to the amusement of the hunter and the luxury of the epicure.

Tame birds are much the same in England as in other countries. The wild sorts are the bustards, widgeons, plovers, pheasants, partridges, woodcocks, grouse, quail, landrail, snipes, wood-pigeons, hawks of different kinds, kites, owls, herons, crows, rooks, ravens, magpies, daws, jays, blackbirds, thrushes, nightingales, goldfinches, linnets, larks, and a great

of small birds; Canary birds also breed
land. The wheat-ear is by many pre-
to the ortolan, for the delicacy of its flesh
vour, and is peculiar to England.

countries are better supplied than Eng-
ith river and sea fish. Her rivers and
contain plenty of salmon, trout, eels,
erch, smelts, carp, tench, barbel, gud-
roach, dace, grey mullets, bream, plaice,
rs, and cray-fish. A delicate fish, called
s found in some fresh-water lakes of
and Cumberland. The sea-fish are cod,
rel, haddock, whiting, herrings, pilchards,
and soles. The dory, found toward the
s coast, which was brought into repute
n, the celebrated actor, is reckoned a
elicacy, as is the red mullet. Several
sh are found on the same coast. Lob-
rabs, oysters, shrimps, scallops, and
other small shell-fish, abound in the
sea. The whales chiefly visit the
n coast; but great numbers of porpoises
ls appear in the Channel.

RAL CURIOSITIES.—Among the natural
ies of this country, those of Derbyshire
to deserve the first place. Elden Hole
sem in the side of a mountain, nearly
wide and 14 long, diminishing in extent
the rock. A plummet once drew 884
f line after it, of which the last 80 were
thout finding a bottom. The entrance
e's Hole, near Buxton, for several paces
low, but soon opens into a very lofty
like the inside of a Gothic cathedral. A
: of water, which runs along the middle,
y its sounding re-echoed stream, very
o the astonishment of all who visit this
vern. The drops of water which hang
the roof, and on the sides, have an
g effect; for they not only reflect num-
rays from the candles carried by the
, but, as they are of a petrifying quality,
rden in several places into various forms,
with the help of a strong imagination,
ass for lions, fonts, organs, and the like.
ntrance into the stupendous cavern at
ton is wide at first, and more than 30 feet
dicular. Several cottagers dwell under
in a great measure subsist by guiding
ers into the cavern, which is crossed by
reams of water, and then is thought im-
le. The vault, in several places, makes
tiful appearance, being chequered with
coloured stones.

r extraordinary caverns are found in the
ains of the north of England, as Yordas
n Kingsdale, Yorkshire, which contains
rranceous cascade. Wethercot Cave, not
m Ingleton, is divided by an arch of lime-
passing under which is seen a large cas-
lling from a height of more than 20 yards.
ngth of this cave is about 60 yards, and
adth 30. It is in the limestone forma-
at caves are most frequent. In some of
caves are *found the bones of animals
no longer exist in England. One of* these caves is at Kirkdale, near Kirby Moor-side, in Yorkshire. It is about 245 feet in extent, and has nearly a level floor, on which is generally a bed of mud, covered by an irregular layer of stalagmite. In this bed and layer are the bones of the elephant, hippopotamus, rhinoceros, horse, fells, bear, wolf, fox, weasel, ox, three kinds of deer, hare, rabbit, water rat, mouse, raven, pigeon, lark, duck, and snipe. But the greatest number of bones belong to the hyæna; the teeth of which are found in every condition, from the milk-tooth to the old worn stump. The excrement of the hyæna is also abundant. The bones of the other animals have evidently been gnawed. Dr. Buckland concludes, and his opinion is generally acquiesced in, that this cave was a den of hyænas, during the period when elephants and hippopotami (not of existing species) lived in the northern regions of the globe, and that they dragged into it for food the bodies of animals which frequented the vicinity. In the Mendip hills, in Somersetshire, there are similar caverns, of considerable magnitude, at Uphill, Hutton, and Banwell. In these are found the bones of several of the species already mentioned, and among them those of the hyæna. At Banwell, one of the caverns is beautifully incrusted with stalactite, and when lighted up has a splendid appearance.

There are also, in various parts of England, many remarkable springs, of which some are impregnated with salt, as that of Droitwich, in Worcestershire; or with bituminous matter, as that at Pitchford, in Shropshire. Others have a petrifying quality, as that near Lutterworth, in Leicestershire, and a dropping well in the West Riding of Yorkshire. Some ebb and flow, as those of the Peak, in Derbyshire; that of Settle, in Yorkshire; and Laywell, near Torbay.

POPULATION.—At the time of the Norman Conquest, England, in the opinion of Sir Matthew Hale and Mr. Gregory King, scarcely contained 2,000,000 persons; but this is mere supposition, and the calculation is seemingly too low. In the year 1600, the number of inhabitants, in all probability, exceeded 4,250,000. In 1700, it is supposed that above 5,100,000 persons occupied the country; but the amount declined in the ensuing ten years, in the ratio of a twentieth part. The lost number, however, was soon regained; and, in 1802, the population exceeded 8,330,000; in 1811, it was above 9,500,000; and, in 1821, it rose to 11,261,437; of which number 1,173,187 belonged to Yorkshire, and 1,114,531 were included in Middlesex; in 1831, it was 13,091,005; and in 1841, it had risen to 14,995,508. In this number is not included the population of the islands in the British seas (Man, Jersey, &c. &c.,) which in 1831 was 103,710; and in 1841 had increased to 124,079.

NATIONAL CHARACTER — MANNERS — CUSTOMS.—Englishmen, in their persons, are generally regularly-featured, commonly fair, well-

formed, and florid in their complexions. The women, in their shape, features, and complexion, appear so graceful and lovely, that England may be termed the native country of female beauty. But, beside the external graces so peculiar to the women in England, they are still more to be valued for their prudent behaviour, a tender affection for their husbands and children, and all the engaging duties of domestic life.

In their dispositions the English are rather grave and phlegmatic, but not without an occasional mixture of vivacity, as they are perhaps not inferior to any nation in true wit and genuine humour. They are remarkable for a nervous sensibility, which has been considered as one of the sources of those singularities which so strongly characterize the English nation. They sometimes magnify the slightest appearances into realities, and bring the most distant dangers immediately home to themselves; and yet, when real danger approaches, no people face it with greater resolution or constancy of mind. They are fond of clubs and convivial associations; and, when these are kept within the bounds of temperance and moderation, they prove the best cure for those mental evils, which are so peculiar to the English, that foreigners have pronounced them to be national.

The English nobility and gentry of great fortunes now in some measure assimilate their manners to those of foreigners, with whom they cultivate a more frequent intercourse than their forefathers did. They do not now travel only as pupils, to bring home the vices of the countries they visit, under the tuition perhaps of a despicable pedant, or family dependent; but they travel for the purposes of society, and at the more advanced ages of life, when their judgments are mature, and their passions regulated. This has enlarged society in England, which foreigners now visit almost as frequently as Englishmen visited them; and the effects of the intercourse become daily more visible, especially as it is not now, as formerly, confined to one sex.

Such of the English gentlemen as do not enter into the higher walks of life, affect a comfortable rather than a splendid way of living. They study, and understand better than any people in the world, conveniency in their houses, gardens, equipages, and estates; and they spare no cost to purchase it. It has, however, been observed, that this turn of mind renders them less communicative than they ought to be; but, on the other hand, the few connexions they form are sincere, cheerful, and indissoluble. The like habits are observable among tradesmen. Comfort is more studied by the English than by any other people, and is the ultimate end of all their application, labours, and fatigues.

The English manifest their humanity in their *large subscriptions for public* charities. The *persons who contribute to those* collections are at the same time assessed in proportion to their property, for the parochial poor, who have a legal demand for their maintenance; yet, even at this day, when the poor-rates have risen to an alarming height, spontaneous liberality flows in a very copious stream.

The unevenness of the English in their conversation is very remarkable: sometimes it is delicate, sprightly, and replete with true wit; sometimes it is solid, ingenious, and argumentative; sometimes it is cold and phlegmatic, so as almost to excite disgust; and all in the same person. In many of their convivial meetings they are very noisy, and their wit is often offensive, while the loudest are the most applauded. This is more particularly the case in large companies; but, in smaller and more select parties, all the pleasures of rational conversation and agreeable society are enjoyed in England in a very high degree.

The courage of the English is cool and firm; if they have not that ardour of attack which the French sometimes display, they can support and defeat such an attack. Their soldiers will push onward and forbear to fire in the face of danger; but, when they deliver it, it has a most dreadful effect upon their enemies. Their seamen are equal in point of intrepidity to those of any other nation, and superior in alertness and skill.

For invention, the English are not so remarkable as they are for their improvements upon the inventions of others; and in the mechanical arts they far surpass all their contemporaries. The intense application which an Englishman gives to a favourite study is incredible, and, as it were, absorbs all his other ideas. This is the cause of the numerous instances of mental absence that are to be found in the nation.

One quality remains to be mentioned, not indeed as peculiar to the English, but as marking their character in a high degree—we mean public spirit, or zeal for the service, honour, interest, and prosperity of the country. But it has been remarked, by a writer who prefers truth to flattery, that "this exterior patriotism does not preclude the most shameless rapacity among those who ostensibly serve the state. However insignificant may be their services, they seem to think that they cannot be too profusely rewarded. In this point all parties agree; and the people severely suffer by this systematic rapine. We are far from recommending an illiberal treatment of persons who are thought worthy of public employment; but the grant of large pensions for life, in return for a short term of service, cannot be justified: still less can that misplaced lenity or connivance be vindicated, which suffers the base purloiners of the public money to escape exemplary punishment, when ordinary robbery, which is certainly not more criminal, is deemed a capital offence." A most flagrant instance of this has recently occurred with respect to the forgery of exchequer bills to a vast amount.

The English are not so devoted to amusement

he French; yet they are far from being dis-
lined to occasional diversions. They are
d of dramatic exhibitions, of operas, con-
rts, masquerades; and, in almost every pro-
ncial town, there are periodical assemblies
r cards and dancing. Their attention is
rongly excited by horse-races; hunting and
oning are pursued with avidity by many of
e gentry, who also amuse themselves with
destruction of feathered game. Cockfight-
, which was formerly a favourite diversion,
nearly disused; and bull-baiting is deservedly
lling into neglect. The athletic diversion of
cket is still kept up, and is sometimes prac-
ed by persons of the highest rank. Many
er pastimes are common in England, such as
celling, wrestling, and playing with bowls,
-pins, and quoits; and, above all, ringing
ells, a species of music which the English
ve they have brought to an art, but which,
ose who reside near the scene of action, is
an intolerable nuisance. The barbarous
rsions of boxing and prize-fighting, which
e as frequent in England as the shows of
iators in Rome, are now prohibited, though
practised; and all places of public diver-
are under strict regulations. Swimming,
ing, rowing, and sailing, may likewise be
tioned among the diversions of our coun-
men. The last, if not introduced, was pa-
ized and encouraged by Frederic prince of
es, and may be considered as a national
rovement. The English are also fond of
ing, in which, however, they are not very
rt; but they are adventurous in it, often
he danger and loss of their lives.

ITIES—CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES PUBLIC
PRIVATE.—London, the metropolis of the
ish empire, appears to have been founded
ween the reigns of Julius Cæsar and Nero;
by whom, is uncertain: for we are told by
itus, that it was a place of great trade in
's time, and soon after became the capital
he island. It was first walled round, with
n stones and British bricks, by Constantine
Great; and the walls formed an oblong
are, in compass about three miles, with
e principal gates.

ondon is now, what ancient Rome once was,
seat of liberty, the encourager of arts, and
admiration of the world. It is the centre
rade; it has an intimate connexion with all
countries in the kingdom; it is the grand
rt of the nation, to which the active and
ustrious provincials send their commodities,
ence they are diffused over the world. Hence,
numerable carriages by land and water are
stantly employed; and hence arises the cir-
ation in the national body, which renders
ry part healthful and vigorous—a circula-
n that is equally beneficial to the head and
most distant members.

This city is situated on the banks of the
mes, a river which is remarkably commo-
ous for commerce, *and is continually filled*
th vessels sailing to or from the most remote
climates. For ages, it was destitute of large wet docks; but, within our own times, four capital works of that description have marked the opulence of the city and the India Company —the West India Docks in the Isle of Dogs, the London Docks at Wapping, the East India Docks at Blackwall, and the St. Katherine's Docks, near the Tower.

As London is about 60 miles distant from the sea, it enjoys, by means of its noble river, all the benefits of navigation, without the danger of being surprised by foreign fleets, or of being annoyed by the vapours of the sea. It rises regularly from the water-side, and, extending itself on both sides along its banks, reaches a great length from east to west, in a kind of amphitheatre toward the north, and is continued for many miles on all sides, in a succession of villas and villages. Its irregular form makes it difficult to ascertain its extent. However, its length from east to west is above 6 miles, from Hyde Park Corner to Poplar; and its breadth in some places 3, in others 2, and, in some, considerably less than 1. But, if we regard merely continuity of buildings, its length is much greater; for, from Hyde Park Corner to Brentford End, there extends an almost unbroken line of houses, for a space of nearly 8 miles. The same is the case to the northward and southward. Hence, the circumference of the whole is more than 20 miles.

In London, properly so called, that is, the part situated within the walls—which, however, is by far the smallest portion of the metropolis—are 98 parishes; in the city without the walls, 11; and in Westminster, 10. Of the two former divisions, the population, in 1821, was calculated at 125,434 individuals, occupying 17,170 houses; while Westminster had 182,085 inhabitants, in 18,502 houses. In 1831 the inhabitants of the two parts of London had diminished to 182,395, living in 17,315 houses, while Westminster had increased to 202,460 persons, residing in 21,893 houses. The trifling diminution in the city arose from houses being converted into offices, or pulled down to widen streets, and the inhabitants consequently taking up their abode in the suburbs. The number of persons contained in London, Westminster, Southwark, and the villages which wholly or nearly join them on all sides is, at this moment, considerably more than 1,750,000. In 1831, the population of Middlesex was 1,358,000; in 1841, it was 1,576,616. Inhabited houses in 1831, 180,493; in 1841, 207,670.

Among the most important objects of the metropolis are its bridges. Old London Bridge was first built of stone in the reign of Henry II., about the year 1163, by a tax upon wool. It was at various times altered and improved, particularly in 1756, when the houses which were on it were taken down, and the whole was rendered somewhat more convenient. It crossed the Thames, where it is 915 feet broad, and had *19 arches* irregularly built; the only arch of any *width being* the central one. By its contrac-

iety of Sebert, king of
ied in 616. Edward the
nastery and a church
nation; but the bulk of
nas reared by Henry III.
e of Henry VII. added a
st end of it. This is the
cessed British kings and
re also monuments erected
many great and illustrious
and military commanders,
, &c. Time having defaced
some years ago, renewed on
; but too soft a stone is said
en for the purpose, so that,
ol, new repairs will probably

e church of St. Stephen, Wal-
for its lightness and elegance,
to the memory of Sir Christo-
e same may be said of the
Mary-le-Bow, and St. Bride,
sed to be the most complete
ny in Europe. The simplicity
the church of Covent Garden,
mes, is worthy of the purest ages
itecture. That of St. Martin-
hich was long hidden from view
ican houses, has been released,
provements which have taken
inity, and may now be contem-
serves. Several of the new
gant taste; and some of the
race and proportion to recom-

ng-house at Whitehall is only
rt of a noble palace designed
for the royal residence; and, as
nder all its disadvantages, its
ornaments are in the highest
ution of architecture. It was
pidated state, but has been re-
stine beauty. Westminster Hall,
outside it makes no very advan-
ance, is a noble Gothic building,
e the largest room in the world,
oof is not supported by pillars;
et long, and 70 broad. The roof
its kind. Here are solemnized
-feasts of our kings and queens;
hancellor and the twelve judges

rts.

ent, erected at the charge of the
tuate the memory of the great
of notice. This column, which
e order, exceeds all the obelisks
the ancients, it being 202 feet
tain-case in the middle to ascend
y, whence there are other steps
hich is fashioned like an urn, with
ag from it. On the base of the
ext the street, the destruction of
the relief given to the sufferers
t. and his brother, are emblemati-
ated in bas-relief; but the inscrip-

tion, now obliterated, long asserted a gross false-
hood, in attributing the fire to the papists. At
the termination of the magnificent street which
extends from Regent's Park to St. James's
Park, and at the entrance into the latter Park,
stands another column, erected in honour of
the late Duke of York. Its total height, in-
cluding the statue, is 138 feet. A third column
is now in process of erection in Trafalgar
Square. It is to be called the Nelson Column,
and will have an altitude of 193 feet.

This great and populous city is supplied with
abundance of fresh water, from the Thames
and a canal called the New River. Not only
is this supply of essential service to every
family, but, by means of fire-plugs, everywhere
dispersed, the keys of which are deposited
with the parish officers, the city is in a great
measure secured from the spreading of fire.

Before the conflagration in 1666, London,
(which, like most other great cities, had arisen
from small beginnings,) was totally inelegant,
inconvenient, and unhealthy; which last mis-
fortune, without doubt, proceeded from the
narrowness of the streets, and the unaccount-
able projections of the buildings, that confined
the putrid air, and, joined with other circum-
stances, such as the want of a proper supply of
water, rendered the city seldom free from pes-
tilential contagion. That dreadful fire was
productive of consequences which made ample
amends for the losses sustained by individuals:
a new city arose on the ruins of the old; but,
though more regular, open, convenient, and
healthful than the former, it by no means had
the character of magnificence or elegance, in
many particulars; and it is ever to be lamented
that the magnificent, elegant, and useful plan
of the great Sir Christopher Wren was totally
disregarded, and sacrificed to mean and selfish
views.

The plan of London, in its present state, will
in many instances appear, to very moderate
judges, to be as injudicious a disposition as can
easily be conceived for a city of extensive com-
merce, on the border of so noble a river as the
Thames. The wharfs and quays on its banks
are extremely mean and inconvenient; and the
want of regularity and uniformity in the street
of the city of London, and the mean avenue
to many parts of it, are circumstances that
greatly lessen the grandeur of its appearance.
Many of the churches, and other public build-
ings, are likewise thrust up in corners, in su
a manner as might tempt foreigners to belie
that they were intended to be concealed.
improvements of London and Westminster,
some years past, have however been very gr
and the new streets, which are numerous,
not only spacious, but are built with
regularity and elegance.

When improvements at length began
contemplated, Durham Yard, being privat
perty, engaged the notice of the ingenio
thers of the name of Adam, who raise
arches, the pile of the Adelphi, celebr

its prospect, the utility of its wharfs, and its subterraneous apartments, answering a variety of purposes of general benefit. Not far from this spot stands Somerset House, where buildings for public offices were erected by Sir William Chambers, many years ago, on a magnificent scale, worthy of a great nation. Moorfields, long a waste and mean part of the town, became the site of Finsbury Square, more regular and elegant than some of those at the west end of the metropolis. The narrow and inconvenient passage of Snow Hill was opened by a spacious street of lofty and elegant houses. A similar improvement was, about the same time, carried into effect to the westward of Temple Bar, notwithstanding the preservation of the ancient gate and the intervention of St. Clement's church.

For many years subsequently, improvement was wholly at a stand. The nation was too busily engaged in war, and too heavily burdened, to spend thought or money upon any internal objects which were not connected with commerce and profit. But a more liberal spirit was aroused by George IV. To him we are indebted for the formation of the Regent's Park, and the noble street called Regent Street, perhaps the finest in Europe. This street was opened in 1821. By the making of this street and park, an important benefit was conferred upon the public, by the clearing away of a crowded and unwholesome neighbourhood, the frustration of a scheme for building 5000 houses on the ground now laid out as a park, and the admission of a current of pure air from the country into the heart of the metropolis. Connected with this alteration was the widening of Pall Mall, the laying open of the space between the Opera House and St. Martin's church, the destroying a pestilential labyrinth of alleys on the north side of the Strand, and the enlargement of the Strand itself from Charing Cross to Exeter Change. Since that time the march of improvement has been rapid. The communication, already mentioned, between New London Bridge and Finsbury has been formed, the nuisance of Fleet Market has been removed, and a new street has been commenced, which is to pass from that quarter to Clerkenwell. Another new street is also rapidly in progress, to extend from the Post Office to the Bank. Acts have likewise been obtained for opening additional communications between Coventry Street and Long Acre, Long Acre and Bedford Square, and Oxford Street and Southampton Street, Holborn. In the west of London, both north and south of Hyde Park, between the Thames and Paddington, numerous splendid streets, squares, and crescents, have been built, and others are constantly rising up. A new park is on the point of being made between Bethnal Green and Bow, and another is projected on the Surrey side of the metropolis.

Foreigners were long surprised that the *monarch of the richest nation in* Europe should *be so indifferently lodged in his* capital. The palace of St. James is commodious, but has the air of a monastery; and that of Kensington, which was purchased from the Finch family by king William, is remarkable only for its gardens. An attempt has been made to supply the deficiency; but the new edifice, called Buckingham Palace, though not devoid of merit, is by no means a perfect specimen of architecture. Windsor Castle is the only palace that merits the name of a royal palace in England; and, till of late, it was so chiefly through its beautiful and commanding situation, which, with the form of its construction, rendered it, before the introduction of artillery, impregnable. But, within the last few years, it has received such additions and improvements as render it worthy of being the residence of a monarch. Hampton Court was the favourite residence of king William. Both these palaces have some good pictures, but nothing equal to the magnificent collection made by Charles I., and dissipated in the civil war.

As, in our limited space, it would be impossible to describe all the public buildings, we will only indicate to the reader those which are most worthy of notice for their architecture. *Churches and Chapels.*—St. Paul's; St. Stephen's, Walbrook; St. Paul's, Covent Garden; Whitehall Chapel; St. George's, Hanover Square; St. Martin's; St. George's, Bloomsbury; St. Pancras Church; Hanover Chapel, Regent Street; St. Mark's, North Audley Street; Scotch Church, Regent's Square; St. Dunstan's in the East; St. Dunstan's in the West; St. George's, Woburn Square; and Synagogue, Great St. Helen's. *Bridges.*—Westminster, Waterloo, Blackfriars, Southwark, and London. *Columns.*—The Monument, Duke of York's, and Nelson's. *Hospitals.*—Bethlehem, St. Katherine's, St. George's, Charing Cross, Westminster, and St. Thomas's. *Universities, Schools, &c.*—London Institution, London University, St. Paul's School, Law Institution, School for Indigent Blind, St. Anne's School, College of Physicians, and College of Surgeons. *Theatres.*—Covent Garden, Drury Lane, St. James's, and Opera House. *Public Buildings and Offices.*—Buckingham Palace, National Gallery, British Museum, Somerset House, Mint, Excise Office, Custom House, Board of Trade, Horse Guards, State Paper Office, Bank, India House, Mansion House, Newgate, Clerkenwell Sessions House, New Corn Exchange, Ironmonger's Hall, Christ Church Hospital Hall, Fishmongers' Hall, Goldsmiths' Hall, and Exeter Hall. *Miscellaneous.*—York Stairs, Adelphi, Colosseum; Union, Athenæum, Travellers', United University, and Reform Club Houses; Archways, Green and Hyde Parks; Lowther Arcade, Hungerford Market, Pantheon Bazaar; Railway Terminus, Euston Square; and London and Westminster Bank.

Among the improvements which have been made for the benefit of the metropolis, not one of the least has been the formation of extensive

short distances from the metro-
f these have been already esta-
Kensal Green, Highgate, Stoke
Nell's Court, Norwood, and Nun-
ve of great extent, and laid out
ne manner.

royal palaces, if not superior, in
and expensive decorations, are
seats in the neighbourhood of
n every part of the kingdom, in
eidence of the English nation
in its fullest point of view. In
princely fortunes of the nobility
observient to the finest classical
rticularly at the seats of the duke
n and the earl of Pembroke. At
latter, more remains of antiquity
d than are in the possession of,
ther subject. The houses of the
ntry are peculiarly distinguished
riate adaptation of their parts,
and elegance of their furniture,
rable preservation in which the
t; as well as by their hortulan
corations, vistas, opening land-
s—all the result of that enchant-
ating nature, and uniting beauty
ence.

e expected that we should here
particular detail of all the cities
England, which would far exceed
this work: we shall therefore only
e of the most considerable.

ity of great antiquity, pleasantly
he river Ouse. Here are 23 pa-
s, and a very noble cathedral, or
of the finest Gothic buildings
It extends in length 525 feet, and
10 feet. The nave is larger than
endom, except that of St. Peter's
ne. The windows are finely painted,
of the choir is adorned with statues
gs of England, from William the
Henry VI.; and there are 32 stalls,
marble, with pillars, each con-
e piece of alabaster. This fine
twice, within the last ten years,
injured by fire; once, by an insane
the second time by carelessness.
t restored to its pristine beauty.
hedral is the Assembly House, a
are, designed by the earl of Bur-
ny of the provincial gentry reside
during the winter; but it has few
s and little trade, and is not very
e number of the inhabitants not
; 20,000.

an ancient city, which is most
r situated. Its appearance is gra-
ribed by Howitt. "Whichever way
Durham," says he, "you are first
he great central tower of the ca-
ng over the hills that envelop the
colossal, massy, and silent. Anon
t of it; but *again you mark it, so-
ing, like some Titan watcher, and* it well prepares the mind for the view of the whole great pile, which presently opens upon you. Every traveller must be sensibly impressed with the bold beauty of Durham, on the first view. As he emerges from some defile in these hills, which, farther off, hide from him all but that one great tower, he sees before him a wide, open valley, in the centre of which a fine mount stands crowned with the ancient clustered houses of Durham; the turrets and battlements of its old and now restored castle rising above them, and again, above all, soaring high into the air, the noble towers and pinnacles of its Norman minster. Around recede, in manifold forms, the higher hills, as if intended by nature to give at once beauty and retirement to this splendid seat of ancient religion. From various points of these hills the city looks quite magnificent. The old town, with its red roofs, runs along the ridges of the lower hills, and these higher ones are thrown into knolls and dells, with their green crofts and wooded clumps and lines of trees. The whole surrounding scenery in fact is beautiful." Viewed in some other directions, the scene is, if possible, still more striking. The population of Durham, in 1831, was 10,125.

Liverpool, which, in 1700, had only about 3000 inhabitants, had 77,650 in 1801, which rose to 165,175, in 1831, and, in 1841, to 223,054. Its situation, naturally advantageous, has been greatly improved by art. It has an excellent harbour, furnished with many wet and dry docks. In the traffic for slaves, it had the largest share; and, since the abolition of that odious branch of trade, it has prosecuted general commerce to such an extent, as to command a fourth part of the aggregate foreign trade of Great Britain. Among its numerous splendid buildings the Town Hall occupies a conspicuous place.

Bristol, which was for centuries the second commercial city in Great Britain, now ranks as the third. It has a picturesque appearance on approaching it, a part of it rising up a hill, but it is not in general well built; though it contains a fine quay, a handsome exchange, a stately ancient cross, some elegant halls of trading companies, and one of the most beautiful Gothic churches which the kingdom can exhibit. By turning the Avon into a new channel, and other judicious operations, the inhabitants formed a capacious dock, over a space of 35 acres, to remedy that inconvenience which attended the reflux of the tide, when the vessels ceased for a time to float. Many branches of art are prosecuted in this city with zealous industry. Works of iron, brass, and lead, are carried on; cannon, during the war, were bored by the powerful aid of a steam-engine; the glass manufacture flourishes; and many articles of clothing are well fabricated. The population of the city and suburbs, in 1831, was 104,886; and it has since increased.

*The neigh*bouring city of Bath took its name *from some* natural hot baths, for the medicinal

virtues of which this place has been long celebrated. In the spring, it is most frequented for health, and in the autumn for pleasure; when at least two thirds of the company, consisting chiefly of persons of rank and fortune, come to partake of the amusements of the place. In some seasons there have been 8000 persons at Bath, beside its ordinary inhabitants, who amount to about 50,000. Some of the modern buildings are extremely elegant, particularly Queen Square, the North and South Parade, the Royal Forum, the Circus, the new and the old Crescent. Of the old town, the cathedral is the most striking ornament. A fine tower rises from the centre: the western window is particularly admired; and the interior displays many handsome monuments. The charitable institutions of Bath are numerous and well conducted; and it boasts of an agricultural and a philosophical society.

Exeter, which stands on the eastern bank of the river Exe, was for some time the seat of the West Saxon kings; and the walls, which at this time enclose it, were built by Athelstan. It has a magnificent cathedral, 408 feet in length. The height of the vaulted roof is 69 feet, and that of the Norman towers, which form the transept, are 130 feet to the top of the battlements. It has also 16 parish churches, beside chapels and meeting-houses. Its trade is very considerable in coarse woollen goods; and it employs vessels in the Newfoundland and Greenland fisheries. Its inhabitants are about 30,000,

Manchester, anciently a Roman station, though far larger than the capitals of many extensive states, was long considered only as a village, and did not, till within the last ten years, attain the dignity of a parliamentary borough. It is situated upon the Irwell, in Lancashire, and is the centre of the cotton manufactory, to which it is indebted for its greatness. It also participates largely in the manufacture of silks and lace. In 1835, Manchester contained 127 cotton-mills, including 6205 steam-engines, 17 silk, and 6 woollen and flax. The number of the power-looms was 12,708 for calicoes, 2381 for fustians, 545 for small cotton wares, 306 for silk, and 20 for wool. The number of factories and power-looms has since been considerably increased. The town contains many splendid edifices, among which are the Exchange, the Infirmary, the Town Hall, the Royal Institution, the Portico, and the Athenæum. In 1585, Manchester was estimated to contain 10,000 persons, doubled in 1635, and in 1774 still only 41,000. Since that time the progress has been continual and rapid. The amount of 142,000 for 1831, by no means comprehends the large towns which form really its suburbs, and raise the whole to 270,000. The most important are Salford, immediately contiguous, now a borough; and Chorlton Row, which in 1801 contained 675 *Inhabitants, and, in 1831, 20,565.* By the census *of 1841, the superintendent* registrar's districts of Manchester, Salford, and Chorlton have no less than 356,872 inhabitants

Leeds, which is seated on the dec summit of a hill, on the north bank o Aire, in Yorkshire, holds the same p regard to the woollen manufacture chester does to the cotton. Not only itself, but in a wide circle of populc is the woollen manufacture carried o extent. In 1835, Leeds contained 7 factories, 10 worsted, 25 flax, and 2 whole number in the west riding wa len, 199 worsted, 126 cotton, 64 flax, The cloth is sold at Leeds in two which are open only twice in a week only for an hour and a half each day. cloth hall is a quadrangular building long and 66 broad, and contains 1800 The white cloth hall has 210. Leeds h scientific and charitable institutions, some public buildings. In 1717 its p was only 17,017; in 1831, with that of t it was 123,393; and in 1841, the registr was 168,667, which, however, probabl a part of the neighbouring district.

Norwich, another manufacturing the see of a bishop, is in Norfolk, an sible by large vessels from the sea. articles made here are bombasin camlets, and other fabrics compose and worsted, shawls, damasks, pieces. Norwich has a fine cathedr rious handsome public edifices. Ir population was 61,110.

Nottingham, the capital of the cou same name, is situated on the Tre celebrated for the stocking and lace ture. The stocking frames are 10,0 ber, and the lace machines in the neighbourhood are about 2300. The p in 1831 was 50,680.

Birmingham, which Burke has den "the toy-shop of Europe," is situate wickshire. It may be considered as t of the iron-working district. "Th manufactured in Birmingham consist measure of such as individually appe thy of being named, yet astonish and their magnitude, when half the worl supplied with them; such as pins, nails, paper trays, filligree, and toys. not wanting, however, fabrics of gre nitude, taken even singly; such as th arms, &c. During the last war, the g of Birmingham met the demand energy, that, on one occasion, they de government 14,000 muskets in one ponderous machinery, none is perh interesting than that of the metal roll Steel pens have recently been produc supposed amount of 10,000,000. M loch estimates its manufactures alto £3,000,000." The gigantic manufact late Bolton and Watt is at Soho, in nity. The public edifices of Birmingl a few exceptions, are not remarkable

tectural beauty. The population in 1831 was 146,986.

Sheffield, situated on an eminence, near the confluence of the rivers Don and Sheafe, in Yorkshire, has always been celebrated for its manufactures of cutlery. Almost every iron article that can be named is fabricated in this town; but especially surgical instruments, knives, forks, razors, scissors, snuffers, buttons, files, saws, sickles, &c. "The cutlers of Sheffield keep many hundred patterns of knives, of which some are of the value of 7 or 8 guineas, containing 28 blades within the handle, while others, after passing through a multitude of different hands, are sold for a penny each." The business of silver-plating is also extensively carried on here, and immense quantities of cast steel are made. Sheffield has several scientific and charitable institutions. Its population in 1831 was 69,011; in 1841 it was 85,076.

No other nation has such dock-yards, with all conveniences for naval construction and repairs, as Portsmouth, Plymouth, Sheerness, Chatham, Woolwich, and Deptford. The harbour of Plymouth is protected from the violence of the Atlantic by an enormous mole, or breakwater, across the Sound. It is 1760 yards in length, and 120 in breadth, and consists of vast blocks of granite, each of which weighs several tons. The Royal Hospital at Greenwich, for superannuated seamen, is scarcely exceeded by any royal palace, for its magnificence and expense; and Chelsea Hospital also deserves honourable mention, as a comfortable retreat for aged, infirm, or disabled soldiers, and a noble monument of national gratitude and liberality.

Commerce and Manufactures.—It is well known that commerce and manufactures have raised the English to be the first and most powerful people in the world; but it was not before the reign of Elizabeth that England began to feel her true weight in the scale of commerce. She planned some settlements in America, particularly Virginia, but left the expense attending them to be defrayed by her subjects; and indeed she was too parsimonious to carry her own notions of trade into execution. James I. was an encourager of trade; the India Company flourished in his reign; and British America saw her most valuable colonies rise under him and his family. The spirit of commerce kept pace with that of liberty; and, though the Stuarts were not friendly to the latter, yet, during the reigns of the princes of that family, the trade of the nation greatly increased. It is not intended to follow commerce through all her fluctuations, but only to give a general representation of the commercial interest of the nation.

The present system of English politics may properly be said to have taken rise in the reign of Elizabeth. At that time the Protestant religion was established, which naturally allied us to the reformed states, and made all the popish powers our enemies. *We began in the same reign to extend our trade; and hence it* became necessary for us also to watch the commercial progress of our neighbours, and, if not to incommode and obstruct their traffic, to prevent them from injuring our own. We likewise settled colonies in America, which was then the great scene of European ambition; for, seeing with what treasures the Spaniards were annually enriched from Mexico and Peru, every nation imagined that an American conquest or plantation would certainly fill the mother-country with gold and silver.

The discoveries of new regions, the profit of remote traffic, and the necessity of long voyages, produced, in a few years, a great multiplication of shipping. The sea was considered as the wealthy element; and, by degrees, a new kind of sovereignty arose, called "naval dominion." As the chief trade of Europe, so the chief maritime power, was at first in the hands of the Portuguese and Spaniards, who had divided the newly-discovered countries between them; but the crown of Portugal having fallen to the king of Spain, or being seized by him, he was master of the shipping of the two nations, with which he kept all the coasts of Europe in alarm, until the armada he had raised at a vast expense for the conquest of England was destroyed; which put a stop, and almost an end, to the naval power of the Spaniards. At this time the Dutch, who were oppressed by the Spaniards, and feared yet greater evils than they felt, resolved no longer to endure the insolence of their masters; they therefore revolted, and, after a struggle in which they were assisted by the money and forces of Elizabeth, erected an independent and powerful commonwealth.

When the inhabitants of the Low Countries had formed their system of government, and some remission of the war gave them leisure to provide for their future prosperity, they easily perceived, that, as their territories were narrow, and their numbers small, they could preserve themselves only by that power which is the consequence of wealth; and that by a people, whose country produced only the necessaries of life, wealth was not to be acquired but from foreign dominions, and by a transportation of the products of one country to another. From this necessity, thus justly estimated, arose a plan of commerce, which was for many years prosecuted with an industry and success perhaps never seen in the world before; and by which the poor tenants of mud-walled villages and impassable bogs erected themselves into high and mighty states, who set the greatest monarchs at defiance, whose alliance was courted by the proudest, and whose power was dreaded by the fiercest nations. By the establishment of this state, there arose to England a new ally, and a new rival.

At that time we were so imperfectly provided with the means of commerce, that we were glad to procure not only naval stores, but ships, from our neighbours. Germany furnished us with *all things made* of metal, even to nails; wine, *paper, linen,* and other articles, came from

France. Portugal furnished us with sugar; all the produce of America was brought to us from Spain; and the Venetians and Genoese retailed to us the commodities of India at their own price. The legal interest of money was 12 per cent., and the common price of our land 10 or 12 years' purchase. We may add, that our manufactures were few, the number of English merchants very small, and our shipping much inferior to what belonged to the American colonies before their revolt.

Great Britain is admirably calculated for a commercial nation, as well from its situation as an island, as from the freedom and excellence of its constitution, and from its natural products and considerable manufactures. For exportation, our country produces many very useful commodities; as cattle, wool, iron, lead, tin, copper, coal, alum, &c. Our horses are the most serviceable in the world, and highly valued by all nations for their hardiness, beauty, and strength. With beef, mutton, pork, poultry, biscuits, we victual not only our own fleets, but many foreign vessels. Our iron we export manufactured in a variety of forms. Prodigious and almost incredible is the value likewise of other goods which are hence exported.

Of the British commerce, that branch which we enjoy exclusively, namely, our colonial trade, was long regarded as the most advantageous. Yet, since the separation of the American states from the British dominions, our trade, industry, and manufactures have greatly increased; and our trade with that republic is much more considerable than it was before the revolt. In consequence, also, of the opening of new markets, the talents and skill of our artisans have taken a wider range; the productions of their labour have been adapted to the wants, not merely of rising colonies, but of nations the most wealthy and refined; and our commercial system, no longer resting on the artificial basis of monopoly, has been rendered more solid as well as more liberal.

With the West Indian islands, the English trade consists chiefly in sugar, rum, cotton, logwood, cocoa, coffee, pimento, ginger, indigo, materials for dyers, mahogany and manchineel planks, drugs, and preserves. For these, the exports from England are linen of all sorts, broad cloth and kerseys, silks and stuffs, hats and red caps, stockings and shoes, gloves and millinery, all sorts of iron implements and utensils, articles of copper and brass, cabinet-ware, toys, &c.

The trade of England to India constitutes one of the most stupendous political as well as commercial machines that history exhibits. For two centuries it was exclusive, and was lodged in a company which had a temporary monopoly of it, in consideration of money advanced to the government. This company exported to the East Indies all kinds of woollen manufactures, all sorts of hardware, lead, *bullion, and quicksilver.* Its imports consisted *of gold, diamonds,* raw silk, drugs, tea, pepper, arrack, porcelain or China-petre for home-consumption; and c silks, muslin, calico, and all the wove tures of India, for exportion to foreig

To Turkey, our countrymen sen cloths, tin, lead, iron, hardware, cloc verdigris, spices, cochineal, logwc and rice; for which they receive, bes raw silk, carpets, skins, dyeing dru fruit, medicinal drugs, coffee, and articles. To Italy are sent woolle various kinds, peltry, leather, lead and salted fish, and the produce c and West Indies, in exchange fo thrown silk, wine, oil, soap, olive lemons, pomegranates, dried frui pickles, &c.

To Spain, England sends all kinds goods, leather, tin, lead, fish, corr brass manufactures, haberdashery, a of linen, from Germany and elsewh American colonies; and receives, wine, oil, dried fruit, oranges, lem wool, indigo, cochineal, and other dy beside gold and silver. Portugal fo on commercial accounts, the favou England, whose fleets and armies once saved her from ruin. Englan that country the same kind of mer to Spain, and receives nearly the sa of commodities.

Our trade with France does not e very great variety of articles. We wines of Champagne and Burgun brandy, preserved fruit, corn, oil silk, cambric, millinery, kid-skins fumery; and we supply the Frenc lead, iron, and various manufactu but not in sufficient quantities to unfavourable balance of trade. Wi and the Netherlands we have c traffic; but, after the union of those such heavy duties were imposec sovereign upon the transit of ou tured goods through any of his p the Rhine, that this branch of trade sarily diverted to the Elbe, whenc modities are sent through the I kingdom into many parts of Germa

With the great northern empire t trade is by no means inconsiderat Russia the chief exports to this c iron, timber, hemp, flax, linseed, tallow, hides, mats, and sheeting; i which, woollen and cotton goods, cut porcelain, and other manufactured received by the emperor's subjects employ many British vessels for veyance of their merchandise to o tries. From Sweden and Norway iron, deal, tar, and pitch; but, from very few articles besides hides and c Dantzic and Memel we derive large corn and timber; and our trade in is evidently superior to that of other communities.

Since the severance of the Spanish and Portuguese colonies in North and South America from the mother countries, an extensive and profitable trade has been carried on, by Great Britain, with the empire of Brazil, and the Mexican, Columbian, Argentine, Chilian, Bolivian, Peruvian, and Guatimalan republics. The rapid progress of our settlements in Australia has also opened new sources of commerce. A very large supply of wool is now obtained from our Australian possessions. The commerce with the western coast of Africa and the Cape of Good Hope has also swelled to a considerable amount. In 1840, our exports to the Australian settlements and New Zealand were £2,062,178; to Brazil £2,625,853; and to Mexico and the South American republics, £3,576,257. To the Cape of Good Hope and Western Africa they were £909,219. The whole of these items amount to no less than £6,628,754.

The prodigious extent of the trade of England, and its great and rapid increase in modern times, will clearly appear from a comparative statement of the imports and exports at different periods; the value of which, including foreign merchandise and manufactures, in the years undermentioned, may be thus stated: imports, 1797, £21,450,000; exports, £28,917,000.

In 1802, the chancellor of the exchequer, Mr. Addington, stated to the House of Commons, that the real value of imports in the year ending on the 5th of January, might be estimated at £58,680,000; that the real value of British manufactures exported in 1801 might be estimated at £41,770,000, and that of foreign merchandise at £15,750,000, making, for the whole of the exportation, £57,520,000. He at the same time stated, that 19,772 registered vessels, belonging to the British dominions, were employed in trade in 1801, their tonnage being 2,027,317, and their number of men 143,987.

In 1815, the exports had so greatly increased, as to amount to £80,983,894, more than two-thirds of which consisted of British produce and manufactures; and the imports were proportionally less, so as to create a very favourable balance. In the year ending January 5, 1840, the total exports amounted to £110,198,716, and the total imports to £62,004,000.

The pursuits of commerce have, of late years, been much expedited by the power of steam. Not only on the rivers, and between the ports of the British islands, but to most parts of the world, steam vessels, of large tonnage, are constantly employed. By their means, a passage to North America is now accomplished in from twelve to fourteen days. Not much fewer than 1000 vessels of this kind are engaged in conveying merchandise and passengers to various parts of the British empire.

Some of the towns which supply the exports that we have enumerated have been already specified; but we will state a few more particulars connected with that subject. Woollen manufactures are common to almost all the western counties. Dorsetshire affords marble and stone, prepares cordage and sail-cloth, makes a great quantity of lace, and feeds a vast number of sheep. Somersetshire, beside furnishing lead, copper, and *lapis calaminaris*, manufactures lace, stockings, and caps. Devonshire affords excellent carpets; Wiltshire has fabrics of the same kind, and its cutlery is not despicable.

Manufactures of all kinds are carried on in London and its neighbourhood. The varied and elegant forms of jewellery and glass-work, the best clocks and watches, cutlery superior even to that of Sheffield, figures and devices in artificial stone, articles of admirable workmanship in gold and silver, useful and ornamental furniture for houses, and silk and satin for the decoration of the person, evince the industry and skill of the artisans. In Essex, serges and other woollen commodities are well manufactured. Lace is the chief production of art in Buckinghamshire. All sorts of stockings are furnished for general supply by the inhabitants of the counties of Northampton, Leicester, and Derby, and more particularly, as we have already stated, by the people of Nottingham. Good porcelain is made at Derby; but it is not equal to that of Worcester, a city which has also acquired reputation by its carpets. The Derbyshire spar has become an article of exportation, when polished and wrought into vases and other forms. In this process the steam-engine is employed, as it also is in many other branches of art. We may here observe, that the great use of this engine was not fully known before the present age. The marquis of Worcester, in the time of Charles I., merely applied it to the purpose of raising water by the force of expansion; but Mr. Watt so improved its construction, as to render it operative in many ways of which the inventor never thought. It now consists of a large cylinder or barrel, in which is fitted a piston. Steam is then supplied from a large boiler, which, forcing up the piston, opens a valve, through which cold water rushes. Fresh steam is then introduced, which forces it down again, and drives the water out of the pipe with immense force; and, by this alternate motion of the piston up and down a large beam, which communicates to various kinds of machinery the power of a hundred or more horses, the grandest operations are performed.

In Staffordshire, the art of the potter has been greatly improved, so as to produce vases which rival those of ancient Etruria, and many other well-formed articles. The district in which this manufacture is carried on is called the Potteries, and contains several towns, and a population of from 70,000 to 80,000 persons. The porcelain of Salop is in some estimation; but that county does not flourish in manufactures. Cheshire is famous for its cheese, which is occasionally exported to the continent. In Lancashire and Yorkshire, the manufacturing towns are numerous and densely peopled; and the commodities of the latter county are ex-

ported to various parts of Europe and America, by the merchants of Hull, whose trade annually increases. Newcastle, beside the great benefit of the coal trade, has considerable manufactures in hardware, and broad and narrow cloths.

We might make great additions to this sketch, if we did not consider these remarks as sufficient, when so many other topics call for our attention.

Constitution and Government.—Tacitus, in describing such a constitution as that of England, seems to think that, however beautiful it may be in theory, it will be found impracticable in the execution. Experience has proved this to be a mistake; for, by contrivances unknown to antiquity, the English constitution has existed for above 570 years, if we reckon from the year 1265, when Montfort's parliament assembled. It must at the same time be admitted, that it has received, during that time, many amendments, and some interruptions. On the first invasion of England by the Saxons, their laws and manners were nearly the same as those mentioned by Tacitus. The people had a leader in time of war. The conquered lands, in proportion to the merit of his followers, and their abilities to serve him, were distributed among them; and the whole was considered as the common property, which they were to unite in defending against all invaders. All civil affairs were proposed in an assembly of the leading men and the people, until, by degrees, sheriffs and other civil officers were appointed. To Alfred we owe that masterpiece of judicial policy, the division of England into wapentakes and hundreds, and the subdivision of hundreds into tithings; and overseers were chosen to direct them for the good of the whole. The sheriff was the judge of all civil and criminal matters within the county; and to him, after the introduction of Christianity, was added the bishop. In process of time, as business multiplied, itinerant and other judges were appointed; but, by the earliest records, it appears that all civil points of litigation were decided by 12 or 16 men, living in the neighbourhood of the place where the dispute lay; and here we have the origin of English juries. It is certain that they were in use among the earliest Saxon colonies; and we find traces of juries in the laws of all those nations which adopted the feudal system, as in Germany, France, and Italy.

Royalty was not, strictly speaking, hereditary among the Saxons; though, in fact, it came to be rendered so through the affection which the people bore for the blood of their kings, and their zeal for preserving regularity of government. Even estates and honours were not strictly hereditary, till they were made so by William the Norman.

The first princes of the Norman line afterwards strenuously endeavoured to efface from *the minds of the people* the remembrance of *the Saxon constitution*; but the attempt was fruitless. The nobility, as well as the people, had their complaints against the crown; and, after much war and bloodshed, the famous charter of English liberty was extorted from King John, and confirmed by Henry III. It does not appear that, before the reign of this prince, the commons of England were represented in parliament, or the great council of the nation; so entirely had the barons engrossed to themselves the disposal of property.

In all states there is an absolute supreme power, to which the right of legislation belongs; and which, in this realm, is invested in the king, lords, and commons.

Of the King.—The supreme executive power is vested by our constitution in a single person, king or queen—for it is indifferent to which sex the crown descends; males, however, inherit before females. The person entitled to it, whether male or female, is immediately invested with all the ensigns, rights, and prerogatives, of sovereign power. The grand fundamental maxim, upon which the right of succession to the throne depends, is, that the crown, by common law and constitutional custom, is hereditary, but that the right of inheritance may be changed or limited by act of parliament.

That the reader may enter more clearly into the deduction of the royal succession, it is necessary to inform him, that, on the death of Queen Elizabeth, without issue, it became necessary to recur to the other issue of her grandfather, Henry VII., by Elizabeth of York, his queen, whose eldest daughter, Margaret, having married James IV., king of Scotland, King James the Sixth of Scotland, and of England the First, was the lineal descendant from that alliance; so that in his person, as clearly as in Henry VIII., centred all the claims of the different competitors from the Norman invasion downward; he being indisputably the lineal heir of William I. And, what is still more remarkable, in his person also centred the right of the Saxon monarchs, which had been suspended from the Norman invasion till his accession; for Margaret, the sister of Edgar Atheling, daughter of Edward the Outlaw, and grand-daughter of Edmund Ironside, was the person in whom the hereditary right of the Saxon kings resided. She married Malcolm III., king of Scotland: and Henry II., by a descent from Matilda their daughter, is generally called the restorer of the Saxon line. But it must be remembered that Malcolm, by his Saxon queen, had sons as well as daughters; and that the royal family of Scotland, from that time downward, were the offspring of Malcolm and Margaret. Of that family James 1. was the lineal descendant; and he therefore united in his person every possible claim, by hereditary right, to the English as well as Scottish throne, being the heir both of Egbert and William the Norman.

At the revolution in 1688, the convention of estates, the temporary representative body of

the nation, declared that the misconduct of King James II. amounted to an abdication of the government, and that the throne was therefore vacant. In consequence of this vacancy, and from a regard to the ancient line, the convention appointed the next Protestant heirs of Charles I. to fill the vacant throne, in the old order of succession, with a temporary exception, or preference of the person of William III. On the impending failure of the Protestant line of King Charles I., (whereby the throne might again have become vacant,) the parliament extended the settlement of the crown to the Protestant line of James I.; viz. to the princess Sophia of Hanover, and the heirs of her body, being Protestants; and she is now the common stock, from which the heirs of the crown descend.

Though in some points the revolution was far from being as perfect as might have been wished, yet, from that era, the limits of prerogative and liberty have been more accurately defined, the principles of government more thoroughly examined and understood, and the rights of the subject more explicitly guarded by legal provisions, than in any other period of English history. The convention wisely avoided the extremes into which the visionary theories of some zealous republicans would have led them. They held that the conduct of King James amounted to an endeavour to subvert the constitution, but not to an actual subversion or dissolution of the government. They therefore voted it to be no more than an abdication of the government, and a consequent vacancy of the throne. Thus the government was allowed to subsist, though the executive magistrate was gone, and the kingly office to remain, though James was no longer king; and the constitution was kept entire, which, upon every sound principle of government, must otherwise have fallen to pieces, if no principal and constituent part as the royal authority had been abolished, or even suspended.

Hence it is easy to collect that the title to the crown is at present hereditary, though not quite so absolutely hereditary as formerly; and the common stock, or ancestor from whom the descent must be derived, is also different. Originally the common stock was King Egbert; then William the Conqueror; afterward, in the time of James I., the two common stocks united, and so continued till the vacancy of the throne in 1688; now it is the princess Sophia, in whom the inheritance was vested by the new king and parliament. Formerly the descent was absolute, and the crown devolved to the next heir without any restriction; but now, according to the new settlement, the inheritance is conditional, being limited to such heirs only of the body of that princess as are members of the Church of England, and are married to none but Protestants.

In this due medium consists the correct constitutional notion of the right *of succession to* the *crown*. *The extremes between which it* steers have been thought to be destructive of those ends for which societies were formed. Where, upon every succession, the magistrate is elected by the people, and may, by the express provision of the laws, be deposed (if not punished) by his subjects, this may sound like the perfection of liberty, and look well enough on paper; but it will be found difficult and dangerous in practice. On the other hand, divine indefeasible hereditary right, when coupled with the doctrine of unlimited passive obedience, is surely of all constitutions the most thoroughly slavish and dreadful. But when such an hereditary right as our laws have created and vested in the royal stock is closely interwoven with those liberties which are equally the inheritance of the subject, this union will form a constitution, in theory the most approved, and probably in duration the most permanent. This constitution it is the duty of every Briton to understand, to revere, and to defend.

The principal duties of the king are expressed in the oath taken at the coronation, which is administered by one of the archbishops or bishops of the realm, in the presence of all the people, who, on their parts, take the oath of allegiance to the crown. By this oath, the king engages to govern the people according to the laws and customs of the realm, and the parliamentary statutes; to execute law and justice in mercy; to maintain the laws of God, the true profession of the Gospel, and the Protestant reformed religion established by law. In this summary are comprehended all the duties which a monarch can owe to his people.

The king of Great Britain is the greatest monarch who reigns over a free people. His person is sacred in the eye of the law, which makes it high treason even to imagine or intend his death. In himself, he cannot be deemed guilty of any crime, the law taking no cognizance of his actions, but only in the persons of his ministers, if they infringe the laws of the land. As to his power, it is very great, though he has no right to extend his prerogative beyond the limits prescribed by the constitution: he can make no new laws, nor raise new taxes, nor act in opposition to any of the laws; but he can make war or peace, send and receive ambassadors, make treaties of league and commerce, levy armies and fit out fleets; grant commissions to his officers, both by sea and land, or revoke them at pleasure; dispose of all magazines, castles, &c.; summon the parliament to meet and adjourn, prorogue or dissolve it at pleasure; and refuse his assent to any bill, though it has passed both houses: but this last is a prerogative which the kings of England have not exercised since the reign of William III. He possesses the right of choosing his own council; of nominating all the great officers of state, the household, and the church; and, in fine, is the fountain *of honour*, from whom all degrees of nobility *and knighthood* are derived.

Of the Parliament.—"It is agreed," says Sir William Blackstone, "that in the main the constitution of parliament, as it now stands, was marked out so long ago as the year 1215, in the charter granted by King John, in which he promises to summon all archbishops, bishops, abbots, lords, and greater barons, personally, and all other tenants in chief under the crown, by the sheriffs and bailiffs, to meet at a certain place, with 40 days' notice, to assess aids and scutages when necessary; and this constitution hath subsisted, in fact, at least from the year 1265, there being still extant writs of that date to summon knights, citizens, and burgesses, to parliament." These writs were issued during the prevalence of the powerful earl of Leicester; and the custom was continued, with some intermissions, after his ruin and death.

The parliament is assembled by the king's writs, and its sitting must not be intermitted above three years. Its constituent parts are the king, sitting there in his royal political capacity, and the three estates of the realm, the lords spiritual and temporal, who sit together with the king in one house, and the commons, who sit by themselves in another. The king and these three estates, together, form the great corporation or body politic of the kingdom, of which the king is said to be *caput, principium, et finis;* for, upon their coming together, the king meets them, either in person, or by representation; without which there can be no beginning of a parliament; and he alone can dissolve the assembly.

It is highly necessary, for preserving the balance of the constitution, that the executive power should be a branch, though not the whole, of the legislature. The crown cannot begin of itself any alterations in the present established laws; but it may approve or disapprove the alterations suggested by the two houses. The legislature, therefore, cannot abridge the executive power of any rights which it now has by law, without its own consent, since the law must perpetually stand as it now does, unless all the powers should agree to alter it. And herein indeed consists the true excellence of the English government, that all the parts of it form a check upon each other.

The lords spiritual are 2 archbishops and 25 bishops, with 4 from Ireland. The lords temporal are all the peers of the realm, the bishops not being in strictness held to be such, but merely lords of parliament. Some of the peers sit by descent, as do all ancient peers; some by creation, as do all the new ones; others, since the unions with Scotland and Ireland, by election, which is the case of the 16 peers who represent the body of the Scottish nobility, and the 28 peers who represent the Irish nobility. The number of peers may be increased at will by the power of the crown.

A body of nobility is more peculiarly necessary *in our mixed and compounded constitution, in order to support equally* the rights of the crown and the people, by forming a barrier to withstand the encroachments of both. The nobles therefore are the pillars, which are reared from among the people, more immediately to support the throne; and, if that should fall, they must also be buried under its ruins. Accordingly, when the commons in the Long Parliament had determined to extirpate monarchy, they also voted the House of Lords to be useless and dangerous.

The lower house consists of such men of property in the kingdom as have not seats in the House of Lords. In a free state, every man who is supposed a free agent ought to be, in some measure, his own governor; and therefore a branch at least of the legislative power should reside in the whole body of the people. In so large a state as ours, it is very wisely contrived that the people should do that by their representatives which it is impracticable to perform in person—representatives chosen for a number of minute and separate districts, wherein all the voters are, or easily may be, distinguished. The counties are therefore represented by knights, elected by the proprietors of lands; the cities and boroughs are represented by citizens and burgesses, chosen by the mercantile part, or supposed trading interest of the nation. These representatives amount to 658, of whom 105 are deputed from Ireland, and 53 from Scotland. Every member, though chosen by one particular district, serves, when elected and returned, for the whole realm; for the end of his going thither is not particular, but general—not merely to serve his constituents, but also the commonwealth, and to give good advice to his majesty.

These are the constituent parts of the parliament—the king, the lords spiritual and temporal, and the commons; parts, of which each is so necessary, that the consent of all three is required to make any new law that shall bind the subject. Whatever is enacted for law by one, or by two only, of the three, is no statute; and to it no regard is due, except when it relates to their own privileges.

The power of parliament, says Sir Edward Coke, is so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined, either for causes or persons, within any bounds. It hath sovereign and uncontrollable authority in the making, confirming, enlarging, restraining, abrogating, repealing, reviving, and expounding, of laws, concerning matters ecclesiastical or temporal, civil, military, maritime, or criminal; this being the place where that absolute despotic power, which must reside in all governments, is intrusted by the constitution of this kingdom. All mischiefs and grievances, oppressions and remedies, that transcend the ordinary course of the laws, are within the reach of this extraordinary tribunal. It can regulate or new-model the succession to the crown, alter and establish the religion of the land, change and create afresh even the constitution of the kingdom, and of parliaments themselves. It can, in short, do everything

that is not naturally impossible; and therefore some have not scrupled to call its power by a figure rather too bold, *the omnipotence of parliament*. Yet its power, being given to it in trust, ought to be employed according to the rules of justice, and for the promotion of general welfare. And it is a matter most essential to the liberties of the kingdom, that such members be delegated to this important trust as are most eminent for their probity, fortitude, and knowledge; for it was a known apophthegm of the great lord treasurer, Burleigh, "that England never could be ruined but by a parliament;" and, as Sir Matthew Hale observes, this being the highest and greatest court, over which none other can have jurisdiction in the kingdom, *if by any means a misgovernment* should fall upon it, the subjects of this kingdom are left without a legal remedy.

In order to prevent the mischief that might arise from the consignment of this extensive authority to incapable or improper hands, it is provided, that no one shall sit or vote in either house of parliament, unless he be 21 years of age. To prevent innovations in religion and government, it was also enacted, that no member shall vote or sit in either house without having, in the presence of the house, taken the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, and subscribed and repeated the declaration against transubstantiation, the invocation of saints, and the sacrifice of the mass. But, since the admission of Catholics into parliament, another form of oath has been substituted, to be taken by persons of that persuasion.

The most important privileges of the members of both houses are those of speech and of person. It is declared by the statute of 1 William and Mary, as one of the liberties of the people, "that the freedom of speech, and debates, and proceedings in parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of parliament." Their lands and goods were also privileged; but, in the year 1770, they condescended to renounce the right of securing their goods, in cases of debt, from legal distress or seizure.

Each peer has a right, by leave of the house, to bring his own representative, when a vote passes contrary to his sentiments, to explain and record his dissent, which is usually styled his protest. Upon particular occasions, these protests have been so bold as to give offence to the majority of the house, and have therefore been expunged from their journals; but this has always, and very justly, been thought a violent measure.

The House of Commons may be properly styled the grand inquest of Great Britain, empowered to inquire into all national grievances. The peculiar laws and customs of the House of Commons relate principally to the raising of taxes, and the elections of members to serve in parliament. With regard to taxes, it is the ancient and indisputable privilege *and right of the House of Commons, that all grants of subsidies*, or parliamentary aids, begin in their house, and be first bestowed by them, although even these grants are not effectual, to all intents and purposes, until they have the assent of the other two branches of the legislature. The general reason given for this exclusive privilege is, that the supplies are levied upon the body of the people, and therefore it is proper that they alone should have the right of taxing themselves; and the commons are so jealous of this privilege, that they will not permit the least alteration to be made by the lords in the mode of taxing the people by a money-bill: they, however, sometimes adopt, in a new bill, the alteration which was made in the old one by the peers. They thus assert their own privilege, and at the same time avail themselves of any beneficial suggestion from the members of the upper house.

The mode of making a law is nearly the same in each house. The act of the majority binds the whole; and this majority is declared by votes publicly and openly given, not privately, or by ballot. The latter method might, perhaps, be serviceable, to prevent intrigues and unconstitutional combinations; but it cannot properly be practised with us, at least in the House of Commons, where the conduct of every member is subject to the future censure of his constituents, and therefore should be openly submitted to their inspection.

To bring a bill into the House of Commons, if the relief sought by it be of a private nature, it is first necessary to prefer a petition, which must be presented by a member. This petition (when founded on facts that may be in their nature disputed) is referred to a committee of members, who examine the matter alleged, and accordingly report it to the house; and then (or, otherwise, upon the mere petition) leave is given to introduce the bill. In public matters the bill is brought in upon motion, without any petition. (In the House of Lords, if the bill begin there, it is, when of a private nature, referred to two of the judges to examine and report the state of the facts alleged.) This is twice read, and, after each reading, the speaker opens to the house the substance of the bill, and puts the question whether it shall proceed. If a bill pass the second reading, the principle of it is supposed to be admitted. After the second reading, it is referred to a private committee, or (if the bill be of general importance) to a committee of the whole house. In the latter case the speaker quits the chair, (another member being appointed chairman,) and may sit and debate as an ordinary representative. In these committees the bill is debated, clause by clause, and sometimes is entirely new-modelled. After it has gone through the committee, the chairman reports it to the house, with the amendments: it is then reconsidered, and the question is repeatedly put upon every clause and amendment. The bill is then *ordered to be* engrossed on one or more long rolls *of parchment*, sewed together. Even at the

third reading, amendments are sometimes made to it; and the speaker, holding it up to view, puts the question whether it shall pass. After this it is presented (usually by its original proposer) at the bar of the House of Peers. It there passes through the same forms as in the other house; and, if it be rejected, no more notice is taken: but, if it be adopted, the lords send a message, importing that they have agreed to the same; and the bill remains with the lords, if they have made no amendment to it. When any amendments are made, they are sent down with the bill, to receive the concurrence of the commons. If this house should disapprove of the amendments, a conference usually follows between members deputed from each house, who, for the most part, settle and adjust the difference; but, if both houses remain inflexible, the bill is dropped. The same forms are observed, *mutatis mutandis*, when the bill begins in the House of Lords. But, when an act of grace or pardon is proposed, it is first signed by his majesty, and then read once only in each of the houses, without any alterations.

The royal assent may be given to a bill in two ways: 1. In person. When the king sends for the commons to the House of Peers, the speaker carries up the money-bills in his hand; and, in delivering them, he addresses his majesty in a solemn speech, in which he seldom fails to extol the generosity and loyalty of the commons, and sometimes ventures to tell his majesty how necessary it is to be frugal of the public money. It is upon this occasion that the commons of Great Britain appear in their highest lustre. The titles of all bills that have passed both houses are read; and the king's answer is declared by the clerk of the parliament, in the old Norman dialect. When the king consents to a public bill, the clerk declares *Le roy le veut*, "The king wills it so to be;" and, when the bill is of a private nature, *Soit fait comme il est desiré*, "Be it as it is desired." If assent be refused (a case which has not occurred in our times) the clerk makes use of this mild language, *Le roy s'avisera*, "The king will consider of it." When a money-bill is passed, it is carried up and presented to the king by the speaker of the House of Commons, and the royal assent is thus expressed: *Le roy remercie ses loyaux sujets, accepte leur benevolence, et ainsi le veut*, "The king thanks his loyal subjects, accepts their benevolence, and wills it so to be." In case of an act of grace, the clerk thus pronounces the gratitude of the subject: *Les prelats, seigneurs, et commons, en ce present parlement assemblés, au nom de touts vos autres sujets, remercient très humblement votre majesté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en santé bonne vie et longue:* "The prelates, lords, and commons, in this present parliament assembled, in the name of all your other subjects, most humbly thank your majesty, and pray to God to grant you in health and wealth long to live." 2. *By the statute* 33 Henry VIII. c. 21, *the king may give his assent by letters* patent under his great seal, signed with his hand, and notified, in his absence, to both houses assembled in the high house, by commissioners consisting of certain peers named in the letters.

The bill thus enacted is placed among the records of the kingdom, no formal promulgation being required to give it the force of a law, as was necessary by the civil law with regard to the imperial edicts; because every man in England is, by a legal fiction, party to the making of an act of parliament, being supposed to be present by his representatives. However, copies of it are always printed at the king's press, for the information of the public.

From the above general view of the English constitution, it appears that no security for its permanence, which the wit of man can devise, is wanting. If it should be objected that parliaments may become so corrupted as to give up or betray the liberties of the people, the answer is, that parliaments, as every other body politic, are supposed to watch over their political existence, as a private person does over his natural life. If a parliament were to act in that manner, it must become *felo de se*, an evil that no human provisions can guard against. But there are great resources of liberty in England; and, though the constitution has been sometimes dangerously wounded, and even overturned, its innate powers have recovered and still preserve it. In 1832 a great change was effected in the constitution of the House of Commons, the particulars of which will be found under the head of "History."

The king of England, beside his high court of parliament, has subordinate officers and ministers, who are responsible for their advice and conduct. They are made by the king's nomination, without either patent or grant; and, on taking the requisite oaths, they become immediately privy-counsellors during the life of the king who chooses them, but subject to removal at his pleasure.

The duty of a privy-counsellor appears from the oath of office, which consists of seven articles:—1. To advise the king according to the best of his knowledge and discretion. 2. To advise for the king's honour, and good of the public, without partiality through affection, love, need, doubt, or dread. 3. To keep the king's counsel secret. 4. To avoid corruption. 5. To help and strengthen the execution of what shall be there resolved. 6. To withstand all persons who would attempt the contrary. And, lastly, to observe, keep, and do, all that a good and true counsellor ought to do to his sovereign lord.

As no government can be so complete as to be provided with laws that may answer every unforeseen emergency, the privy-council, in such cases, can supply the deficiency. Upon great and urgent occasions, such as that of a famine, or the dread of one, they can supersede the operation of the law, if the parliament be

not sitting; but this is considered as illegal, and an act of parliament must pass for the pardon and indemnification of those concerned. To prevent the necessity of an eventual application for a bill of indemnity, the ministers, in 1808, requested the two houses to grant, prospectively, the power of mitigating the rigour of the laws respecting the importation of corn, if there should, during the recess, be any danger of a great advance of the price of that necessary article of consumption.

The office of secretary of state was formerly divided into a southern and a northern department, referring to the two grand divisions of Europe. This distinction is now abolished; and there is one secretary for foreign affairs, and another for the home department. During the American war, there was a third secretary of state, whose office was revived in 1794, with the title of secretary for the department of war and the colonies.

The cabinet-council is a committee of the privy-council, consisting of a select number of ministers and noblemen, according to the king's opinion of their integrity and abilities, or attachment to the views of the court; but, though its operations are powerful and extensive, a cabinet-council is not essential to the constitution of England.

This observation naturally leads us to mention the person who is so well known by the name of the first minister, or premier—a term unknown to the English constitution, though the office, in effect, is perhaps necessary. The constitution points out the lord-chancellor as minister; but the affairs of his own court give him sufficient employment. When the office of first lord of the treasury is united with that of chancellor of the exchequer in the same person, he is considered as first minister. The truth is, his majesty may make any one of his servants his first minister. But, though it is no office, there is a responsibility annexed to the name and common repute, that renders it a post of difficulty and danger.

The lord chancellor is an officer of the greatest weight and power of any now subsisting in the kingdom, and is superior in precedency to every temporal lord. He is usually the speaker of the House of Lords; he is a privy-counsellor by his office; he appoints all justices of the peace; he is visitor, in right of the king, of all hospitals and colleges of the king's foundation, and patron of all the king's livings under the value of £20 per annum in the king's books. He is the general guardian of all infants, idiots, and lunatics, and superintends all charitable uses in the kingdom.

The post of high treasurer, formerly a distinct employment, is now vested in a commission, consisting of five persons, who are called lords of the treasury; but the first commissioner is supposed to possess the power which that great officer formerly enjoyed. He has the management and charge of all the revenues of the crown kept in the exchequer, as also the letting of the leases of all crown lands, and the gift of all places belonging to the customs in the several ports of the kingdom.

It is the duty of the president of the council to propose all the business transacted at the council-board, and to report to the king, when his majesty is not present, all its debates and proceedings. This is a place of great dignity as well as difficulty, on account of the vast number of American and West Indian causes, captures, and the like affairs, that come before the board; all which may be abridged, to the great convenience of the subject, by an able president.

The keeper of the privy seal puts the king's seal to all charters, grants, and the like, which are signed by the king, in order to their passing the great seal; and he is responsible if he should apply the privy seal to anything against the law of the land.

The great chamberlain of England attends the king's person, on his coronation, to dress him: he has likewise charge of the House of Lords during the sitting of parliament; and of fitting up Westminster Hall for coronations, trials of peers, or impeachments.

The office of high constable has been disused since the attainder and execution of Stafford, duke of Buckingham, in 1521; but it is occasionally revived for a coronation; as is also that of high steward, who likewise presides, *pro tempore*, at the trial of a peer or peeress for a capital crime.

In time of war, the earl-marshal was judge of military causes, and decided according to the principles of the civil law. If the cause did not admit such a decision, it was left to a personal combat, which was attended with a great variety of ceremonies; the arrangement of which, even to the smallest trifle, fell within the marshal's province. To this day he (or his deputy) regulates all points of precedency according to the archives kept in the heralds' office, which is entirely within his jurisdiction. He directs all solemn processions, coronations, proclamations, and general mournings.

The office of high admiral of England is now holden by commission, and is equal in importance to any of the preceding, especially since the increase of the British naval power. The English Admiralty is a board of direction as well as execution, and is in its proceedings independent of the crown itself. All trials upon life and death, in maritime affairs, are appointed and holden under a commission immediately issuing from that board; and the members must sign even the death-warrants for execution. The Board of Admiralty regulates the whole naval force of the realm, and names all its officers, or confirms them when named; so that its jurisdiction is very extensive. The commissioners appoint vice-admirals under them; but, from them, an appeal lies to the High Court of Admiralty, which is of a civil nature. All the proceedings of this court pass in the high admiral's name, or those of the

commissioners, and not in that of the king. The judge of this court is commonly a doctor of the civil law, and its proceedings are according to the practice of that law; but all criminal matters, relating to piracies, and other capital offences committed at sea, are tried and determined according to the laws of England, by witnesses and a jury.

Courts of Law, and Laws.—The court of Chancery is next in dignity to the High Court of Parliament, and is designed to relieve the subject against frauds, breaches of trust, and other oppressions, and to mitigate the rigour of the law. The chancellor sits as sole judge, and, in his absence, the master of the rolls. Of late years, in consequence of the enormous increase of the chancery business, vice-chancellors have been instituted to lighten the burden of the chancellor. This court is always open; and, if a man be sent to prison, the chancellor, in any vacation, may grant a *habeas corpus*.

The King's Bench—so called either because the king used to sit there in person, or because all matters determinable by common law between the king and his subjects are here tried, except such affairs as properly belong to the court of Exchequer—is likewise a kind of check upon all the inferior courts, their judges, and justices of the peace. Here preside four judges, the first of whom is styled the chief justice of England, to express the great extent of his jurisdiction over the kingdom: for this court can grant prohibitions in any cause depending either in spiritual or temporal courts; and the House of Peers may direct the chief justice to issue his warrant for apprehending persons under suspicion of high crimes.

In the court of Common Pleas cognizance is taken of all pleas debatable, and civil actions depending, between subject and subject; and in it, beside all real actions, fines and recoveries are transacted, and prohibitions likewise issue from it, as well as from the King's Bench. There are 4 judges belonging to this court; and only sergeants-at-law are allowed to plead in it.

The court of Exchequer was instituted for managing the revenues of the crown, and has a power of judging according to law and equity. In the proceedings according to law, four persons act as judges, who are styled barons, because formerly none but barons of the realm were allowed to be judges in this court. But, when it proceeds according to equity, the lord-treasurer and the chancellor of the exchequer preside, assisted by the barons. All matters touching the king's treasury, revenue, customs, and fines, are here tried and determined.

Cases of bankruptcy are placed under the jurisdiction of a court, which consists of 2 judges and 6 commissioners; and those of insolvent debtors are decided by another court, composed of 4 commissioners.

For putting the laws effectually in execution, *a high-sheriff is annually* appointed by the *king for every county*, except Westmoreland and Middlesex. His office is both ministerial and judicial. He executes the king's mandate, and all writs directed to him by the courts of justice; empannels juries; brings causes and malefactors to trial; and sees sentence, both in civil and criminal affairs, executed. He likewise decides the elections of knights of the shire, and judges of the qualifications of voters. As his office is judicial, he keeps a court called the County Court, to hear and determine all civil causes under 40*s*. As the keeper of the king's peace, both by common law and special commission, he is the first man in the county, during his office; and he may call out the *posse comitatûs*, or power of the county, when he is apprehensive of commotion or of danger.

The next officer to the sheriff is the justice of peace. Several of these magistrates are commissioned for each county; and to them is intrusted the power of putting a great part of the statute law in execution, with regard to the highways, the poor, felony, riots, the preservation of the game, &c.; and they examine and commit to prison all who break or disturb the peace. In order to punish the offenders, they meet every quarter, in session, at the county town, when 12 men, forming the grand inquest of the county, inquire into all delinquencies, and state their opinions of the propriety of proceeding to trial, or of the expediency of dismissing the offenders. If the former be their decision, a true bill of indictment is said to be found.

Every city has a jurisdiction within itself, to judge in matters civil and criminal; with this proviso, that civil causes may be removed from its court to the higher courts at Westminster, and capital offences are committed to the judges of the assize. A mayor, alderman, and burgesses, make the corporation of the city, and hold a court of judicature. Some cities are counties, and choose their own sheriffs; and all of them have a power of making by-laws for their own government. Incorporated boroughs stand nearly on the same footing; and, for the better government of villages, the lords of the soil or manor have generally a power to hold courts, called Courts-leet and Courts-baron. The business of the former is chiefly to prevent and punish nuisances; and at Courts-baron the conveyances and alienations of the copyhold tenants are enrolled, and they are admitted to their estates by descent or purchase.

The business of a constable is to keep the peace. He can imprison persons who are quarrelling or rioting, until they are brought before a magistrate; and it is his duty to execute all warrants which are directed to him by one or more justices of the peace. Another officer is the coroner, who, with the aid of a jury, inquires into the mode in which persons, found dead, were deprived of life.

In 1829, a law, proposed by Sir Robert Peel, was passed for the establishment of an organized police force, for the protection of the metropolis, (the city excepted,) and the surrounding districts. A similar force was subsequently

organized in the city; and the system has since been extended to various parts of the country. This police force (with the exception of that which belongs to the city) is under the superintendence of the government commissioners.

Among the peculiar usages of the country, derived to us from the venerable laws of our Saxon ancestors, the most remarkable, perhaps, are the customs of gavel-kind and borough-English, which still exist in Kent and some other counties. By the former of these, all the sons inherit equally; and, by the latter, the youngest son succeeds to the inheritance; it being presumed, say the old lawyers, that the elder sons have learned their father's occupation, and thus are provided for.

Of the private relations of persons, the first is that of marriage, which includes the reciprocal rights and duties of husband and wife. The holiness of the matrimonial state is left entirely to the ecclesiastical law; the punishment, therefore, or annulment of incestuous or other unscriptural marriages, is the province of spiritual courts. The marriage ceremony, according to the old law, could only be performed by a clerical person; but, by a recent act, the power of uniting parties is given to a registrar, who is a layman.

There are two kinds of divorce—one total, the other partial. The total divorce must be for some of the canonical causes of impediment, and those existing before the marriage; as consanguinity, affinity, or corporal imbecility. The issue of such marriage, as it is thus entirely dissolved, are bastards. The other kind of divorce, which is called separation from bed and board, is when the marriage is just and lawful; and therefore the law is tender of dissolving it: but, for some supervenient cause, it becomes improper, or impossible, for the parties to live together; as in the case of intolerable ill-temper, or adultery, in either of the parties. In this case the law awards alimony to the wife, except when, for adultery, a total divorce is granted by the parliament.

Our law in general considers man and wife as one person; yet there are some instances in which she is separately considered as inferior to him, and acting by his compulsion; and therefore all deeds executed, and acts done, by her, during her coverture, are void, except it be a fine, or the like matter of record, in which case she must be solely and secretly examined, to learn if her act be voluntary. She cannot by will devise land to her husband, unless under special circumstances; for, at the time of making it, she is supposed to be under his coercion. For some felonies, and inferior crimes, committed by her through constraint or influence supposed to be exercised by her husband, the law excuses her; but this extends not to treason or murder.

The husband also (by the old, and likewise by the civil law) might give his wife moderate correction; for, as he is to answer for her misbehaviour, the law thought it reasonable to intrust him with this power of restraining her by domestic chastisement, in the same moderation with which a man is allowed to correct his servants or children; for whom the master or parent is also liable in some cases to answer. But, in the polite reign of Charles II., this power of correction began to be doubted; and a wife may now have security of peace against her husband, or even a husband against his wife: yet the lower ranks of people still claim and exert their ancient privilege; and the courts of law will still permit a husband to restrain a wife of her liberty, in case of gross misbehaviour.

No other constitution is provided with so many fences as that of England is, for the security of personal liberty, except in the case of debtors. Every man imprisoned has a right to demand a writ of *habeas corpus*; and if a judge, after considering the cause of commitment, should find that the offence is bailable, the person is immediately admitted to bail, until he is condemned or acquitted in a proper court of justice. The rights of individuals are so attentively guarded, that the subject may, without the least danger, sue his sovereign, or those who act in his name and under his authority: he may do this in open court, where the king may be obliged to pay damages to his subject. The ruling power cannot imprison the meanest individual, unless he has, by some illegal act of which he is accused upon oath, forfeited his right to liberty; or except when the state is in danger, and the representatives of the people think that the public safety makes it necessary to confine persons on suspicion of guilt; in which case, the *habeas corpus* act is suspended by a temporary statute. The king has a right to pardon; but neither he, nor the judges to whom he delegates his authority, can condemn a man as a criminal, except he be first found guilty by twelve men, who must be his peers or equals. That the judges may not be influenced by the king or his ministers to misrepresent the case to the jury, they have their salaries for life, and not during the pleasure of their sovereign. When jurors are named for a trial, the supposed offender may in open court peremptorily object to twenty or even more of the number, until at last twelve unexceptionable men, living near the place where the alleged fact was committed, are brought forward, who take the following oath, that they "shall well and truly try, and true deliverance make between the king and the prisoner, whom they shall have in charge, according to the evidence." These only are the judges from whose sentence the prisoner is to expect life or death; and upon their integrity and understanding the lives of all who are brought in danger ultimately depend; and from their judgment there lies no appeal: they are therefore to be all of one mind, and, after they have fully heard the evidence, are to be confined without meat, drink, or *candle, until* they are unanimous in acquitting *or condemning* the prisoner. Every juryman

is therefore vested with a solemn and awful trust; and, if he should join in condemning the prisoner without being fully convinced of his delinquency, he will entail upon himself the complicated guilt of perjury and murder.

It is much to be regretted that persons of education and property are often too ready to evade serving the office of juror. In consequence of this fault, juries frequently consist of ignorant and illiterate persons, who neither have knowledge enough to understand their rights and the privileges of Englishmen, nor spirit enough to maintain them, nor intellect to sift and weigh the evidence which is laid before them. No man should be above serving so important an office, when regularly called upon; and those who, from indolence or pride, decline discharging this duty to their country, seem not to deserve that security and liberty which the inhabitants of England derive from this institution. Juries have, indeed, always been considered as giving the most effectual check to tyranny; for, in a nation like this, where a king can do nothing against law, they are a security that he shall never, by a bad administration, make the laws the instruments of cruelty and oppression. Were it not for juries, the advice given by Father Paul, in his maxims of the republic of Venice, might take effect in its fullest latitude: "When the offence is committed by a nobleman against a subject," says he, "let all ways be tried to justify him; and, if that cannot easily be done, let him be chastised with greater noise than damage. If it be a subject who has affronted a nobleman, let him be punished with the utmost severity, that inferiors may not get a custom of laying their hands on the patrician order." In short, were it not for juries, a corrupt nobleman might, whenever he pleased, act the tyrant, while the judge would have that power which is now denied to our kings. But, by our happy constitution, all imaginable indulgence is allowed even to the meanest offenders. When a prisoner is brought to take his trial, he is freed from all bonds; and, though the judges are supposed to be counsel for the prisoner, yet, as he may be incapable of vindicating his own cause, other counsellors are allowed him: he may try the validity and legality of the indictment, and may set it aside, if it be contrary to law.

As trials in England are very different from those of other nations, the following account may be useful to foreigners, and to others who have not seen those proceedings.

The prisoner being called to the bar, the clerk commands him to hold up his hand, then charges him with the crime of which he is accused, and asks him whether he is *guilty* or *not guilty*. If the latter answer be given, the trial commences, even though the prisoner may have confessed the fact; for the law of England takes no notice of such confession; and unless the witnesses, who are upon oath, prove him *guilty of the crime, the* jury must acquit him; *for they are directed to bring in* their verdict according to the evidence given in court. Formerly, when a prisoner refused to plead, that is, when he would not say in court whether he was *guilty* or *not guilty*, he was pressed to death, with a load of iron upon his breast; but at present the same sentence is passed on him as in case of conviction.

When the witnesses have given their evidence, and the prisoner has, by himself or his counsel, cross-examined them, the judge recites to the jury the substance of the testimony, and bids them discharge their consciences; when, if the matter be very clear, they commonly give their verdict without going out of the court; and the foreman, for himself and the rest, declares the prisoner *Guilty* or *Not guilty*, as it may happen to be. But, if doubts arise amongst the jury, they all withdraw into a room, with a copy of the indictment, where they are locked up until they are unanimous; and, if any one of the jury should die during this confinement, the prisoner will be acquitted. When the jury have agreed, the prisoner is again brought forward to hear the verdict. This is unalterable, except in some doubtful cases, when the verdict is brought in *special*, and is therefore to be determined by the twelve judges.

When an offender is capitally convicted, the sentence of death, after a summary account of the trial, is pronounced by the judge in these words: "The law is, that thou shalt return to the place whence thou camest, and thence be carried to the place of execution, where thou shalt be hanged by the neck till thy body be dead; and the Lord have mercy on thy soul!" The sheriff is then charged with the execution.

Of Punishments.—The law of England includes all capital crimes under *high treason*, *petty treason*, and *felony*. The first consists in plotting, conspiring, or rising up in arms, against the sovereign, or in counterfeiting the coin. By a law of Edward III., the traitor was punished by being drawn on a sledge to the place of execution, when, after being hanged for some minutes, the body was cut down alive, the heart taken out and exposed to public view, and the entrails burned; the head was then cut off, and the body quartered. All the criminal's lands and goods were forfeited; his wife lost her dowry, and his children both their estates and nobility. But, though coining was adjudged high treason, the criminal was only drawn upon a sledge to the place of execution, and there hanged.

Though the same sentence is pronounced upon all traitors, yet, with respect to persons of quality, the punishment is generally mitigated into simple decapitation. This is rather considered as a remission of the more horrible parts of the sentence, than as a different punishment. In the last executions for treason, the criminals were not taken down from the gallows before they were dead; and then their heads were cut off, and exhibited to the view of the gazing and shuddering throng.

The punishment for misprision of high trea-

son—that is, for neglecting or concealing it—is imprisonment for life, the forfeiture of all the offender's goods, and of the profit arising from his lands.

Petty treason is when a child kills his father, a wife her husband, a clergyman his bishop, or a servant his master or mistress. Women guilty of this crime, or of high treason, were sentenced to be burned alive; but this law has been repealed in our time; and the law now makes no difference between one murder and another.

Felony formerly included murder, robbery beyond the value of forty shillings, highway-robbery even to the smallest amount, a long list of other crimes, and forgery. These crimes were all punished by hanging; only murderers were to be executed soon after sentence was passed, and then delivered to the surgeons for dissection. Of late years, however, the punishment of death has been abolished in a multitude of cases—even in those of forgery and female violation. Persons guilty of robbery, when there are some alleviating circumstances, are generally condemned to hard labour, or transported for a term of years, or for life, to New South Wales.

Manslaughter, which is the unlawful killing of a person without premeditated malice, is punished with imprisonment; but wounding or striking, with an intent to kill, is a capital offence, even if no serious injury be committed. Perjury subjects the offender to imprisonment; and petty larceny entails on the delinquent the disgrace of flagellation; but women are no longer exposed to that stigma.

REVENUES OF THE GOVERNMENT.—The king's ecclesiastical revenues consisted of old in, 1. the custody of the temporalities of vacant bishoprics; 2. allowances and pensions, formerly due to the king, from monasteries; 3. extra-parochial tithes; 4. the first fruits and tenths of benefices. The second branch is necessarily extinct, for a reason which will be obvious to every reader; and the crown has relinquished the benefit of the rest. The king's ordinary temporal revenue consisted in, 1. the demesne lands of the crown; 2. the hereditary exercise, being part of the consideration for the purchase of his feudal profits, and the prerogatives of purveyance and pre-emption; 3. an annual sum issuing from the duty on wine-licences, being the residue of the same consideration; 4. his forests; 5. his courts of justice, &c., in lieu of all which, at the accession of George III., the parliament allowed £800,000 per annum. The sum voted for the civil list of George IV. was £1,057,000. On the accession of William IV. certain disbursements were withdrawn from the list, and placed under the control of parliament, by which means the sum voted for the support of the crown was reduced to £510,000. When her present majesty ascended the throne, the same system was followed up, and the sum assigned for the maintenance *of the royal establishments was £208,000 per annum.*

The extraordinary grants are usually called supplies, and are settled by the House of Commons, who, when they have voted a supply to his majesty, resolve themselves into a committee of ways and means, to consider of the various modes of raising it. The taxes are—the land and malt-tax; the customs or commercial exactions; the excise, or inland impositions on a great variety of commodities; the post office duty, which has recently been diminished by a large reduction in the rates of postage; the stamps on paper, parchment, &c.; the duties on windows; licences for hackney coaches and chairs; and the duties on offices and pensions.

The produce of the ordinary revenue, in the year ending on the 10th of October, 1841, was about £44,913,946. As this sum was less than the yearly expenditure, there was, of course, a suspension of the operation of the Sinking Fund, established for the purpose of diminishing the national debt. Of this national debt, which forms a remarkable appendage of the established government, we must now give some account.

After the Revolution, when our increased connexions with the other powers of Europe introduced a new system of foreign politics, the expenses of the nation, not only in settling the new establishment, but in maintaining long wars, as principals, on the continent, for the security of the Dutch barrier, reducing the French monarchy, settling the Spanish succession, supporting the House of Austria, maintaining the liberties of the Germanic body, and other purposes, increased the debt to an unusual degree; insomuch that it was not thought advisable to raise all the supplies of any one year by taxes to be levied within that year, lest the unaccustomed weight should excite serious discontent. It was, therefore, the bad and certainly unjust policy of the times, to anticipate the revenues of posterity, by borrowing immense sums for the current service of the state, and to lay no more taxes upon the subject than would suffice to pay the annual interest of the sum so borrowed; thus converting the principal debt into a new species of property, transferable from one person to another, at any time, and in any quantity; a system which seems to have had its original at Florence, where, in 1344, a small public debt was formed into a fund with disposable shares at interest. Hence arose the *national debt;* for a few long annuities, created in the reign of Charles II., hardly deserve that name. At the end of King William's reign, the debt amounted to about £14,000,000; at the death of Queen Anne, it had increased to £50,000,000. When the unfortunate war broke out with the Americans, in 1775, about £130,000,000 formed the total funded debt; and, when Mr. Pitt proposed his scheme of liquidation, in 1786, it was estimated at £239,000,000. A small sinking fund had been created in 1717; but it was soon misapplied, and rendered ineffective. By Mr. Pitt's *plan, £1,000,000* was annually assigned to the *alleviation* of the enormous burden. This sum

was raised by the addition of new taxes to the surplus of revenue; and the fund thus established was intended to accumulate in the ratio of compound interest. When the subsequent war with France had occasioned the rapid formation of a new debt, which, early in the year 1797, had risen to £130,665,000, a new fund of gradual liquidation was formed by deductions from the successive loans; and thus, for a long course of years, with a short intermission, the government continued to borrow, spend, and save. In 1804, the debt was so far augmented as to reach the amount of £583,000,000, of which, however, above £98,000,000 were ostensibly redeemed. At the beginning of the year 1818, the magnitude of encumbrance was far more terrific; for about £776,700,000 appeared to be the grand total, exclusive of an unfunded debt of £66,680,000. The total amount of debt, in 1841, was £837,521,684, which includes the value of terminable annuities.

Public Companies.—The company of the Bank of England was incorporated by parliament, in the 5th and 6th years of William and Mary, by the name of the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, in consideration of the loan of £1,200,000 granted to the government; for which the subscribers received almost 8 per cent. By this charter, the directors were not allowed to borrow under their common seal, unless by act of parliament; they were not to trade, or suffer any person in trust for them to trade; but they might deal in bills of exchange, in buying or selling bullion, and foreign coin.

By a new act, they were empowered to enlarge their capital to £2,201,170. It was then also enacted, that bank-stock should be a personal and not a real estate; that no contract, either in word or writing, for the purchase or sale of it, should be good in law, unless registered in the books of the bank within seven days, and the stock transferred in fourteen days; and that it should be felony, without the benefit of clergy, to counterfeit the common seal of the bank, or any sealed bank-bill, or any bank-note, or to alter or erase such bill or bills or notes.

It was always understood, that the bank ought not to issue more notes than that amount for which it had cash to answer; but, in 1797, its inability of giving specie, in return for offered notes, greatly alarmed the public, and led to a parliamentary inquiry, the result of which was a demonstration of its solvency and security; and, indeed, its stability must be coeval with that of the government. All that it has advanced to the public must be lost, before its creditors can sustain any loss. No other banking company in England can rival it. It acts not only as an ordinary bank, but as a great engine of state. It receives and pays the greater part of the annuities that are due to the creditors of the public; it circulates exchequer bills; and it advances to government *the annual amount of* various taxes. It likewise *discounts the bills of* merchants; and has, upon several occasions, supported the credit of the principal houses not only of England, but of Amsterdam and Hamburg.

East India Company.—This company was instituted in the reign of Elizabeth, for the direction and management of the rising trade with the East Indies. It soon began to flourish, and the dividends upon its stock were sometimes very considerable; but, in the reign of James II., the king's partiality for the African trade, the losses which the company had sustained in wars with the Dutch, and the revolutions which had happened in the affairs of India, damped the ardour of the people to support it; so that, at the time of the Revolution, it was far from being in a prosperous state. As it had no parliamentary sanction, its stock was often sold for one half less than it was really worth; and it was resolved that a new company should be erected under the authority of parliament. The opposition given to all the public-spirited measures of King William, by faction, rendered this proposal a matter of considerable difficulty; but at last the new subscription prevailed; and the subscribers, advancing £2,000,000 to the public at 8 per cent., obtained an act in their favour. The old company, however, retained a great interest both in the parliament and nation; and, the act being found in some respects defective, so violent a struggle between the companies arose, that in 1702 they were united. In consequence of various loans to the state, the company repeatedly procured a prolongation of the right of exclusive trade. In 1730, when its privileges were extended for 33 years, the interest of its capital, which then amounted to £3,190,000, was reduced to 3 per cent. That fund is different from the trading stock of the company; the proprietors of which, instead of receiving a regular annuity, have, according to their different shares, a dividend of the profits arising from the trade. A proprietor of stock to the amount of £1000, whether man or woman, native or foreigner, has a right to be a manager, and to give a vote in the general council.

By occasional purchase, by gradual and systematic encroachment, and by interfering in the wars of the native powers, the company acquired a great extent of territory, and a consequent increase of trade; and, as its establishment seemed to be an *imperium in imperio*, or to involve a degree of authority which encroached on the more legitimate claims of the state, the parliament thought proper, in 1773, to render it more dependent and controllable. Ten years afterwards, when the misconduct of the directors and servants of the company seemed to threaten the establishment with ruin, Mr. Fox endeavoured to remedy the disorder by a bill which the sovereign affected to believe would have transferred the supremacy of British India to Mr. Fox and his friends. This bill was approved by the commons; but strong opposition was made to it in the House of Lords, as placing too dangerous a power in the

hands of a party, which would be sure to operate against the legitimate authority of the crown; and, after long debates, it was thrown out by a majority of 16 peers, the king having previously taken the unconstitutional step of declaring that he would consider as his personal enemies whoever voted for the measure.

Mr. Pitt's bill of settlement, which was substituted for the abortive scheme of Mr. Fox, six persons were nominated by the king as commissioners for the affairs of India. This board was to superintend, direct, and control, all acts, operations, and concerns, which related to the civil and military government or revenue of the British territories in that part of the world. The directors were required to deliver to the commissioners all minutes, orders, and resolutions of themselves, and of the court of proprietors, and copies of all letters, orders, and instructions, proposed to be sent abroad, for their approbation or alteration. They were allowed to appoint the servants abroad; but the king had a power, by his secretary of state, to recall any one of the governors or members of the councils, or any person holding an office in the settlements, and make void the appointment. This bill also gave, to the governor and council of Bengal, a control over the other presidencies, in all points which related to any transactions with the country powers, to peace and war, or to the application of their forces or revenues: but even that council was subjected to the absolute direction of the company at home, and, in all cases, except those of immediate danger and necessity, restrained from acting without orders from England.

Some years after this arrangement, the capital of the company was allowed to be raised to £5,000,000; and, in 1793, the monopoly was qualified by the permission of private traffic under certain restrictions. At the same time, the parliament obliged the company to contribute £500,000 per annum to the exigencies of the state. This sum, however, soon ceased to be paid. With regard to the progress of the trade, it may be observed, that the sale of tea, silk, piece-goods, salt-petre, spices, drugs, and other articles imported from the East, which, for 16 years prior to 1757, had scarcely exceeded the annual average of £2,000,000, nearly amounted, in 1796, to £9,000,000, the private trade being included. This favourable prospect, however, was clouded by the increase of the company's public debt, arising from frequent wars, and from the excess of expenditure, in the various establishments, above the revenue.

When a renewal of the monopoly was solicited, in 1812, the parliament listened to the public voice, rather than to the suggestions of the directors, and opened the trade with India to all merchants and speculators; but the commerce with the Chinese empire was still left exclusively to the company, which obtained, for 20 years, a continuance of *territorial power*. On the *expiration of the charter, in 1833*, a complete change was made in the constitution of the company. By the act of the 3rd and 4th of William IV., an end was put to the company's commercial character. The trade to China was to cease on the 22nd of April, 1834, and, as soon after as possible, the stock on hand was to be disposed of. The functions of the company are henceforth to be wholly political; and, in conjunction with the board of control, it is to continue to govern India till the 30th of April, 1854. All the real and personal property belonging to the company on the 22nd of April, 1834, is vested in the crown, and is to be held or managed by the company, in trust for the state, subject to all legal claims which have been or may be made. The company's debts, &c., are all charged upon India, and the dividend, fixed at 10½ per cent, is to be paid in England, out of the Indian revenue. A security fund is established for its discharge. Parliament, by paying £200 for £100 stock, may redeem the dividend at any time after April, 1854; but should the company be deprived of the government of India in 1854, it may, at any time thereafter, claim the redemption of the dividend upon three years' notice.

South Sea Company.—During the long war with France, in the reign of Queen Anne, the sailors of the royal navy were obliged by their necessities to sell the tickets, given to them for future payment, at a discount of £40 and sometimes £50 per cent. By this and other means, the unfunded debts of the nation, which amounted to £9,471,225 fell into the hands of usurers. Mr. Harley proposed a scheme to allow the proprietors of these debts and deficiencies £6 per cent. per annum, and to incorporate them under the title of the Governor and Company of Merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas. Though this company seemed formed for the sake of commerce, the ministry never thought seriously, during the course of the war, about making any settlement on the coast of South America, which was what flattered the expectations of the people; nor was it indeed ever carried into execution, or any trade ever undertaken by this company, except the Asiento for furnishing the Spaniards with negroes. Some other sums were lent to the government in the reign of Queen Anne, at 6 per cent. In the third year of George I. the interest of the whole was reduced to 5 per cent., and the company advanced £2,000,000 more to the government at the same interest. It was declared by statute, that this company might redeem all or any of the redeemable national debts; in consideration of which, the directors were empowered to augment their capital according to the sums they should discharge, and indeed to raise such sums as in a general court might be judged necessary; but it was declared, that, if they should purchase lands or revenues of the crown on account of the corporation, or lend money by loan or anticipation on any *branch* of the revenue, other than such part *only* on which a credit of loan was granted by

parliament, they should forfeit three times the value.

The mischievous South-Sea scheme transacted in 1720, was executed upon the last-mentioned statute. The company had set out with good success; and his majesty, after purchasing £10,000 stock, had condescended to be the ostensible governor. Things were in this situation, when the South Sea bubble was projected; the pretence of which was to raise a fund for carrying on a trade to the South Sea, and purchasing annuities, &c., paid to the other companies: and proposals were printed and distributed, showing the advantages of the design, and inviting persons into it. The sum necessary for carrying it on, and the profits that were to arise from it, were divided into shares or subscriptions; and, the better to carry on the deception, the directors engaged to make very large dividends, and actually declared that every £100 original stock would yield £50 per annum; which occasioned so great a rise of their stock, that a share of £100 was sold for upwards of £800. This was in July; but, before the end of September, it fell to £150; by which multitudes were ruined, and such a scene of distress occasioned as is scarcely to be conceived. Most of the directors were severely fined, to the loss of nearly all their property; even those who had no share in the deception, because they ought to have opposed and prevented it.

The East India Company, the Bank of England, and the South Sea Company, are the only incorporated bodies to which the government is indebted, except the million bank whose capital is only £1,000,000, constituted to purchase the reversion of the long exchequer orders.

As every capital stock or fund of a company is raised for a particular purpose, and limited by government to a certain sum, it necessarily follows, that, when that fund is completed, no stock can be bought of the company, though shares, already purchased, may be transferred from one person to another. This being the case, there is frequently a great disproportion between the original value of the shares, and what is given for them when transferred; for, if there are more buyers than sellers, a person who is indifferent about selling will not give up his share without a considerable profit to himself; and, on the contrary, if many are disposed to sell, and few inclined to buy, the value of such shares will naturally fall, in proportion to the impatience of those who wish to turn their stock into cash.

These observations may serve to give our readers some idea of the nature of that unjustifiable and dishonest practice called stock-jobbing, the mystery of which consists in nothing more than this: the persons concerned in that practice, who are denominated stock-jobbers, make contracts to buy or sell, at a *distant time, a certain quantity* of stock; against *which time they endeavour*, according as their contract is, either to raise or lower such stock, by spreading rumours and fictitious stories, in order to induce people either to sell out in a hurry, and consequently at a low rate, if they are to deliver stock; or to become unwilling to sell it, and consequently to make it dearer, if they are to receive stock.

The persons who make these contracts do not in general possess any real stock; and when the time comes that they are to receive or deliver the quantity for which they have contracted, they only receive or pay such a sum of money as makes the difference between the price which the stock bore when they made the contract and the present price. Hence, it is no uncommon thing for persons not worth £100 to make contracts for buying or selling £100,000 of stock. The buyer is, in this case, called the Bull, and the seller the Bear; one is for raising or tossing up, and the other for lowering or trampling upon, the stock.

While the annuities, and interest for money advanced, are regularly paid, and the principal ensured by both prince and people, (a security rarely found among other nations,) foreigners will lend us their property, and all Europe be interested in our welfare; the paper of the companies will be converted into money and merchandise, and Great Britain can never want cash to carry her schemes into execution. In other nations, credit is founded on the word of the prince, if a monarchy; or that of the people, if a republic; but here it is established on the strongest security—the united interest of the prince and the people.

Military and Marine Force of Great Britain.—In a land of liberty it is extremely dangerous to make a distinct order of the profession of arms. In fact, no man ought to take up arms, but with a view to the defence of his country and its laws: a freeman does not, when he enters the camp, relinquish the character of the citizen; but it is because he is a citizen, and would wish to continue so, that he makes himself for a while a soldier. The laws and constitution of this realm know no such state as that of a perpetual soldiery, bred to arms alone; and it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the kings of England had even a guard about their persons. In the mean time, however, the kingdom was not left wholly without defence, in case of domestic insurrection, or the prospect of foreign invasion. Besides those who, by their military tenures, were bound to perform forty days' service in the field, the statute of Winchester obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace; and constables were appointed in all hundreds, to see that such arms were provided. These weapons were changed, by an act of Philip and Mary, into others of more modern service; but this and the former provisions were repealed in the reign of James I. While these continued in force, it was usual, from time to time, for our

princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every county officers in whom they could confide, to set in military order the inhabitants of every district; and the form of the commission was settled in parliament in the 5th year of Henry IV. But at the same time it was provided, that the persons thus levied should neither be compelled to leave the kingdom, nor even be withdrawn without urgent necessity out of their particular counties. In the reign of Henry VIII. lord-lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in a military attitude.

Soon after the restoration of King Charles II., when the feudal tenures were abolished, it was thought proper to ascertain the power of the militia, to recognize the sole right of the crown to govern and command that body, and to put the whole into a more regular method of military subordination. A certain number of the inhabitants of every county are chosen by ballot, and are exercised at stated times; and their discipline in general is liberal and easy; but, when drawn out in actual service, they are subject to the rigours of martial law. This is the constitutional security which our laws have provided for the public peace, and for protecting the realm against foreign or domestic violence, and which the statutes declare to be essentially necessary to the safety and prosperity of the kingdom.

But, as the mode of keeping a standing army has prevailed over all Europe of late years, and as our numerous colonies in all parts of the world stand in need of permanent garrisons, it has also for many years past been annually judged necessary by our legislature, for the safety of the kingdom, and the preservation of the balance of power in Europe, to maintain, even in time of peace, a standing body of armed men, under the command of the crown; who would, however, be disbanded at the expiration of every year, did not parliament continue their services by renewing the Mutiny Act. The troops on service in the year 1804, according to the statement of the secretary-at-war, (Mr. Yorke,) consisted of 20,324 regular cavalry, 133,297 infantry, 87,652 militia, 26,000 of the army of reserve, and 14,200 men connected with the artillery; so that the actual force of the united realm amounted to 281,413 men, exclusive of 400,000 volunteers, who had taken arms for the defence of their endangered country. The regular army received occasional augmentations in subsequent years; and, even after the restoration of peace, 150,000 men (including the British portion of the military occupants of France) were not considered by the parliament as an exorbitant levy. In 1818, however, the ministry so far complied with the wishes of the people, as to reduce the regular force to 113,640 men. In 1820, it exceeded 122,000; and in 1841 it consisted of 121,121.

The maritime state, while it *is closely related to the military service, is more agreeable to the* principles of our constitution. The navy of England has ever been its greatest defence and ornament; it is its ancient and natural strength; the floating bulwark of the island; an arm, from which, however strong and powerful, no danger can be apprehended to liberty; and accordingly it received great attention even in the Saxon times. The Anglo-Norman kings also cultivated this branch of the service; and it may be mentioned, as a proof of the naval reputation of the English, that the laws of Oleron, compiled by Richard I., were adopted by most of the nations of Europe as the ground of all their marine constitutions. Yet, so inferior were our ancestors in this point to the present age, that, even in the maritime reign of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Edward Coke thinks it a matter of boast that the royal navy of England consisted of 33 ships. The present excellence of our marine may, in a great measure, be attributed to the salutary provisions of the Navigation Act, the rudiments of which were first framed in 1650, partly with a narrow view; being intended to mortify the West Indian subjects of the republic, who were disaffected to the parliament, by stopping the gainful trade which they then carried on with the Dutch, and at the same time to clip the wings of those our opulent and aspiring neighbours. This act prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantations without licence from the council of state. In 1651 the prohibition was extended to the mother country; and no goods were suffered to be imported into England, or any of its dependencies, in any other than English bottoms, or than the ships of that European nation of which the merchandise imported was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, the former provisions were continued, with this material improvement, that the masters and three-fourths of the mariners should be English subjects. The stringent provisions of this act have, however, been much relaxed within the last twenty years.

In the reign of James II. the royal navy, from the highest to the lowest rate, consisted of 173 vessels: in the next reign, they amounted to 270; in 1762, about 340 formed the aggregate number; in 1801, they were calculated at 787; and, during the war which terminated in 1815, so great was the augmentation, that the number rose to 1000, of which 550 were ships of the line and frigates; but it must be observed, that this computation includes those ships that were under repair, such as were upon the stocks, and ships used for prisons and hospitals; and that, out of 210 ships of the line, completely built, not more than 120 were actually serving against the enemy. On the return of peace, only 40 ships, from the first to the fifth-rate, were kept in commission, and 64 of the sixth-rate; but about 490 vessels of all descriptions remain in ordinary, as it is termed, so as not to *require much* time to bring them into actual *service. The* total number of ships comprising

the royal navy, at the close of 1841, including steamers, was 573, of which 246 were in commission.

Royal Titles and Arms.—The title of the king, since the union with Ireland, is, in Latin, *Dei Gratiâ, Britanniarum Rex, Fidei Defensor;* and, in English, "By the Grace of God, of Great Britain and Ireland King, Defender of the Faith." The designation of the sovereign of England was formerly his or her Grace, or Highness, until Henry VIII., to put himself on a footing with the emperor Charles V., assumed that of Majesty. The title of Defender of the Faith, above mentioned, was given to the same monarch by the pope, on account of a treatise which he had written against Luther and the Reformation.

Richard I. annexed to the royal arms the motto of *Dieu et mon Droit;* that is, "God and my Right," [will defend or protect me,] to show his independence upon all earthly powers. It was afterwards revived by Edward III. when he claimed the crown of France. Almost every king of England had a particular badge or cognizance. The white rose was the bearing of the House of York, while that of Lancaster adopted the red.

Orders of Knighthood—Titles.—The order of the Garter, the most honourable of any in the world, was instituted by Edward III. in 1344. It consists of the sovereign, and 25 companions, who wear a medal of St. George killing the dragon, supposed to be the tutelar saint of England, commonly enamelled on gold, suspended from a blue ribbon. The garter, which is of blue velvet, bordered with gold, buckled under the left knee, was designed as an ensign of unity and combination; on it are embroidered the words, *Honi soit qui mal y pense,* "Accursed or confounded may he be who evil thinks."

Knights of the Bath, for many reigns, were created at the coronation of a king or queen, or on other solemn occasions. They wear a scarlet ribbon hanging from the left shoulder, with an enamelled medal, the badge of the order, a rose issuing from the dexter side of a sceptre, and a thistle from the sinister, three imperial crowns being placed within the motto, *Tria juncta uno,* "Three joined in one." This order, being discontinued, was revived by George I. in 1725.

The origin of the English peerage, or nobility, has been already mentioned. The titles, and order of dignity, are dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons.

Baronets enjoy the only hereditary honour under the peerage, and would take place even of the knights of the Garter, if the latter were not always privy-counsellors, there being no intermediate honour between them and the parliamentary barons of England. They were instituted by James I. in 1611.

A knight signifies a soldier serving on horseback; a rank of no mean estimation in ancient armies, and entitling the parties themselves to *the appellation of Sir.* Other knighthoods formerly took place in England; such as those of bannerets, bachelors, knights of the carpet, and the like; but they are now disused.

The title of esquire formerly denoted any person, who, by his birth or property, was entitled to bear arms; but it is at present applied to any man who can afford to live in the character of a gentleman, without trade; and even a tradesman, if he is a justice of the peace, demands the appellation. This degree, so late as in the reign of Henry IV., was an order, and conferred by the king, by putting about the party's neck a collar of SS, and giving him a pair of silver spurs. Sergeants at law, justices of peace, doctors in divinity, law, and physic, take place of other esquires. The appellation of gentleman, though now bestowed with little discrimination, is the root of all English honour; for every nobleman is presumed to be a gentleman, though every gentleman is not a nobleman.

Religion.—While we dismiss, as mere fiction, the stories of the predication of the Gospel in this island by St. Paul, St. James, Simon Zelotes, and Joseph of Arimathea, we have some authority for asserting, that, about the year 150, a great number of Britons professed the Christian faith. From that period, Christianity advanced its benign and salutary influence among the inhabitants; and, in the reign of Constantine, it became the established religion of the state. It fled into Wales with the harassed Britons, when the pagan Saxons had erected their heptarchy. At length the invaders imbibed the evangelical doctrines from some papal missionaries; and a hierarchy was gradually established. The Romish corruptions made as great progress in this country as in other parts of Europe; and ages of superstition seemed to cement the fabric of spiritual authority. The memory of Wickliffe, who flourished in the reign of Richard II., is entitled to our esteem; for he was the first person in Europe who publicly called in question, and boldly refuted, those doctrines which had been current during so long a period. But the time of reform had not then arrived. The effectual exposure of error was reserved for Luther, whose pious endeavours led to the triumph of protestant orthodoxy. The reformation, promoted by the violence of Henry VIII., was established by the prudence and spirit of his daughter Elizabeth; and our church then assumed that form which it still retains.

The constitution of the Anglo-Saxon church was episcopal, and the benefices of the bishops were converted by the Norman conqueror into temporal baronies, in right of which every bishop has a seat and vote in the House of Peers. The benefices of the inferior clergy are now freehold; but in many places the tithes are impropriated, or vested in the laity. The economy of the Church of England has been accused for the inequality of its livings—some of them extending from £200 to £4000 per annum; and many, particularly in Wales, being too small to maintain a clergyman, especially if he

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resbyters, who signify the* bishop's pleasure to his clergy, the lower class of which consists of priests and deacons.

The ecclesiastical government of England is ostensibly lodged in the convocation, which is a national representative body or synod. This assembly, in the reign of Queen Anne, entered warmly into the disputes between the Whigs and Tories; and, as the latter had the ascendancy among the clergy, the former advised George I. to check the spirit of debate by a prorogation. Since that time, the convocation has only met *pro formâ* at the opening of a new parliament.

The most ancient consistory of the province of Canterbury is the court of Arches, to which all appeals in spiritual affairs or causes, from the judgment of the inferior courts, are directed. The processes run in the name of the judge, who is called Dean of the Arches; and the advocates who plead in this court must have taken the degree of doctor of the civil law at Oxford or Cambridge; for the graduates of less respectable universities, or indeed of any other academical bodies, are invariably rejected. The Prerogative court is that which grants probates of wills and letters of administration; and it also decides ecclesiastical and matrimonial causes. From the court of Arches, an appeal lies to the delegates, who do not constitute a permanent court, but are occasionally appointed by the royal commission, two or more of the twelve judges being authorized to decide a particular cause with the aid of some civilians; and, when the delegates have pronounced their opinions, the dissatisfied party may demand a commission of review. Every bishop has also a court; and archdeacons have likewise their courts, as well as the dean and chapter of every cathedral.

The Church of England is now, beyond any other national church, tolerant in its principles. Moderation is its governing character; and in England no religious sect is prevented from worshipping God in that manner which the conscience may approve. The wisdom of acknowledging the king as the head of the church is conspicuous, in checking all religious persecution and intolerance; and, if religious sectaries have multiplied in England, it is from the same principle that civil licentiousness has prevailed—that is, a tenderness in matters that affect either conscience or liberty. The bias which the clergy had toward popery in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Edward VI., and even so late as that of Elizabeth, occasioned an interposition of civil power for a farther reformation. Thence arose the Puritans, so called from their maintaining a singular purity of life and manners. Many of them were worthy pious men, and some of them good patriots. Their descendants are the modern Presbyterians, who retain the same character, and have true principles of civil and religious liberty; but their theological sentiments have undergone a considerable change. Their doctrine, *like that of the* Church of Scotland, was origin-

ally derived from the plan instituted by Calvin, and tended to an abolition of episcopacy, and an establishment of presbyteries for the government of the church. But the modern English Presbyterians, in their ideas of church government, differ very little from the Independents, or Congregationalists, who are so called from holding the independence of congregations, without any respect to doctrine; and, in this sense, almost all the Dissenters in England are now Independents. As to points of doctrine, a great and increasing number of Presbyterians are Arminians, or votaries of free will. The Baptists also form a numerous class of Dissenters. They do not believe that infants are proper subjects of baptism; and in the baptism of adults they practise immersion.

The Methodists arose about the year 1739, under the auspices of Mr. John Wesley, who had been regularly educated and ordained. Mr. George Whitefield also professed that methodical purity which gave rise to the appellation; but these reformers did not long act in concert. Whitefield thought that the forms of ecclesiastical worship and prayers, whether taken from a common-prayer book or poured forth *extempore*, were matters of indifference; he therefore made use of both these methods. His followers are rigid observers of the doctrinal articles of the Church of England, and profess themselves to be Calvinists. Wesley preferred the doctrine of free will to election and reprobation. He erected a tabernacle near Moorfields, and had under him a considerable number of subordinate preachers, who submitted to their leader implicitly, and made proselytes throughout the kingdom with great industry.

The sect of Quakers arose about the middle of the 17th century. They believe in the immediate influence of the Holy Spirit, and reject all forms in worship, even the sacraments of baptism and the Lord's supper. They declare against oaths, adhering literally to Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all;" and to war they have a rooted aversion. They disuse the names of the months and days of the week, as being in honour of the false gods of the heathens; and avoid the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen from motives of adulation. They declare it their decided judgment that it is contrary to the Gospel to sue each other at law; and they enjoin all to end their differences by speedy and impartial arbitration. If any refuse to adopt this mode, or, having adopted it, to submit to the award, it is the rule of the society that such be disowned. Upon the whole, they are an honest, upright, and moral sect.

Many families in England still profess the Romish religion. They were long excluded by law from corporations, from the highest offices, and from parliamentary privileges. They frequently attempted to procure a full admission to all the rights of British subjects, and were *as often foiled; but, at length*, they succeeded, *and were received within* the pale of the constitution. They are now excluded from only a very few high offices, which it would be impossible for them to fill in a Protestant land.

Beside a variety of religious sects, England has also its Free-thinkers; but that term has been used in very different senses. It has sometimes been used to denote opposers of religion in general, and of revealed religion in particular; but it has also been applied to those who have been far from disbelieving Christianity, and who have only opposed some of those doctrines which are to be found in public creeds and formularies, but which they conceive to be no part of the original Christian system. As to Deists or Infidels, there is reason to believe that they are much more numerous in some popish countries than in England. Nor does it appear that the writings of the Deists against Christianity have been of any real disservice to it; on the contrary, they have caused the arguments in its favour to be urged with greater force and clearness, and have been the means of producing such defences of it, as all the acuteness of modern infidelity has been unable to overthrow.

LITERATURE AND THE ARTS.—England may be considered as the seat of learning and the Muses. Alfred cultivated both, when barbarism and ignorance overspread the greater part of Europe; and, even during the dark ages, some men occasionally appeared in England, who distinguished themselves by their writings or studies. Among the writers in the Anglo-Norman reigns, several historians may be named who united with their talents a respectable portion of learning, particularly the two monks of Malmesbury and Newburgh; and two poets may also be mentioned with praise; namely, Hanville and Joseph of Exeter. The reign of the third Henry was dignified with the appearance of that prodigy of learning and natural philosophy, Roger Bacon, who was the forerunner in science of the great Bacon, Lord Verulam, as the latter was to Sir Isaac Newton. Among the curious works written by this illustrious man, we find treatises upon theology, philology, mathematics, physics, the flux and reflux of the sea, optics, geography, astronomy, logic, metaphysics, ethics, medicine, chemistry, and on the impediments of knowledge. The poets Chaucer and Gower, whose productions are read with pleasure even in the present age, flourished in the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. Since the Reformation, England resembles a galaxy of literature; and it is only doing justice to the memory of Cardinal Wolsey, though otherwise a dangerous and profligate minister, to acknowledge that his example and encouragement laid the foundation of the polite arts, and greatly contributed to the complete revival of classical learning in England. As many of the English clergy had different sentiments in religious matters at the time of the Reformation, encouragement was given to learned foreigners to settle in England. Edward VI., during his short life, greatly encou-

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their situations so easy under Cromwell, though he was no stranger to the political sentiments of some of them, that they quietly followed their studies; and many works of great merit appeared even in those times of distraction.

The reign of Charles II. was chiefly distinguished by the great proficiency made in natural philosophy, especially by the institution of the Royal Society. The king was a good judge of that branch of study; and, though he was irreligious, England never abounded more with learned and able divines than in his reign. He admired painting and poetry, but was more munificent to the former than to the latter. The incomparable Paradise Lost, by Milton, was published in his reign, but was not read or attended to in proportion to its merit, though it was far from being disregarded so much as has been commonly apprehended. This reign, by some, is reckoned the Augustan age in England, and is dignified with the names of Boyle, Halley, Hooke, Sydenham, Harvey, Temple, Tillotson, Barrow, Butler, Cowley, Waller, Dryden, Wycherly, and Otway. The pulpit assumed greater majesty, a better style and truer energy, than it had ever known before. Classic literature recovered many of its native graces; and the drama flourished luxuriantly, but was unfortunately tainted with obscene ribaldry. Though England could not, under Charles, boast of a Jones and a Vandyke, yet Sir Christopher Wren introduced a more general regularity than had ever been known before in architecture. Nor was he merely distinguished by his skill as an architect; his knowledge was very extensive; and his discoveries in philosophy contributed much to the reputation of the Royal Society. Some excellent English painters (for Lely and Kneller were foreigners) also flourished in this reign.

That of James II., though he likewise had a taste for the fine arts, is chiefly distinguished in the province of literature by the sermons and dissertations of the English divines against popery, which, for strength of reasoning and depth of erudition, never were equalled in any age or country.

The names of Newton and Locke adorned the reign of William III., and he had a particular esteem for the latter, as he had also for Tillotson and Burnet, though he was far from being liberal to men of genius. Learning flourished in his reign, merely by the excellence of the soil in which it had been planted.

The most uninformed readers are not unacquainted with the improvements which learning, and all the polite arts, received under the auspices of Queen Anne. Many of the great men who had figured in the reigns of the Stuarts and William were still alive and in the full exercise of their faculties, when a new race sprang up in the republic of learning and the arts. Addison, Prior, Pope, Swift, Lord Bolingbroke, Lord Shaftesbury, Arbuthnot, Congreve, *Steele, Rowe,* and other excellent writers, both in verse and prose, need only to be mentioned

to be admired; and the English were as triumphant in literature as in arms. Natural and moral philosophy kept pace with the polite arts; and even religious and political disputes contributed to the advancement of learning, by the great liberty which the laws of England allow in speculative points, and which has been found highly advantageous in the promotion of truth and valuable knowledge.

The ministers of George I. were the patrons of erudition, and some of them were no mean proficients. George II. was no Mæcenas; yet his reign yielded to none of the preceding in the number of learned and ingenious men it produced. The episcopal bench was never known to be more respectably filled than it was in the early years of his reign; a full proof that his nobility and ministers were judges of literary qualifications. In other departments of erudition, the favour of the public generally supplied the coldness of the court. In the reign of George III. a great progress was made in the polite arts in England. The Royal Academy was instituted, and the annual public exhibitions of painting and sculpture were exceedingly favourable to the arts, by promoting a spirit of emulation, and exciting a greater attention to works of genius of this kind among the public in general.

During the long reign of George III. almost every branch of literature and of science was cultivated in England with ability and success; and even short accounts of the persons who then distinguished themselves by their learning, talents, or various merits and services, would fill a moderate volume. To the theological attainments of former ages, indeed, much could not be added, as the scriptural basis remained the same: yet the doctrines of the church were more clearly illustrated, and the concomitant interests of morality were more ably enforced. The bounds of astronomical knowledge were extended by the discoveries of Herschell and others; all the branches of natural philosophy were cultivated with zeal and success; a sedulous attention to chemistry was rewarded by numerous and valuable discoveries; and science was rendered instrumental in the improvement of many useful arts. Geology became a favourite study, and began to assume the dignity of a science, and mineralogy was pursued with equal zeal. The different branches of the healing art were practised in more judicious modes, and with more general efficacy. History, being illuminated and dignified by sedulousness of research and acuteness of remark, more fully answered that definition which represents it as a species of philosophy teaching by example. Poetry was more gorgeous, picturesque, and fanciful, than it had been in the time of Pope; and if the tragic drama did not then remarkably flourish, some excellent comedies were produced; and the varieties of miscellaneous literature afforded, to an increasing number of readers, a considerable fund of instruction, and a high degree of entertainment. It was not, however, till the middle of the reign of George III. that it began to shake off its mechanical fetters, and soar with a free wing.

Science, literature, and art, have continued to be in a state of progress since the accession of George III. George IV. was himself a man of considerable taste, and a liberal encouragement of learning and the arts. His instituting the Royal Society of Literature, presenting to the public the extensive library collected by him, and making arrangements to form a gallery of painting and sculpture, are striking proofs of this fact. To which may be added, that he was the first English monarch who bestowed any public honour upon the possessors of literary, scientific, or pictorial talent. William IV. is a liberal patron of such things; but, fortunately for authors and artists, they can rely upon the favour of the public, and are no longer under the necessity of seeking for the countenance of the great.

Universities and Schools.—The universities of Oxford and Cambridge have produced more learned men than any in Europe; their magnificent buildings, which in splendour of architecture rival the most superb royal palaces, the rich endowments, the liberal ease and tranquillity enjoyed by those who inhabit them, surpass all the ideas which foreigners, unacquainted with them, conceive of literary societies. So valuable are they in their foundations, that every university sends two members to the house of parliament, and their chancellors and visitors have a civil jurisdiction over their students better to secure their independence.

To Oxford belong 19 colleges and 5 halls. The former are very liberally endowed, but in the latter the students chiefly maintain themselves. This city is supposed by some fanciful antiquaries to have been a considerable place even in the time of the Romans; and Camden observes that "wise antiquity did, even in the first age, consecrate this place to the Muses." But there is no authority for concluding that a university existed on this spot before the time of Alfred, who built three colleges, one for divinity, another for philosophy, and a third for grammar. That which is now particularly called University College, arose from his foundation; but the process of the work is not exactly known. The next college, in the order of time, was that of Balliol, founded, about the year 1268, by the father of the Scottish king of that name, lord chancellor of the realm; and endowed the third, in 1274. The College of the lord-treasurer Walter, bishop of Worcester, gave rise to another, in 1316. That of Merton soon after arose, under the auspices of Walter de Merton, almoner of King Edward II. Eglesfield, chaplain to Philippa of Hainault, founded Queen's College in 1340; and the next academical foundation was that which is still called New College, though it is now comparatively old. The fifteenth century produced Lincoln College, All Souls, and Magdalen. Six colleges arose in the

nely, Brasen Nose, Corpus Christi, ch, Trinity, St. John's, and Jesus; ssham, Pembroke, and Worcester, d in the sequel. The 20th college Hertford; but, as this foundation e crown some years ago, the ich it stood was granted to the dalen Hall. Those who partake rnments of the colleges are about ber: the independent members are numerous.

idge, the first collegiate erection ouse, which Hugh, bishop of Ely, 57; Clare Hall succeeded, in 1326; all, Bene't or Corpus Christi Col- nity Hall, quickly followed. Gon- le founded in 1348; but, in conse- litional buildings and endowments r, it became Caius College in the e munificence of Henry VI. was l in 1441, by the foundation of ge, which is richly endowed, and r the beauty and majestic dignity , built in the finest style of Gothic His queen exercised her liberality mode, but not in an equal degree, an academical society which took m her splendid title. Catharine rom the bounty of Robert Wood- llor of the university. Dr. Alcock, ly, converted the nunnery of St. n 1496, into the college of Jesus; et, the mother of Henry VII., early century, founded the colleges of t. John. A new erection was me- e duke of Buckingham, the unfor- n of Cardinal Wolsey's ambition ty; but Lord Chancellor Audley cheme into effect, and the structure ed to St. Mary Magdalen. These were eclipsed in 1540 by the lustre ork; for Trinity College was then Henry VIII. Those of Emmanuel were organized in the reign of Eli- wning College is a recent founda- is so constituted, as to be rather a eceptacle for men of reputed learn- lace of education. The fellows and Cambridge are calculated nearly at ve of those students who entirely nselves.

te House at Cambridge is a most ce, executed in the Corinthian order. ege library is also a magnificent The library of Bene't College is not d by architectural beauty; but it luable collection of ancient manu- h were preserved at the dissolution steries.

ese two great national institutions, eral others, similar in kind, but of tance. In the time of Oliver Crom- a university was founded at Dur- was never brought completely into ceased to exist on the restoration of sity. In 1831, the *dean and chapter* resolved to found an academical institution, in connexion with their cathedral church. An act was obtained for this purpose, and a university was established, "to consist of a warden or principal, certain professors and readers, tutors, students, and other officers and persons." This university is governed by a warden, senate, and convocation, and is allowed to grant degrees in the several faculties. In 1837 it obtained a royal charter. At present, it has 3 professors, 5 readers, and 2 lecturers.

In 1837 a university was established by charter in the metropolis, under the title of the University of London. It consists of a chancellor, which office is now held by the earl of Burlington, a vice-chancellor, and 36 fellows. It sits for the present at Somerset House, and is empowered to confer degrees in arts, law, and medicine. It has 26 examiners into the qualification of those who are candidates for degrees.

With the laudable view of conferring the benefits of academical education on youths whose parents could not afford the enormous expense of Oxford and Cambridge, or dreaded to expose their children to the dissipated practices too common at those seminaries, University College (originally denominated the London University) was projected by Lord Brougham and other eminent personages. A subscription was raised, and, in 1826, the building of a magnificent pile was commenced in Gower Street, Bedford Square. A part of it is, however, still incomplete. In 1836 the establishment was incorporated by royal charter. It is governed by a president, vice-president and council, and has 30 professors.

As a rival to this institution, King's College was founded, and obtained a charter in 1829. The building appropriated to it forms the eastern wing of Somerset House. It has 20 professors, and 7 teachers; has the queen for its patron, and the archbishop of Canterbury for its visitor; and is under the control of governors, a president, and a council.

In the metropolis there are several public schools, among the principal of which are those of Westminster, Christ's Hospital, the Charter House, St. Paul's, and Merchant Tailors'.

There are also a number of similar seminaries in the counties. Those of Eton, Winchester, Harrow, Rugby, Shrewsbury, and Manchester, may be considered as the most eminent.

LANGUAGE.—The English language is principally a compound of the Saxon and the French; the Saxon, however, predominates; and the words which are borrowed from the French, being radically Latin, are common to other nations, particularly the Spaniards and the Italians. A great number of words, especially scientific and technical terms, have been introduced from the Latin and Greek. A more minute account of this language would be superfluous to an English reader; but relatively it enjoys all the properties, without many of the defects, of other European languages. It is *more energetic*, manly, and expressive, than

either the French or the Italian; more copious than the Spanish; and more eloquent than the German, or the other tongues of Gothic origin.

ANTIQUITIES.—The antiquities of England are either British, Roman, Saxon, Danish, or Anglo-Normanic. The chief British antiquities are those circles of stones which have been attributed to the times of the Druids. Stonehenge, in Wiltshire, is, by Inigo Jones, Dr. Stukely, and others, described as a regular circular structure. The body of the work consists of two circles and two ovals, which are thus composed: the upright stones are placed at three feet and a half distance from each other, and joined at the top by over-thwart stones, with tenons fitted to the mortises in the uprights, for keeping them in their due positions. Some of these stones are extremely large, measuring two yards in breadth, one in thickness, and above seven in height; others are less in proportion. The uprights are wrought a little with a chisel, and sometimes tapered; but the transverse stones are quite plain. The outside circle is nearly 180 feet in diameter, between which and the next circle there is a walk of 300 feet in circumference, which has a surprising and awful effect upon the beholders.

Near Avebury, in Wiltshire, there are the remains of a structure of the same kind, which seems to have been on a still more stupendous scale. According to Stukely, it consisted of 650 stones, independently of a large cromlech about a mile to the north, and was so extensive as to include the whole of the present village within its circumference. It was surrounded by a broad ditch, and lofty vallum without the ditch, which ridge or vallum, it is thought, was intended for spectators to view the ceremonies within the area. Within the ditch was a circle 1400 feet in diameter, formed of 100 upright stones from 15 to 17 feet high, and about 40 feet in circumference, placed at a distance of 27 yards from each other. Within this circle were two circles, each consisting of two double concentric arches composed of the same number of stones, and exhibiting a similar arrangement. There were two entrances to the grand circle, consisting of double rows of 100 upright stones each, placed at equal distances and extending a mile in length, one of which was terminated by another double concentric circle of smaller dimensions, and the other by a larger stone than the rest. Little now remains of this enormous structure, the stones having been broken up and employed for mending the roads and building.

Monuments of the same kind as those of Stonehenge and Avebury are to be met with in Cumberland, Oxfordshire, Cornwall, Devonshire, and many other parts of England, as well as in Scotland and the northern isles.

Among the British antiquities not the least remarkable are the barrows, or sepulchral mounds, which are to be met with in many *counties, but particularly* in Wiltshire and Dorsetshire. *The largest known* barrow is the gigantic conical mass called Silbury Hill, near Avebury, in Wiltshire, which is 170 feet high, and 1680 feet in circumference. The English barrows have been divided into five classes. 1. Those which have the central elevation about one-third of the length, are oblong, ovated at each end, and higher at the head than the feet. These are similar to the barrows found at Lacedemon and Troy, and in Egypt. 2. Obtusely oval, with slight central elevation, seated on eminences near the sea. These resemble the Phœnician barrows. 3. Such as are more circular, elevated conically, the diameter of the base equal to the height, surrounded by a fosse of six cubits, and containing blue glass beads, amber, gold and silver trinkets, military, mechanical, and domestic utensils of brass, and of a mixed metal. These are supposed to be the works of the Belgæ before the Julian invasion. 4. Such as are larger than the third class, are long, oval or circular, and with or without a fosse. These, by the lamps, lacrymatories, &c., which they contain, prove themselves to be Roman. 5. Such as are oblong, with circles of erect stones either at the base or summit. These are probably of Danish origin. In Cornwall, Northumberland, Wales, and some other parts, instead of being, as they usually are, of earth, they are formed of loose stones or flints, and are called cairns.

The Roman antiquities in England consist chiefly of altars and monumental inscriptions, which instruct us as to the legionary stations of the Romans in Britain, and the names of some of their commanders. The Roman highways give us an idea of the civil as well as military policy of those conquerors. Their vestiges are numerous: one began at Dover, and ended at Cardigan; another passed from London through Lincoln; and a branch of it, from Pontefract to Doncaster, strikes out to the westward, passing through Tadcaster to York, and thence to Aldby. The remains of Roman camps are discernible in many counties of England; one particularly, very little defaced, near Dorchester in Dorsetshire, where also is a Roman amphitheatre. Their situations are generally so well chosen, and their fortifications appear to have been so complete, that there is some reason to believe that they were the constant habitations of the Roman soldiers in England; though it is certain, from the baths and tesselated pavements found in different parts, that their chief officers lived in towns. The private cabinets of noblemen and gentlemen, as well as the public repositories, contain a vast number of Roman arms, coins, *fibulæ*, trinkets, and the like; but the most amazing monument of the Roman power in England is the wall of Severus, commonly called the Picts' wall, running through Northumberland and Cumberland; beginning at the mouth of the Tyne, and ending at Solway Frith. The wall at first consisted only of stakes and turf, with a ditch; but Severus built it with stone forts and turrets at proper distances, so that each

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and they fought with lances, darts, and swords. Women sometimes led their armies to the field, and were recognized as sovereigns in their particular districts. They painted their bodies with woad, which gave them a bluish cast; and they are said to have had figures of animals and of the heavenly bodies on their skins. In their marriages they were not very delicate; for they formed themselves into what we may call matrimonial clubs: 12 or 14 men married as many wives, and each wife was common to them all; but her children belonged to the original husband.

During the long reign of Augustus Cæsar, the Britons lived rather as the allies than the tributaries of the Romans; but the communication between Rome and Britain being then extended, the emperor Claudius, 43 years after the birth of Christ, undertook an expedition into this island. His conquests, however, were imperfect; Boadicea, though a woman, and Caractacus, made noble stands against the Romans. The latter was made prisoner, after a desperate battle, and carried to Rome, where his undaunted behaviour before Claudius gained him the admiration of the victors. Boadicea, being oppressed in a manner that disgraces the Roman name, and defeated, disdained to survive the liberties of her country. Agricola, general to Domitian, after subduing South Britain, carried his arms into Scotland, where his successors had no reason to boast of their progress, every inch of ground being bravely defended. During the residence of the Romans in this island, they erected walls to protect the Britons from the invasions of the Caledonians, or Scots. They introduced into it all the luxuries of Italy; and under them the South Britons were reduced to a state of vassalage, while the genius of liberty retreated to the northward, where the uncultivated natives made a stubborn resistance against these tyrants of the world. Though the southern Britons were unquestionably very brave, when incorporated with the Roman legions abroad, we know of no struggle they made in later times, for their independence at home, notwithstanding the many opportunities that presented themselves. The Roman emperors and generals, while in this island, assisted by the Britons, were frequently employed in repelling the attacks of the Caledonians; but they seem to have had no difficulty in maintaining their authority in the southern provinces. The Britons seem to have thought that submission to a civilized people was better than alliance with a savage race, from whom they had experienced nothing but rapine and murder.

Upon the mighty inundations of those barbarous hordes, which, under the names of Goths and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire with infinite numbers, and with danger to Rome itself, the Roman legions were withdrawn from *Britain, with the flower of the British youth, for the defence of the capital and centre of the*

empire; and, that they might leave the island with a good grace, they assisted the Britons in rebuilding with stone the wall of Severus between Newcastle and Carlisle, which they lined with forts and watch-towers; and, having done this good office, they left Britain about the year 420.

Finding the island finally deserted by the Roman legions, the Picts and Scots now regarded the whole as their prize, and attacked the wall of Severus with redoubled force, ravaging all before them with irresistible fury. The poor Britons, (like a helpless family deprived of its parent and protector,) already subdued by their own fears, repeatedly had recourse to Rome. Craving relief, they sent over a desponding epistle, (still upon record,) which was addressed in these words: "To Aëtius, thrice consul; the groans of the Britons:" in which, after other lamentable complaints, they said, "that the barbarians drove them to the sea, and the sea back to the barbarians; and they had only the hard choice left, of perishing by the sword or by the waves." But, having no hopes given them by the Roman general of any succours from that side, they began to consider what other nation they might call over to their relief. By the advice of Vortigern, the chief prince of South Britain, they engaged two Saxon chiefs, Hengist and Horsa, to protect them from the Scots and Picts. Those adventurers readily accepted the invitations of the Britons, whom they relieved by checking the progress of the enemy. But their own country was so populous and barren, and the fertile lands of Britain were so agreeable and alluring, that they began to meditate a settlement for themselves; and, fresh supplies of their countrymen arriving daily, the Saxons soon became formidable to the Britons, whom, after a violent struggle, they subdued, or drove into Wales. England was divided into seven Saxon kingdoms.

Literature at this time in England was so rude, that we know little of its history. The Saxons were ignorant of letters; and public transactions among the Britons were recorded only by their bards, a species of men whom they held in great veneration.

It does not fall within the design of this work to relate the history of every particular state that formed the heptarchy. It is sufficient to say, that the pope in the time of Augustin supplied England with about 400 monks, and that the popish clergy took care to keep their kings and laity in the most deplorable ignorance. Hence the Anglo-Saxons, during their heptarchy, were, in reality, governed by priests and monks, who persuaded many of their kings either to shut themselves up in cloisters, or to undertake pilgrimages to Rome, where they finished their days. Some brave, wise, and able princes, however, flourished in those times. Ethelbert, king of Kent, and *Ina, the West-Saxon, distinguished themselves as legislators; Edwin and Oswald, the Northumbrian princes, extended the fame of their policy beyond the limits of Britain; and Offa, the Mercian, though his hands were stained with blood, exhibited dignity and elevation of character.*

The heptarchy was in a disordered state, when, in the year 827, the generality of the Anglo-Saxons, weary of the tyranny of their petty kings, called to the throne Egbert, king of Wessex, the eldest remaining branch of the race of Cerdic. On the submission of the Northumbrians, he became king of all England, that is, the land of the Angles. He died in 836, and was succeeded by his son Ethelwolf. By this time England had become a scene of blood and ravages, in consequence of the Danish invasions; and the king, after bravely opposing them, retired in a fit of devotion to Rome. His gifts to the clergy on this occasion were so prodigious, even the tithes of all his dominions, that they show his intellect to have been disturbed by his devotion. He divided his dominions between his sons Ethelbald and Ethelbert. The latter left the kingdom, in 866, to his brother Ethelred, in whose time the Danes became masters of the maritime parts. Ethelred being killed, his brother Alfred mounted the throne in 871. He was one of the greatest princes, both in peace and war, mentioned in history. He fought many battles with the Danes, with various success; and, when defeated, found resources that rendered him as formidable as before. He was, however, at one time reduced to a state of the greatest distress, being forced to live in the disguise of a cow-herd: but still he maintained a secret correspondence with his brave friends, by whose assistance he gave the Danes signal overthrows, till at last he recovered the kingdom, and obliged the enemy, who had settled in it, to swear obedience to his government.

Among the other glories of Alfred's reign, was that of raising a maritime power in England, by which he secured the coasts from future invasions. He rebuilt the city of London, which had been destroyed by the Danes, and is said to have founded the university of Oxford, about the year 895. He divided England into counties, hundreds, and tithings; or rather, he revived those divisions, and the use of juries, which had fallen into disuse through the ravages of the Danes. Having been educated at Rome, he was not only a scholar and a patron of learning, but an author; and some of his works are still extant. He tells us, that, on his accession to the throne, he had scarcely a lay subject who could read English, or an ecclesiastic who understood Latin. He introduced stone and brick building into general use, in palaces as well as churches, though it is certain that the English, for many ages after his death, were content with habitations constructed chiefly of wood. His encouragement of commerce and navigation may seem incredible; but he had merchants who traded in the jewels of India; and William of

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the church of Sherborne in
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unted the throne in 979. Eng-
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ish king Swein, who, in 1013,
nto Normandy. Swein, dying
ceeded by his son Canute the
l, returning to England, forced
o Denmark, whence he invaded
great army, and obliged Ed-
so called from his great bodily
red's son, to divide with him
Edmund being assassinated,
d to the undivided realm. He
having governed with ability
His son, Harold Harefoot,

did nothing memorable; and his successor, Hardicanute, was so degenerate a prince, that the Danish royalty ended with him in England.

The family of Ethelred being now called to the throne, Edward the Confessor mounted it, though Edgar Atheling had the lineal right. On the death of the Confessor, in 1066, Harold, son to Godwin, earl of Kent, had sufficient influence to procure the crown.

William, duke of Normandy, though of illegitimate birth, was then in the uncontested possession of that duchy which had been wrested from the French by his northern ancestors, and he resolved to assert his pretensions to the English crown, which, he said, had been bequeathed to him by Edward. For that purpose he invited the neighbouring princes, as well as his own vassals, to join him, and made liberal promises to his followers, of land and honours in England, to induce them to assist him effectually. By these means he collected about 60,000 men; and, while Harold was embarrassed with an invasion from the Danes, the Normans landed in England without opposition. The king, hastening back from the north, where he had routed his enemies, encountered William near Hastings, and a fierce conflict ensued, in which the English were totally defeated.

We have very particular accounts of the value of provisions and manufactures in those days: a palfrey cost 1*s.*; an acre of land 1*s.*; a hide of land, containing 120 acres, 100*s.*; a sheep was estimated at 1*s.*; an ox was computed at 6*s.*, a cow at 4*s.*, a man at £3; but there is great difficulty in forming the proportion of value which those shillings bore to the present standard of money. Silk and cotton were quite unknown. Linen was not much used. In the Saxon times, land was divided among all the male children of the deceased. Entails were sometimes practised in those times.

With regard to the manners of the Anglo-Saxons, they were in general a rude uncultivated people, yet not wholly ignorant of literature, unskilful in the mechanical arts, and addicted to intemperance, riot, and disorder. But, amidst those defects, public liberty and personal freedom were well understood and guarded by the Saxon institutions; and we owe to them, at this day, the most valuable privileges of the English subject.

The loss which both sides suffered at the battle of Hastings is uncertain, but was enormous. Anglo-Saxon authors say that Harold was so impatient to fight, that he attacked William with half of his army, so that the advantage of number was on the side of the Norman; and, indeed, the death of Harold seems to have decided the day. William then took possession of the throne, and made a considerable alteration in the constitution of England, by converting lands into knights'-fees, which are said to have amounted to 62,000, and were holden of the Norman and other great persons, who *had assisted him* in his conquest, and who were *bound to attend* him with their knights and

followers in his wars. He gave, for instance, to one of his barons the whole county of Chester, which he erected into a palatinate, and rendered by his grant almost independent of the crown; and here, according to some historians, we have the rise of the feudal law in England. He found it no easy matter to keep possession of his crown. Edgar Atheling and his sister were kindly received in Scotland; and many of the Saxon lords took arms, and formed conspiracies in England. It was a considerable time before the north and a part of the centre of England was reduced under his yoke. The king, however, at length surmounted all difficulties, but not without exercising unjustifiable cruelties upon the Anglo-Saxons. He introduced the Norman laws and language. He built the stone square tower at London, commonly called the White Tower; bridled the country with forts, and disarmed the old inhabitants: in short, he attempted everything possible to obliterate every trace of the Anglo-Saxon constitution, though, at his coronation, he took the same oath that was taken by the Saxon kings. He caused a general survey of all the lands in England to be made, or rather to be completed, (for it was begun in Edward the Confessor's time,) and an account to be taken of the villains or servile tenants, slaves, and live-stock, upon each estate; all which were recorded in a book called Domesday-book, still extant. The repose of this prince was disturbed in his old age by the rebellion of his eldest son, Robert, who had been appointed governor of Normandy, but began to act as an independent ruler of that province, with the aid of the king of France. William, who was also stung by a coarse jest made upon him by the French monarch, seeing a war inevitable, entered upon it with his usual vigour; and, with incredible celerity, transporting a brave English army into France, was everywhere victorious, but died before he had finished the war, in the year 1087, the 65th of his age.

The succession to the crown was disputed between the Conqueror's sons, Robert and William (commonly called Rufus, from his red hair,) and was carried in favour of the latter. He was a brave prince, but was stained by cruelty and many other vices, and was undoubtedly a usurper. He was likewise hated by the Normans, who loved his elder brother; and, consequently, he was engaged in perpetual wars with his brothers and his reluctant subjects. About this time the crusades to the Holy Land began; and Robert, who was among the first to engage, accommodated his dispute with William, for a sum of money, which he levied from the clergy. Rufus was accidentally killed, as he was hunting in the New Forest, in Hampshire, in the year 1100, the 43rd of his age.

He was succeeded by his younger brother, Henry I. (surnamed Beauclerc, on account of his learning,) though Robert was then returning *from the Holy Land.* Henry may be said *to have purchased the* throne; first, by the royal treasure, which he seized at Winchester; secondly, by a charter, in which he restored his subjects to the rights and privileges they had enjoyed under the Anglo-Saxon kings; and, thirdly, by his marriage with Matilda, niece to Edgar Atheling. His reign in a great measure restored the clergy to their influence in the state; and they formed, as it were, a separate body, dependant upon the pope; which afterwards caused great convulsions in England. Henry, partly by force and partly by fraud, made himself master of Robert's person and his duchy, and detained him a prisoner above 27 years, until his death. He was afterward engaged in a bloody, but successful war with France; and, before his death, he settled the succession upon his daughter Matilda, (widow to Henry V. emperor of Germany,) and Henry, her son by Geoffrey Plantagenet, earl of Anjou. Henry died of a surfeit, in the 68th year of his age, in 1135. He was able and politic, rather than humane or benevolent.

Notwithstanding the late settlement of the succession, the crown was claimed and seized by Stephen, earl of Blois, grandson of William the Conqueror. Matilda and her son were then abroad; and Stephen was assisted in his usurpation by his brother the bishop of Winchester, and other prelates. Matilda, however, found a generous protector in her uncle David, king of Scotland, and a brave and faithful friend in her natural brother Robert, earl of Gloucester, who headed her party. A long war ensued; and Stephen was defeated and made prisoner in 1141. Matilda was proud and weak: the clergy were bold and ambitious, and, when joined with the nobility, who were factious and turbulent, were an over-match for the crown. They demanded to be governed by the Saxon laws; and, finding Matilda refractory, they drove her out of England. Stephen, when he was exchanged for the earl of Gloucester, who was also a prisoner, found that his clergy and nobility had in a great measure excluded him from the government, by building 1100 castles, where each owner lived as an independent prince, and exercised the most tyrannical sway over the people. He attempted to force them to declare his son Eustace heir-apparent to the kingdom; and this exasperated the clergy so much, that they invited over young Henry of Anjou, who accordingly landed in England with an army of foreigners. This measure divided the clergy from the barons, who were apprehensive of a second conquest; and the earl of Arundel, with the heads of the lay aristocracy, proposed an accommodation, to which both parties agreed. Stephen, who about that time lost his son Eustace, was to retain the name and office of king; but Henry, who was in fact invested with the chief executive power, was acknowledged his successor. Though this accommodation was only precarious and imperfect, it was received by the English with great joy; and, Stephen dying very opportunely, in 1154, Henry mounted the throne.

y II., who was the greatest prince of
e, soon manifested extraordinary abili-
government; and had performed, in the
ar of his age, actions that would have
d the most experienced warriors. At
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of the English boroughs greatly im-
by the privileges granted to them in the
s between their late kings and the
. Henry perceived the good policy of
i still further extended the franchises
roughs, so that, if a bondman or ser-
ained in a borough a year and a day,
by such residence made free. This
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the king alone could support the
against their feudal tyrants; and it
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This man was violent, intrepid, and
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having been accused of robbing the
hile he was chancellor, fled to France,
e pope and the French king espoused
el. The effect was, that all the Eng-
rgy who were on the king's side were
unicated, and the laity absolved from
giance. This disconcerted Henry so
at he submitted to a compromise with
prelate, who returned in triumph to
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His return swelled his pride, and
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These words reached the ears of four
who, without apprising Henry of their
e, went over to England, where they
the brains of the unfortunate prelate
e altar of his own church. The king
o condition to support the act of his
and the public resentment rose so
the supposition that he was privy to
er, that he *submitted to be scourged
at the tomb of the pretended martyr.*

Henry distinguished his reign by the reduction of Scotland to a state of vassalage; also by the invasion of Ireland; and by marrying Eleanor, the divorced queen of France, but the heiress of Guienne and Poictou, by which union he became almost as powerful in France as the French king himself, and the greatest prince in Christendom. In his last years he was unhappy, having embarrassed himself by intrigues with women. His infidelity was resented by his queen Eleanor, who even engaged her sons, Henry, Richard, and John, in repeated rebellions, which affected their father so much as to throw him into a fever; and he died at Chinon, in France, in 1189, at the age of 56 years. The sum he left in ready money at his death has perhaps been exaggerated; but the most moderate accounts make it amount to £200,000 of our money.

Richard I., surnamed Cœur-de-Lion, from his great courage, was the third but eldest surviving son of Henry II. He engaged in a most magnificent but ruinous crusade to the Holy Land, where he took Ascalon, and displayed his valour by many heroic acts. After several glorious but fruitless campaigns, he concluded a truce of three years with the sultan Saladin; and, as he was returning to England, was treacherously surprised by the duke of Austria, who, in 1193, sent him a prisoner to the emperor Henry VI. His ransom was fixed by the sordid potentate at 150,000 marks, about £300,000 of our money. On his return, he found his dominions in great disorder, through the practices of his brother John, whom, however, he pardoned; and by the invasions of the French, whom he repelled; but he was slain while besieging the castle of Chalus, in the year 1199, the 42nd of his age.

The reign of his brother John, who succeeded him, is infamous in the English history. He put to death Arthur, the eldest son of his brother Geoffrey, who had the hereditary right to the crown. The young prince's mother, Constance, complained to Philip, king of France, who soon after deprived John of the duchy of Normandy. This monarch became at last so apprehensive of a French invasion, that he rendered himself a tributary to the pope, and laid his crown and regalia at the foot of the legate Pandulph, who kept them for five days. The great barons resented his meanness, by taking arms; but he repeated his shameful submissions to the pope; and, after experiencing various fortunes of war, he was at last brought so low, that the barons obliged him, in 1215, to sign the great deed so well known by the name of *Magna Charta*. Though this charter is deemed the foundation of English liberty, yet it is in fact no other than a renewal of those immunities which the barons and their followers had possessed under the Saxon princes, and which they claimed by the charters of Henry I. and his grandson. As the principles of liberty, however, came to be more enlarged, and property *to be better* secured, this charter, by various *subsequent acts* and explanations, became ap-

plicable to every English subject, as well as to the barons, knights, and burgesses. John had scarcely signed it, when he retracted, and called upon the pope for protection; on which the barons withdrew their allegiance from him, and transferred it to Louis, the eldest son of Philip Augustus. This gave offence to the pope; and the barons, being apprehensive of the subjection of their country to France, returned to their allegiance. John died in 1216, in the 51st year of his age.

The city of London owes some of her privileges to him. The office of mayor, before his reign, was for life; but he empowered the citizens to choose a mayor out of their own body annually, and to elect their sheriffs and common-council, as at present.

England was in a deplorable state when the crown devolved upon Henry III., the late king's son, who was only nine years of age. The earl of Pembroke was chosen his guardian; and, the pope taking part with the young prince, the French were defeated and driven out of the kingdom, and their king was obliged to renounce all claims upon the crown of England. The regent, who had thus retrieved the independence of his country, died in 1219; and the regency devolved upon the bishop of Winchester. The king was of a feeble disposition, and had been persuaded to violate the Great Charter. Indeed, he seemed always endeavouring to evade the privileges which he had been compelled to grant and confirm. A baronial association was formed against him and his government; and, a civil war commencing, Henry seemed to be abandoned by all but his Gascons and foreign mercenaries. His profusion brought him into great difficulties; and the famous Simon de Montfort (who had married his sister, and was made earl of Leicester) being chosen general of the association, the king and his two sons were defeated, and made prisoners, at the battle of Lewes. A difference happening between Montfort and the earl of Gloucester, a nobleman of great authority, Prince Edward, Henry's eldest son, obtained his liberty; and, assembling as many as he could of his father's subjects, he gave battle to the rebels, whom he defeated at Evesham in 1265, their leader falling in the field. Prince Edward being afterwards engaged in a crusade, Henry, during his absence, died in 1272, the 66th year of his age and 57th of his reign.

For the parliamentary arrangements which gave lustre to a reign otherwise inglorious, we refer the reader to our sketch of the constitution. To the interested policy of Simon de Montfort, some attribute the rise of the House of Commons.

Edward I. was a wise and able prince; and his regulations, and reformation of the laws, have justly given him the title of the English Justinian. He purified the judicial courts, and corrected gross abuses in the practice of the law. He passed the mortmain act, by which all persons "were restrained from giving, by will or otherwise, their estates to (those so called) religious purposes, and to the societies that never die, without a licence from the crown." He gave greater freedom and dignity to the popular branch of the constitution, and improved, in various respects, the general state of the nation.

This prince was involved, by the ambition of Philip the Fair, in a war with France, and was deprived of the duchy of Guienne: but this loss was compensated by the subjugation of the whole principality of Wales. He also conquered Scotland, after having bestowed the disputed crown by arbitration upon John de Balliol: but the tyranny of his officers exasperated the people into a revolt, and Robert de Brus was proclaimed king. Edward resolved to chastise that prince; but death, in July 1307, put an end to all his schemes and enterprises.

His son and successor, Edward II., showed an early propensity to the encouragement of favourites. A Gascon, named Gaveston, who had been banished by the late king, was recalled by the new monarch, and loaded with honours: the barons insisted upon the re-expulsion of the arrogant and odious favourite; but, when the king had confirmed Magna Charta, he procured the consent of his nobles to the unmolested residence of his friend in England. The king's renewed misconduct produced a confederacy against him; he was obliged to resign his power to a baronial committee, and his favourite was put to death.

The progress of Robert de Brus, in Scotland, roused Edward from his indolence; and he marched with a great army into Scotland; but, as he was unable to direct the operations of the troops, the enemy disgraced him by a signal defeat, at Bannockburn. He was now ruled by another favourite, Hugh le Despenser, against whom the earl of Lancaster and other noblemen rose in arms; but the insurgents were defeated, and their powerful and popular leader was capitally punished. As the king did not exercise his triumph with moderation, he forfeited the public favour, and, in 1327, fell a victim to the arts of an adulterous wife, and the revengeful spirit of an incensed party. Being unsupported by the nation against the leaders of a new rebellion, he was taken while he was endeavouring to escape, and constrained to resign the crown, which was transferred to his son Edward, who was only in the 15th year of his age. His death soon followed: Queen Isabella and her paramour, Roger de Mortimer, employed two ruffians to murder him in Berkeley Castle. He was a weak prince, and his government was capricious and arbitrary: but his intentions are allowed to have been good, and his memory is entitled to respect for his zeal in the encouragement of agriculture and commerce.

Edward III., during his minority, acquiesced in the sway of the queen-dowager, (Isabella of France,) and Mortimer; but, when he had nearly completed his 18th year, he assumed

onal administration, confining his and putting her paramour to death. erning for many years with ability, d into a war with France, on pretence nd a right to the crown of that king- the nephew of the three last kings. already distinguished himself by his pirit in a brilliant campaign against ; and he hoped to be equally fortu- ate the French. In this contest, the between the feudal constitution of which then subsisted in full force,) overnment of England, which was unable to public liberty, was made apparent. The French officers knew inaction. They and their men were disciplined and disobedient, though numerous than their enemies in the English freemen, on the other hand, nsiderable property to fight for, knew and had learned to defend it by pro- nselves with armour, and submitting exercises and proper subordination L. The war, on the part of Edward, fore a continued scene of success y. At Crecy, in August, 1346, above ench were defeated, chiefly by the the prince of Wales, called, from his ne Black Prince, who was only in his

The loss of the French nearly the amount of the English army, conquerors, who were about 32,000 in ast not a thirtieth part of their force. e of Poictiers was fought in 1356, he prince of Wales and the French , but with very superior advantage r on the part of the French, who ly defeated, and whose sovereign and ite son Philip were made prisoners. 's glories were not confined to France. Philippa, (daughter of the earl of) had the good fortune to capture the cotland, who had ventured to invade

Thus Edward had the glory to see ned heads his captives at London. treaty of Bretigni, into which he is re been terrified by a dreadful storm, ies declined. He had resigned his ominions entirely to the prince of id he lost his popularity at home by ment to his mistress, Alice Perrers. the immature death of his illustrious ing died, dispirited and neglected, on June, 1377, at the age of 64 years.

was so attentive to the interest of , as to invite fullers, dyers, weavers, artificers, from Flanders; and he d the woollen manufacture among ch, who, before his time, generally the unwrought commodity. In his of the English ships, even of war, 80 or 50 tons. Historians are not ether he made use of artillery in his ion of France; but it certainly was n before his death. *The magnificent Windsor was built by him; and it is* remarkable, that he assessed almost every county in England to send him a certain number of men for that great work.

Richard II., son of the Black Prince, was not 11 years of age when he mounted the throne. During his minority, the doctrines of Wickliffe, who opposed the errors of popery, took root under the influence of the duke of Lancaster, the king's uncle, and gave enlarged notions of liberty to the lower ranks of the people. The duke's connexions with the crowns of Portugal and Spain were of prejudice to England; and so many men were employed in unsuccessful wars, and so severe were the consequent exactions, that the commons of England, like powder receiving a spark of fire, flamed out into rebellion, under the conduct of Ball, a priest, Wat Tyler, Jack Straw, and others, the lowest of the people. The conduct of these insurgents was very violent; but it cannot be denied that the common people of England then laboured under many oppressions.

Richard was not then 15; but he acted with great spirit and wisdom. He faced the storm at the head of the Londoners, while Walworth, the mayor, and Philpot, an alderman, had the courage to put Tyler to death, in the midst of his adherents. Richard then resigned himself to the sway of favourites. The discontented barons took arms, and forced him into terms; but, being insincere in all his compliances, he was on the point of becoming more despotic than any king of England ever had been, when he lost his crown and life by a sudden catastrophe.

A quarrel having occurred between the dukes of Hereford and Norfolk, the king banished both peers, with particular acts of injustice to the former, who now became duke of Lancaster by his father's death. While Richard was absent with a great army, to reduce Ireland to obedience, a strong party formed itself in England, and offered the crown to the duke, who, having landed from France at Ravenspur, was soon at the head of 60,000 men. Richard hurried back to England, where, his troops refusing to fight, and his subjects generally deserting him, he was made prisoner with no more than 20 attendants; and, being carried to London, was deposed in full parliament, in 1399, upon a formal charge of tyranny and misconduct. He is supposed to have been, soon after, starved to death in prison, in the 34th year of his age; but some accounts assert that he escaped to Scotland, and died there.

Though the nobility of England possessed great power at the time of this revolution, we do not find that it abated the influence of the commons. They had the courage to remonstrate boldly in parliament against various oppressions and grievances; and, if they did not meet with the desired success, they at least made some advances in dignity and consequence.

Henry IV. (son of John of Ghent, duke of *Lancaster, fourth* son of Edward III.,) being

settled on the throne of England, in prejudice to the elder branches of Edward's family, the great nobility were in hopes that this glaring defect in his title would render him dependant upon them. At first some conspiracies were formed against him by the dukes of Surrey and Exeter, the earls of Gloucester and Salisbury, and the archbishop of York; but he crushed them by his activity and steadiness, and formed a plan for the humiliation of the aristocracy. This was understood by the Percy family, the greatest in the north of England, who complained that Henry had deprived them of some Scottish prisoners, whom they had taken in battle; and a dangerous rebellion broke out under the old earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry, surnamed Hotspur; but it ended in the defeat of the rebels, chiefly by the valour of the prince of Wales. With equal good fortune, Henry suppressed the insurrection of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower, or Glyndourdwy, and, by his prudent concessions to his parliament, he at last overcame all opposition. He died in 1413, in the 47th year of his age.

The marine was now so greatly increased, that we find an English vessel of 200 tons in the Baltic, and many other ships of equal burden, carrying on a great trade all over Europe, and with the Hanse towns in particular. With regard to public liberty, Henry was the first prince who gave to the commons their due weight in parliament. It is, however, surprising, that learning was at this time in a much lower state in England, and all over Europe, than it had been 200 years before. Bishops, when testifying synodal acts, were often forced to do it by proxy, in the following terms, viz., "As I cannot read myself, N. N. hath subscribed for me;" or, "As my lord bishop cannot write himself, at his request I have subscribed." By the influence of the court, and the intrigues of the clergy, an act was obtained in 1401, for the burning of heretics, in consequence of the great increase of the Wickliffites or Lollards; and, immediately after, Sautre, a pious divine, was burned alive.

At the accession of Henry V., the Lollards were excessively numerous; and, Lord Cobham having joined them, it was said that he had agreed to put himself at their head, with a view of overturning the government. There seems, indeed, to be some reason for believing that he meditated enterprises of a dangerous nature. He escaped, and was not taken for several years, but at length fell into the hands of his enemies, and was put to death.

The ambition of Henry engaged him in a contest with France. He demanded a restitution of Normandy, and other provinces that had been taken from the English in the preceding reigns; and, availing himself of the dissensions between the Orleans and Burgundy factions, he first took Harfleur, and then de*feated the French in the battle* of Agincourt, *which equalled those of Crecy* and Poictiers in glory to the English. Being as g tician as a warrior, he made suc and divided the French among th effectually, that he forced the quee whose husband Charles VI. was a agree to his marrying her daughte to disinherit the dauphin, and to de regent of France during her husban him and his issue successors to monarchy. Henry made a triun into Paris; and, after receiving t the French nobility, he returned to levy a force that might crush the d probably would have been succes not died of a pleuritic disorder, in 35th year of his age.

Henry's success in France revive of England, and, at the same tim and established the privileges and the English commonalty. By an au exact account of the ordinary rev crown during this reign, it appea amounted only to £55,714 a yea nearly the same with that of Henr ordinary expenses of the governmen to £52,507; so that the king had onl what is now termed the civil list. must, however, take into account th in value at that period and at pre sum was far from being sufficient e of peace; and, to carry on his war conqueror was reduced to the gr culties; he contracted many debts, his jewels, and sometimes the crow

Henry VI. was not nine months was proclaimed king of France as w land. He was under the tuition uncles, the dukes of Bedford and who were princes of great accom but were unable to preserve their br quests. On the death of Charles V tions of the French revived in the p son and successor. The duke of B was regent of France, performed ma actions, and at last laid siege to O the siege was raised by the courag conduct of Joan of Arc. This ex woman was a mere servant at an conceiving herself to have been b rescue of the endangered monarchy, took arms, and led her countryn peated victories. Being at length t English, she was cruelly commit flames as a witch.

The death of the duke of Bedfo agreement of the duke of Burgundy ally of the English, with Charles V buted to the entire ruin of Henry's France, and the loss of all his provi kingdom. The principal misfortu land, at this time, was, however, its home. The duke of Gloucester lost rity in the government; and the ki Margaret of Anjou, daughter to th king of Sicily, a woman of a high sp implacable disposition; while the

s the richest subject in
d over the treasury, and
. the interest of England,
road. Next to the cardi-
, who was lord-lieutenant
nost powerful subject in
ided by the mother's side
ond son of Edward III.,
'a claim preferable to that
o opportunity of forming
right, but acted at first
mulation. The duke of
te of the queen, who was
the duke of York; but, be-
liament, he was banished
ecapitated on ship-board
This was followed by an
) Kentish men, headed by
t to the court a list of
was defeated by the cou-
of London, and the queen
ly secure against the duke

h power and reputation in
e duke of York, were the
i his son the earl of War-
ad more extensive landed
her subject; and his great
ome virtues, rendered him
oth were partisans of the
ie king's temporary indis-
protector of the realm.
id again brought forward
duke, perceiving that she
ok up arms. The royalists
Albans; and the king be-
The duke was once more
but it was not long before
all her influence in the

igth openly claimed the
en was again defeated by
k. A parliament being
nacted that Henry should
for life, but that the duke
, to the exclusion of all
queen refused to agree to
and, assembling a fresh
to Wakefield, where the
feated and slain, in 1460.
prepared to revenge his
several victories over the
n, however, proceeded to-
lefeating the earl of War-
battle of St. Albans, she
d; but the disorders com-
iers troops disgusted the
, that she durst not enter
e young duke was favour-
proclaimed king, in 1461.
ed another army, and a
rwton. After prodigies of
formed on both sides, the
ith young Edward, and
on the field *of battle.*

cessation of some years from the horrors of civil war. At length Margaret and her husband, who had received protection in Scotland, returned with an army into England; but she was still unfortunate in her martial enterprises. The Lancastrians were routed at Hexham; the queen passed over to the continent; and Henry was sent to the Tower. Jealous of the overgrown power of the Warwick family, the new king resolved to take every opportunity of humbling the earl's pride and presumption; and he was encouraged in that resolution, if not originally instigated to such measures, by the suggestions of Lady Grey of Groby, whom he had lately married, and to whose father and brothers he gave his full confidence. He first attacked the earl in the person of his brother, the archbishop of York, whom he abruptly deprived of the chancellorship. Warwick was then accused of a treasonable correspondence with Margaret; but the charge was quickly abandoned. His partisans excited an insurrection, in which the father of the new queen was put to death by the revolters. Another rebellion soon followed, which was still more evidently produced by the earl's instigation, after one of his brothers had been compelled to relinquish the earldom of Northumberland. Warwick at length openly revolted; and his great military preparations so alarmed the king, that he fled with a small retinue to the continent. The earl now replaced Henry on the throne, in 1470; but Edward, being invited to return by his brother the duke of Clarence, who promised to desert the potent king-maker, he re-appeared in England, and defeated and slew his great opponent in the battle of Barnet. He also triumphed at Tewkesbury, over Margaret, whose captive son, Edward, was murdered in cold blood by some of the courtiers. There is reason to believe that he gave orders for the death of Henry; and, even amidst the tranquillity of his subsequent sway, affecting to dread the machinations of the duke of Clarence, he commanded him to be privately put to death. This monarch, partly to delude the public, and partly to supply the expenses of his court, pretended sometimes to quarrel and sometimes to treat with the French king, who even allowed him a pension; but his irregularities brought him to his death, in the year 1483, the 41st of his age.

Notwithstanding the turbulence of the times, the trade and manufactures of England, particularly the woollen, increased during the reigns of Henry VI. and Edward IV. So early as 1440, a navigation act was proposed, as the only means of preserving to the English the benefit of being the sole carriers of their own merchandise; but foreign influence prevented Henry from passing a bill to that purport. The invention of printing, which was imported into England by William Caxton, and which received some countenance from Edward, is the *chief glory of his reign*; but learning in general *was then* at a low ebb in England. The lord

Tiptoft was its great patron, and seems to have been the first English nobleman who cultivated the *belles-lettres*. The books printed by Caxton are mostly re-translations, or compilations from the French or monkish Latin; but it must be acknowledged, at the same time, that literature, after this period, made a more rapid and general progress among the English than it did in any other European nation. The famous Littleton, judge of the Common Pleas, and Fortescue, chancellor of England, flourished at this period.

Edward IV. left two sons by his queen, who had rendered herself unpopular with the nobles, by her partiality to her obscure relatives. Edward V. was about 13; and his uncle, the duke of Gloucester, taking advantage of the queen's want of favour among the nobility, found means to bastardize her issue, by act of parliament, under the pretence of pre-contract between their father and another lady. The duke, at the same time, was declared guardian of the kingdom, and at last accepted the crown, having first put to death the men of rank whom he thought to be well affected to the late king's family. Whether the young king and his brother were murdered in the Tower, by his direction, is doubtful. Some have supposed that they were clandestinely sent abroad by his orders, and that the elder died, but that the younger survived, and was the same who was well known by the name of Perkin Warbeck. Be this as it may, the English were so strongly prepossessed against Richard, as being the murderer of his nephews, that Henry, earl of Richmond, a descendant of the house of Lancaster, was encouraged to invade England at the head of about 2000 foreigners, who were soon joined by 7000 English and Welsh. In the year 1485, a battle between him and Richard, who was at the head of 15,000 men, ensued at Bosworth Field, in which the king, after displaying astonishing acts of personal valour, lost his life, having been first abandoned by a main division of his army, under Lord Stanley and his brother.

Though the same act of bastardy affected the daughters as well as the sons of Edward IV., no disputes were raised upon the legitimacy of Elizabeth, his eldest daughter, who was now married to the earl of Richmond, Henry VII.—an auspicious union, which happily put an end to the war between the families of York and Lancaster. Henry, however, rested his right upon conquest, and seemed to pay little regard to the advantages of his marriage. He was the first who instituted the guard called Yeomen; and, while he thus secured himself, he curbed the power of the barons by limiting the number of their dependents, and abolishing that practice by which every malefactor could shelter himself from the law, on assuming a nobleman's livery, and attending his person. The despotic court of Star Chamber owed its origin *to Henry; but at the same* time it must be *acknowledged, that he passed* many acts, especially for trade and navigation, tha for the benefit of his subjects; and ing stroke to the feudal tenures, to the overweening power of the n passed, by which the barons and the landed interest were at libert mortgage their lands, without fine for the alienation.

After the suppression of insu England and Ireland, Henry inte politics of the continent. When h suffered Charles VIII. of France session of Bretagne, he undertoo tion against that monarch, but w fied by a bribe. He was now att possession of his throne by Perk who pretended to be the duke of son of Edward IV., and was ackn such by the duchess of Burgund sister. We shall not follow the this young man, which were vari common; but it appears that English, and also the courts of Scotland, believed him to be what Henry endeavoured to prove the de Edward and his brother, but nev the public satisfaction. Perkin, adventures, fell into the king's ha sent to the Tower, whence he enc escape with the innocent earl of W which both were put to death.

In 1499, Henry's eldest son, Arth ried to Catharine of Arragon. On that prince, such was the king's u to refund her great dowry, (200,0 gold,) that he consented to her b to his second son, on pretence t match had not been consummated. his daughter Margaret was sent where she was married to James I

At the time of his death, which 1509, the 53rd year of his age, Hen have possessed £1,800,000 sterling to £9,000,000 at present; so that he posed to have been master of more than all the kings in Europe besid He was immoderately fond of repl coffers, and often prevailed on his to grant him subsidies for forei which he never intended to form. mony would not suffer him to acc of Columbus; but he made some c to his subjects, for this instance of by encouraging Cabot, a Venetia covered the continent of North A we may observe, to the praise of t that sometimes, in order to promot he lent to merchants sums of mo interest.

Perhaps no prince ever entered advantages on the exercise of r Henry VIII. Young, vigorous, an out any rival, he held the balance Europe; but it is certain that h those advantages in commerce wit father became too late acquainted.

never stand in need of a supply, prove Cabot's discoveries; and he East and West Indies to be en- tugal and Spain. His vanity so much in the affairs of the con- is flatterers encouraged him to dom for the conquest of France. led him into incredible expenses. candidate for the German empire, ney; but soon resigned his pre- e hostilities which arose between France and the emperor Charles t was directed by the views of ey upon the popedom, which the sister hoped to gain by the in- ties; but, finding himself twice persuaded his master to declare

at first the great enemy of the and the champion of the Romish wrote a book against Luther, for e gave him the title of "Defender " But, about the year 1527, he , or affected, some scruples with validity of his marriage with his ow. It may be difficult to say at far he might be influenced by nscience, or aversion to the queen, n of the famous Anne Boleyn, rried before he could obtain from per bulls of divorce from the pope. s which occurred in this process y, who died heart-broken, after i of his immense power and pos-

esentment, rather than judgment , prompted Henry at last to throw on to, or dependance upon, the me, and to cause a reformation; wever, many of the Romish errors ions were retained. He could not this important change, if he had olence of his disposition, and by tage of religious dissension, over- liaments into servility. Upon a ion of his queen's infidelity, and trial, he sacrificed her to his brutal put to death some of her nearest i in many respects he acted in the y and cruel manner. The disso- religious houses, and the great he acquired by seizing ecclesias- y, enabled him to give full scope nary disposition; so that the best nocent blood of England was shed and seldom any long time passed g marked with the fall of some ctim of his tyranny.

rife was Jane Seymour, who died Edward VI. into the world. His was Anne, sister to the duke of disliked her so much, that he soon vorce. His fifth queen was Catha- , niece to the duke of Norfolk, ed to be beheaded for ante-nuptial . *His last wife was Catharine Parr,* in whose possession he died, after she had narrowly escaped being brought to the stake for her religious opinions, which favoured the Reformation. Henry's cruelty increased with his years, and was now exercised promiscuously on Protestants and Catholics. He put the brave earl of Surrey to death, without a crime being proved against him; and his father, the duke of Norfolk, must have suffered the next day, had he not been saved by the death of Henry himself, in 1547, in the 56th year of his age. England was also thus delivered from the sway of a base and bloody tyrant.

The state of England, during Henry's reign, is, by the means of printing, better known than that of his predecessors. His attention to the naval security of England was highly commendable. Without inquiring into his religious motives, it must be candidly confessed, that, had the Reformation gone through all the forms prescribed by the laws and the courts of justice, it probably never could have taken place, or at least not for many years. Of learning and the arts Henry was a liberal patron. He gave a pension to Erasmus, the most learned man of his age. He invited to England, encouraged, and protected, Hans Holbein, that excellent painter and architect; and in his reign noblemen's houses began to have the air of Italian magnificence and regularity. He was a constant and generous friend to Cranmer; and though he was, upon the whole, rather whimsical than settled in his own principles of religion, he advanced many who became afterward the instruments of a more pure reformation. No considerations, however, can excuse the atrocious and multiplied cruelties which he committed, under the forms of perverted law.

In this reign the Bible was ordered to be printed in English; Wales was incorporated with England, and Ireland was erected into a kingdom.

Edward VI. was only 9 years of age at the time of his father's decease. After some disputes, the regency was settled in the person of his uncle, the earl of Hertford, afterward duke of Somerset, a declared friend and patron of the reformed faith. The Reformation was not effected without many public disturbances. The common people, during the reigns of Henry and Edward, being deprived of the liberal relief they had had from the monasteries, and ejected from their small corn-growing farms, had often taken arms, but had been as often put down by the government; and several of these insurrections were crushed in this reign. The new system, however, proceeded rapidly, through the zeal of Cranmer and others. In some cases, they entirely lost sight of that moderation which the reformers had so strongly recommended when they were in a minority; and some cruel executions, on account of religion, took place. Edward's youth excuses him from blame; and his charitable endowments, as Bridewell and *St. Thomas'* Hospitals, and also several schools which still exist and flourish, show the good-

ness of his heart. He died of consumption in 1553, in the 16th year of his age.

Edward, on his death-bed, misled by his zeal for religion, had made a very unconstitutional will; for he set aside Mary, Henry's daughter by Catharine of Arragon, from the succession, which, at the instigation of the ambitious duke of Northumberland, who had brought the protector Somerset to the block, was claimed by Lady Jane Grey, daughter to a niece of Henry VIII. This lady, though she had scarcely reached her 17th year, was a prodigy of learning and virtue; but the bulk of the nation recognized the claim of Mary, and Jane was beheaded. Her husband, Lord Guildford Dudley, also suffered death.

Mary, being thus seated on the throne, suppressed an insurrection under Wyat, and proceeded to re-establish popery. She recalled Cardinal Pole from banishment, and lighted up the flames of persecution, in which Archbishop Cranmer, the bishops Ridley, Hooper, and Latimer, and many other illustrious confessors of the English reformed church, were consumed, beside a great number of other individuals of both sexes and all ranks. The bishops Bonner and Gardiner were the chief executioners of her bloody mandates; and, had she lived, she would probably have endeavoured to exterminate all her Protestant subjects.

Mary now married Philip II. of Spain, who, like herself, was an unfeeling bigot to Popery; and the chief praise of her reign is, that, by the marriage articles, provision was made for the independence of the English crown. By the assistance of troops which she furnished to her husband, he gained the important battle of St. Quintin; but that victory was so ill improved, that the French, under the duke of Guise, soon after took Calais, the only place then remaining to the English in France. This loss is said to have broken the heart of Mary, who died in 1558, in her 43rd year. Nearly 300 victims are said to have been consigned to the flames by her persecuting zeal; several also died in prison, and many were otherwise cruelly treated.

Elizabeth, daughter to Henry VIII. by Anne Boleyn, mounted the throne under the most discouraging circumstances both at home and abroad. Popery was the established religion of England; her title to the crown, on account of the circumstances attending her mother's marriage and death, was disputed by Mary queen of Scotland, grandchild to Henry VII.'s eldest daughter, and wife to the dauphin of France; and the only ally she had on the continent was Philip, who was the main support of the popish cause, both abroad and in England. She was no more than 25 years of age at the time of her inauguration; but her sufferings under her bigoted sister, joined to the superiority of her genius, had taught her caution and policy; and she soon surmounted *all difficulties.*

In matters of religion she succeeded with surprising facility; for, in her first parliament in 1559, the laws establishing Popery were repealed, the royal supremacy was restored, and an act of uniformity passed; and it is observed, that, of 9400 beneficed clergymen in England, only 150 refused to comply with the Reformation. With regard to her title, she took advantage of the divided state of Scotland, fomented faction in that country, and formed a party, by which Mary was obliged to renounce, or rather to suspend, her claim. Not content with this, she sent troops and money, which supported the Scottish malcontents, till Mary's unhappy marriage with Lord Darnley, and then with Bothwell, the supposed murderer of the former, and her other misconduct and misfortunes, drove her to take refuge in Elizabeth's dominions, where an honourable asylum had often been promised to her. It is well known how unfaithful the queen was to this profession of friendship, and that she detained the unhappy prisoner 18 years in England, then brought her to a mock trial, pretending that Mary aimed at the crown, and, without sufficient proof of her guilt, put her to death—an action which tarnished the glories of her reign.

Philip had offered to marry the queen; but she dexterously avoided his addresses; and, by a train of skilful negotiations between her court and that of France, kept the balance of Europe so undetermined, that she had leisure to unite her people at home, and to establish a regular government in her dominions. She supported the Protestants of France against their persecuting princes and the Papists, and gave the dukes of Anjou and Alençon, brothers of the French king, the strongest assurances that one or the other of them should be her husband; by which she kept that court, which dreaded Spain, at the same time in so good humour with her government, that it showed no resentment when she beheaded Queen Mary.

When Philip was no longer to be imposed upon by the arts of Elizabeth, which had amused and baffled him in every quarter, he employed the immense sums he drew from Peru and Mexico in equipping the most formidable fleet that perhaps ever had been put to sea, and a numerous army of veterans, under the prince of Parma, the best general of that age, and procured a papal bull for absolving Elizabeth's subjects from their allegiance. The great size of the Spanish ships proved disadvantageous to them on the seas where they fought. The lord admiral Howard, and the brave sea-officers under him, engaged, beat, and chased the Spanish fleet for several days; and the waves and tempests finished the destruction which the English arms had begun, so that only 53, out of 130 ships, recovered their ports. Next to the admiral, Sir Francis Drake, and the captains Hawkins and Frobisher, distinguished themselves against this formidable invasion, in which the Spaniards are said to have lost 13,500 men.

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ttempt of great consequence was to effect a union between England and Scotland; but, though he failed in this, through the prejudices of the English against the Scots, he showed no violent resentment at the disappointment. It was an advantage to him at the beginning of his reign, that the courts of Rome and Spain were thought to be his enemies; and this opinion was increased by the discovery and defeat of the gunpowder treason, a plot of the Romanists for the sudden destruction of the king and the assembled lords and commons. His pacific reign was a series of contrivances to raise money (by monopolies and other means,) and also of contests with casuists, in which he proved himself more a theologian than a prince. In 1617 he attempted to establish episcopacy in Scotland; but the zeal of the people baffled his design.

He gave his daughter, the princess Elizabeth, in marriage to the elector Palatine, the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, who soon after assumed the crown of Bohemia. The memory of James has been much abused for his tame behaviour, after that prince had lost his kingdom and electorate by the imperial arms; but it is to be observed, that he always opposed his son-in-law's assuming the crown, and that, had he kindled a war to reinstate him, he probably would have stood single in the cause, or would have been very feebly assisted: yet he furnished the elector with money and troops.

James has been greatly and justly blamed for his partiality to favourites. His first was Robert Carr, a North-Briton, who was raised to be prime minister and earl of Somerset. His next favourite was George Villiers, who, upon Somerset's disgrace, was admitted to an unusual share of regard and familiarity with his sovereign. James had at that time formed a system of policy for attaching himself intimately to the court of Spain, that it might assist him in recovering the palatinate; and to this system he had sacrificed the brave Sir Walter Raleigh, on a charge of having committed hostilities against the Spanish settlements in the West Indies. On the death of his eldest son, Henry, prince of Wales, he threw his eyes upon the infanta of Spain, as a proper wife for his son Charles. Villiers, who was equally a favourite with the son and the father, fell in with the prince's romantic humour; and, against the king's will, they travelled in disguise to Spain, where a most solemn farce of courtship was played; but the prince returned without his expected bride. After an inglorious but not disastrous or unfortunate reign of 22 years, James died in 1625, in the 59th year of his age. He encouraged and employed that excellent painter Sir Peter Paul Rubens, as well as Inigo Jones, who restored the pure taste of architecture in England; and in his reign poetical genius, though not much encouraged at court, shone with great lustre.

Charles I. was unfortunate in his marriage *with the princess* Henrietta Maria, daughter of

Henry IV. of France. She had a high spirit, and despised whatever was incompatible with the prejudices of her arbitrary education. The spirit of the people had forced the late king into a rupture with Spain; and Charles early gave such indications of his partiality for Villiers, duke of Buckingham, and of his own despotic temper, that the parliament was remiss in furnishing him with money for carrying on the war. The duke persuaded Charles to espouse the cause of the Huguenots. They were, however, so ill supported, though Charles was sincere in his intention to serve them, that Rochelle, their bulwark, was reduced to extremity. The blame of every public miscarriage was thrown, by the almost unanimous voice both of the parliament and people, upon the favourite; but he sheltered himself from their vengeance under the royal protection, till he was murdered by one Felton, as he was preparing to embark for the relief of Rochelle.

Suspecting the views, and disapproving the government of Charles, the commons would vote no supplies without some redress of the national grievances; upon which the king, presuming on what had been practised in reigns when the principles of liberty were imperfectly understood, levied money upon monopolies of some of the necessaries of life, and raised various taxes without the authority of parliament. His government thus becoming very unpopular, Burton, a divine, Prynne, a lawyer, and Bastwick, a physician, published several pieces which gave offence to the court, and which contained some severe strictures against the ruling clergy. They were prosecuted for these pieces in the Star Chamber, and punished with such brutal rigour, as excited general indignation.

Unfortunately for Charles, he put his conscience into the hands of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who was a violent bigot both in church and state. Laud advised him to check the Puritans, and introduce episcopacy into Scotland. The Scots upon this formed secret connexions with the discontented English, and invaded England in August, 1640, when Charles was so ill served by his officers and his army, that he was forced to agree to an inglorious peace with the Scots.

While the Scots were thus baffling and disgracing the monarch, a deep resentment against him was burning in the breasts of his English subjects. In the fourth year of his reign, Charles had passed into a law the Petition of Right, which the parliament had designed to form in future a guarantee for the liberty of the subject. Among other important articles, it especially ordained, "that no man should be compelled to make or yield any gift, loan, benevolence, tax, or the like charge, without common consent by act of parliament." But the Petition of Right, and even the legislature itself, were soon set at nought by the infatuated monarch. For 12 years he ruled without calling *a parliament; for 12 years* he trampled under foot the liberties of the people, and raised [illegible] plies by exactions and oppression [illegible] among which ship-money, and [illegible] poundage, held a conspicuous [illegible] den had the courage to resist [illegible] mands which were made upon him; [illegible] several judges decided against him, [illegible] honoured his patriotism, and caught [illegible] which inspired him. At length, finding [illegible] his fiscal extortions could no longer [illegible] coffers, Charles reluctantly consented [illegible] mon a parliament once more. It met in [illegible]

Charles had taken Wentworth, a man [illegible] great abilities, into his service: he raised [illegible] to the earldom of Strafford, and permitted [illegible] to act as the first minister. This statesman [illegible] had been a leading member of the opposition [illegible] to the court; but he afterwards, in conjunction [illegible] with Laud, exerted himself so vigorously [illegible] carrying the king's despotic schemes into execution, that he justly became an object [illegible] public detestation. As president of the north [illegible] as lord-lieutenant of Ireland, and as a minister [illegible] and privy-counsellor in England, he behaved [illegible] a very arbitrary manner, and was guilty of many [illegible] acts of injustice and oppression. He was at length brought to the block, though much against the inclination of the king, who was in a manner forced by the parliament and people to sign the warrant for his execution. Archbishop Laud was also beheaded, but not before the popular party had annihilated the royal power.

In 1641, a rebellion broke out in Ireland, where the Protestants, in great numbers, were massacred by the Papists; and much pains were taken to persuade the public that Charles secretly favoured them, out of hatred to his English subjects. While this and other circumstances increased his unpopularity, he was so ill advised as to go to the House of Commons, and demand that his chief opponents in that assembly should be apprehended; but they had previously withdrawn into the city. This act was resented as high treason against his people, and the commons rejected all the offers of satisfaction he could make them.

Notwithstanding the flagrant acts of tyranny and oppression, of which Charles and his ministers had been guilty, yet, when a civil war arose from that source, a great number of the most respectable persons in the kingdom flocked to the king's standard. Many of the nobility and gentry were much attached to the crown, and considered their own honours as connected with it; and a great part of the landed interest was joined to the royal party. The parliament, however, assumed the executive power, and received strong support from most of the corporations, while its main resource lay in London. The king's general was the earl of Lindsey, a brave but not an enterprising commander; and he had great dependance on the princes Rupert and Maurice, the sons of his sister Elizabeth.

In the beginning of the war, the royal army

had the ascendancy; but, in its progress, affairs took a very different turn. The earl of Essex was appointed general under the parliament, and the first battle was fought at Edge Hill, in Warwickshire, on the 23rd of October, 1642. Both parties claimed the victory, though the advantage lay with Charles. He attempted to remove the parliament to Oxford, where many members of both houses met; but his enemies were still acting at Westminster, and continued to carry on the war against him with great animosity. The Independent party, which had scarcely before been thought of, began now to increase. Its leaders were averse to the Presbyterians, who till then had conducted the war against the king, nearly as much as to the royalists; and such was their management, under the direction of the famous Oliver Cromwell, that a plan was formed for dismissing the earls of Essex and Manchester from the parliament's service, on the suggestion that they were disposed to be too friendly to the king, and for introducing Fairfax, who was more easily duped, to the chief command. In the progress of the war, two battles were fought at Newbury, in which the advantage inclined to the king. He had likewise other successes; and, having defeated Sir William Waller, he caused the earl of Essex, who remained still in command, into Cornwall, whence he was forced to escape by sea.

The first severe disaster which the king's army received was at Marston Moor, where, through the imprudence of Prince Rupert, the earl of Manchester obtained an important victory, by which all the north of England was added to the royal cause. On other occasions, the errors of Charles, and of his chief partisans, assisted the success of his more prudent and able adversaries. Some treaties of peace, particularly one at Uxbridge, were set on foot during the war; and the heads of the Presbyterian party would have agreed to terms that little circumscribed the king's prerogative. But they were outwitted and overruled by the Independents, who were assisted by the insinuating of Charles himself. In short, the Independents at last succeeded in persuading the Commons at Westminster, that he was not to be trusted, whatever his concessions might be. And from that moment the affairs of the royalists visibly declined. The king, in 1645, was defeated by Fairfax at Naseby; and, after other misfortunes, he retired to Oxford, the only place where he thought he could be safe.

The Scots, who had joined the parliamentarians, did not cordially agree with them; and, therefore, the king was inclined to seek refuge in their camp from the resentment of his English enemies: but, when he had thrown himself on their protection, they were so intimidated by the resolutions of the ruling party, that, in consideration of the payment of their arrears, they delivered him into the hands of the parliament's commissioners, *probably not suspecting the consequences.*

The Presbyterians were still inclined to make peace with the king; but they were no longer masters, being forced to receive laws from the army and the Independents. The troops now avowed their intentions. They first took Charles by force out of the hands of the commissioners; and then, dreading that a treaty might still take place, they imprisoned 41 of the Presbyterian members, voted the House of Peers to be useless, and reduced that of the Commons to 150. In the mean time, Charles, who unhappily promised himself to turn to his own advantage the dissensions of his enemies, was carried from one prison to another, and was sometimes cajoled by the Independents with hopes of deliverance, but always narrowly watched. Several treaties were begun, but miscarried; and he had been so imprudent, after effecting an escape, as to put himself into the hands of Colonel Hammond, the parliament's governor of the Isle of Wight. A fresh negotiation was commenced, and almost finished, when the Independents, dreading the general disposition of the people for peace, and having proofs of the insincerity of the king, once more seized his person, brought him prisoner to Westminster, subjected him to an irregular and extraordinary trial before a pretended court of justice, and put him to death in the front of his own palace, on the 30th of January, 1649, in the 49th year of his age. This prince possessed some virtues and accomplishments, and would probably have reigned in tranquillity, and have enjoyed the good opinion of his people, if he had not lived at a time when a high spirit of liberty was daily gaining ground.

They who brought Charles to the block were men of different persuasions and principles; but many of them possessed very extraordinary abilities for government. They omitted no measure that could give a perpetual exclusion to kingly power in England; and it cannot be denied that, after they erected themselves into a commonwealth, they made very successful exertions for retrieving the glory of England by sea. They were joined by many of the Presbyterians, and both parties hated Cromwell and Ireton, though they were forced to employ them in the reduction of Ireland, and afterwards against the Scots, who had received Charles II. as their king. By cutting down the timber upon the crown lands, they produced a fleet superior to any that had ever been seen in Europe. Their general, Cromwell, invaded Scotland; and, though he was there reduced to great difficulties, he totally defeated the Scots at the battle of Dunbar, and afterwards, at Worcester, totally defeated Charles II., who had made an irruption into England. For the purpose of encouraging commerce, and the increase of shipping, the leaders of the commonwealth passed an act of navigation; and, declaring war against the Dutch, who were thought, till then, invincible by sea, they effectually humbled those republicans in repeated engagements.

By this time, Cromwell, who hated subordi-

nation to a parliament, had the address to procure himself to be declared commander-in-chief of the national army. Admiral Blake, and other enterprising officers, carried the terror of the English name by sea to all quarters of the globe; and Cromwell, having now very little employment, began to be afraid that his services would be forgotten; for which reason he went, in 1653, without any ceremony, with about 300 musketeers, and dissolved the parliament, contemptuously driving all the members, about a hundred, out of their house. He next annihilated the council of state, with which the executive power was lodged, and transferred the administration to about 140 persons, whom he summoned to meet at Whitehall.

The war with Holland, in which the English were again victorious, still continued. Seven bloody engagements by sea were fought in little more than the compass of one year; and in the last, which was decisive in favour of England, the Dutch lost their brave admiral Van Tromp. Cromwell, at this time, wished to be declared king; but he perceived that he must encounter insurmountable difficulties from Fleetwood and his other friends, if he should persist in his resolution. He was, however, declared protector of the commonwealth of England; a title under which he exercised all the power that had been formerly annexed to the regal dignity. No king ever acted, either in England or Scotland, more despotically in some respects than he did; and no tyrant ever had fewer real friends; even those few threatened to oppose him, if he should take upon him the title of king. After a most comfortless usurpation, he died on the 3rd of September, 1658, in the 60th year of his age.

England acquired much more respect from foreign powers, between the death of Charles I. and that of Cromwell, than she had received since the death of Elizabeth. This arose from the great men who formed the republic which Cromwell abolished, and who, as it were instantaneously, called forth the naval strength of the kingdom. In 1656, the public charge amounted to £1,300,000, of which £1,000,000 was applied to the support of the navy and army, and the remainder to the civil government. In the same year, Cromwell abolished all the tenures *in capite*, by knight's service, and the socage in chief, and likewise the courts of wards and liveries; and other grievances were also removed. In the next year the total charge or public expense of England amounted to £2,326,999; and the collections by assessments, excise, and customs, paid into the exchequer, amounted to £2,362,000.

Upon the whole, it appears that England, from the year 1648 to 1658, improved equally in riches and in power. The legal interest of money was reduced from 8 to 6 per cent.—a sure symptom of increasing commerce. The *navigation act, which, for* more than a cen*tury, was regarded as the* palladium of the English trade, was now planne blished, and afterwards confirmed u II. Monopolies of all kinds wer and liberty of conscience was gr sects, to the vast advantage of po manufactures, which had sufferec Laud's intolerant schemes, as num sans had been driven to North A foreign countries. Cromwell mai honour of the nation, and in ma interposed effectually in favour of ants abroad. Arts and sciences we patronized; and yet he had the g to find, in the person of Cooper, miniature painter; and his coins, mon, exceed in beauty and workn of that age. He certainly did n worthy of praise; and, as his genii city led him to the choice of fit pe several parts of administration, s some regard to men of learning, larly to those who were intrusted w of youth at the universities.

The fate of Richard Cromwell, wh his father as protector, sufficientl great difference that existed betwe to spirit and abilities. Richard w his dignity by those who wished t the tool of their own government; soon after driven, without the leas into obscurity. The restoration o (who, during the usurpation, had on a very precarious subsistence) by the general concurrence of the seemed to think that neither peace tion could be obtained, but by r monarchical constitution. Monk military abilities, but of no princi such as served his ambition or inte sagacity to observe this; and, aft ing in various shapes, being at the army, he acted the principal part Charles, in 1660. For this service ated duke of Albemarle, confirmed mand of the army, and loaded w and riches. The monarch was ad out having given any guarantee f ties of the people, and this circu productive of fatal effects.

Charles seemed at first to have of promoting the happiness of his knew and cultivated the true int kingdom, till he was warped by p sunk in indolence—failings that h consequences as despotism itself. to interest himself in the suffering zens, when London was nearly d fire, in 1666; but there were no bo love of licentious pleasure, whi to the most extravagant expense been severely censured for selling the French king, to supply his nece he had squandered the large sum: him by the parliament. The pric £300,000 sterling. But, even in t duct was less criminal than in his

ı France, which were of the most nature, utterly repugnant to the safety of the kingdom, and such as fect disgrace on his memory.

voked war with the Dutch, which 5, was carried on with great reso- irit; but, through the king's mis- of the money which had been the contest, the Dutch, while a e was depending, found means to ral navy of England, by sailing up as far as Chatham, and destroying l ships of war. In 1667, peace was Breda; and, with a view of check- tion and the victorious career of t Britain soon after concluded, l and Sweden, the triple alliance. ever, Charles joined the French Dutch; and Holland must have not been for the vanity of Louis as eager to enjoy his triumph in and for some unforeseen circum- confidence was now lost between his parliament, notwithstanding ich the English fleet obtained at he Dutch. The popular clamour ed him to give peace to that re- 4, in consideration of the payment

ings this prince acted very despot- complained of the freedom taken ogative in coffeehouses, and ordered hut up; but they soon re-opened. : and even cruelty were exercised Presbyterians, and other noncon- episcopacy, which was again esta- a high hand in Scotland as well d. His parliament addressed him, to make war with France, in 1677; ntirely devoted to that crown, regu- l its money, and hoped, through its d power, to be absolute. It is not, be denied, that the trade of Eng- ow greatly augmented, and that : vigorous measures for its protec- pport; and it ought not to be for- to his occasional desire of gratify- iament, we owe the act of *habeas*

ıe famous Titus Oates, and some nded to discover a plot, charging with a design to murder the king, oduce popery. Though nothing ore ridiculous, and more self-con- han some parts of their narrative, it ed with the utmost zeal on the part nent. The aged Lord Stafford, Cole- ry to the duke of York, and other e condemned to death, on the testi- jured witnesses, and the king did pardon them. The queen herself h difficulty; the duke of York was tire to the continent, and Charles, rinced that the whole was an im- ded to the *torrent*. *At last it spent*

As the king was influenced by the advice of the duke of York, whose bigotry, prejudices, and unfeeling disposition, rendered him an object of odium, the leaders of the opposition endeavoured to procure the duke's exclusion from the throne. A bill for that purpose was strongly supported by able speakers; but, when it had passed through the lower House, it was rejected by the peers. The displeasure of the commons, on this occasion, vented itself in uncourtly resolutions and addresses; and, when Charles had indignantly dissolved the parliament, and convoked another at Oxford, the unallayed zeal of the duke's adversaries still disgusted the pride of royalty. The two Houses were abruptly dismissed; the opponents of the court were suddenly confounded; and the two brothers made a scandalous use of their victory. They fabricated on their side a pretended plot of the Protestants for seizing and killing the king, and altering the government; and the excellent Lord Russel, who had been zealous in his opposition to the popish succession, Algernon Sydney, and several other distinguished Protestants, were tried, condemned, and suffered death.

Charles died on the 6th of February, 1685, in the 55th year of his age. On his death-bed he avowed himself a Catholic. His reign had been celebrated for wit and gallantry; but both were coarse and indelicate. The court was a nursery of vice, and the stage exhibited scenes of gross impurity. Yet some were found, who could admire Milton, as well as Dryden; and never perhaps were the pulpits of England so well supplied with preachers as in this reign. Our language was harmonized, refined, and rendered natural; and the days of Charles may be called the Augustan age of mathematics and natural philosophy. He loved and understood the arts more than he encouraged or rewarded them, especially those of English growth; but this neglect proceeded less from narrow-mindedness, than from indolence, want of reflection, and the squandering of his resources in profligacy. He was acquainted with the art of shipbuilding; and the royal navy of England was considerably improved by his knowledge of naval affairs and architecture.

All the opposition which, during the late reign, had shaken the throne, seemed to have vanished at the accession of James II. The popular affection toward him was increased by the early declaration he made in favour of the Church of England. The army and people supported him in crushing an ill-concerted rebellion of the duke of Monmouth, who, pretending to be the lawful son of Charles II., had assumed the title of king. That duke being beheaded, and some hundreds of his followers cruelly put to death, James resolved to try how far the practice of the Church of England would agree with her doctrine of non-resistance. The experiment failed him. He had recourse to the most injudicious and offensive measures, to *render popery* the established religion of his *dominions*. He pretended to a power of dis-

pensing with the known laws, instituted an illegal ecclesiastical court, and admitted the pope's emissaries into the privy council. He sent an ambassador to Rome, and received at his court the pope's nuncio. The abrupt encroachments which he made upon both the civil and religious liberties of his people were disapproved of even by the pope himself, and all moderate Catholics. His prosecution of seven bishops, for presenting a petition against reading his declaration for liberty of conscience, alarmed his most loyal Protestant subjects, and their acquittal caused a general rejoicing.

In this extremity, many great men in England and Scotland, though they wished well to James, applied for relief to William, prince of Orange, then in Holland, a prince of great abilities, and the inveterate enemy of Louis XIV., who then threatened Europe with chains. The prince was the nephew and son-in-law of James, having married Mary, that king's eldest daughter. He, in consequence, embarked with a fleet of 500 sail for England, avowing it to be his design to restore the church and state to their true rights. Upon his arrival, he was joined not only by the Whigs, but by many whom James had considered as his best friends. Even the king's daughter, Anne, and her husband, George, prince of Denmark, left him, and joined the prince of Orange. James might still have reigned; but he was surrounded with French emissaries and ignorant Jesuits, who wished him not to reign, rather than not to restore popery. They secretly persuaded him to send his queen and son to France, and to follow them: he complied with the advice; and the Revolution was the consequence of his retreat. The parliament declared that the throne was vacated by his misconduct and abdication, and called William and Mary to the succession.

The nation, rendered cautious by the experience of the two last reigns, obtained William's consent to the Bill of Rights, by which the liberties of the people were confirmed and secured; though the friends of liberty in general complained, and with good reason, that the bill was very inadequate to what ought to have been insisted on, at a period so favourable to the enlargement and security of freedom, as when a crown was bestowed by the voice of the people. The two last kings had made a very bad use of the whole national revenue, which was put into their hands, and which was found to be sufficient to raise and maintain a standing army. The revenue was therefore now divided; part was allotted for the current national service of the year, and was to be accounted for to parliament; and part, which is still called the civil-list money, was given to the king, for the support of his dignity and splendour.

It was only the just sense the people of England had of their civil and religious rights, that could provoke them to consent to this revolution; *for the nation had never* before attained *to so high a degree of wealth* and prosperity as in the year 1688. The to ships, as appears from that year, nearly doubl 1666; and the tonnage of in 1660 was only 62,594 t mented to 101,032 tons. annual rental of Englan same proportion. It nation, that its wealth the return of James; to that prince had great i the navy of France at La

War with France ens threatened, and freque vered against the govern of the continental war to open new resources f was imposed, the lands taxed according to the the several counties. boldest operation in fi place was established in the borrowing of money security, the interest bei nent taxes. The chief pr is said to have been Ch wards Lord Halifax. H for such a project was, t moneyed part of the n revolution interest, becau money, they could have paid but by supporting t weight of taxes would o people to be more indust

William, notwithstand he had rendered to the many mortifications fro parliament, that he actu abdication, and had draw purpose, which he was p press. He long bore the in the hope of being supp France; but at last, in 1 conclude the peace of Ry king, who acknowledged of England. William b 1694; but the government person. After peace wa mons obliged him to disb an inconsiderable numbe favourite Dutch guards. his reign, his fears of see pendencies in the posse death of the Catholic kin was every day expected, politic measure; for he co with Louis, for a partitio minions between the Ho Austria. Some of his peached for recommendin saw his error when it was of James soon disclosed t French court: that cou claimed his son king of G

This perfidy rendered W in England. The two H

lwind an address to him for a
e. The last great transaction
s the enactment of a bill, in
g the succession to the crown
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ince was not formed by nature
His manners were cold and
sometimes seemed almost to
e principles of liberty, for the
h he had been raised to the
ugh he owed his royalty to the
favoured the Tories. The
vation of public liberty, how-
lliam's reign memorable and

of Denmark, being the next
) her father, James II., suc-
rone. As she had been ill
king, it was thought that she
ed from his measures; but
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ther, the Pretender, left her
e resolved to fulfil all Wil-
s with his allies, and to give
to the earl of Marlborough.
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f the English army abroad,
activity gave a new turn to
ame as much the favourite
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ain, in consequence of the
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ng prince was immediately
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Ramillies, the states of

Flanders assembled at Ghent, and recognized Charles for their sovereign, while the confederates took possession of Louvain, Brussels, Mechlin, Oudenarde, Bruges, and Antwerp; and, while the cause of that prince thus prospered in the Netherlands, his partisans were so active in Spain, that Madrid, Toledo, and other considerable towns, acknowledged his authority.

The war being continued in the Netherlands, the French were again defeated by the duke of Marlborough. At Oudenarde, in 1708, they severely suffered; and, at Malplaquet, in the following year, their loss was still more dreadful. These flattering successes were balanced, however, by great misfortunes.

The queen had sent an army to assist Charles in Spain, under the command of Lord Galway; but in 1707, after he had been joined by the Portuguese, the English were defeated in the plains of Almanza, chiefly through the cowardice of their allies. An expedition to Toulon was also unsuccessful, after the most expensive preparations; and, though some advantages were obtained at sea, that branch of the war in general was carried on to the detriment, if not the disgrace, of England. At the same time this country severely felt the scarcity of hands in carrying on its trade and manufactures.

As Louis XIV. professed a strong desire of peace, the Whigs at last gave way to a treaty, and conferences ensued, in 1710; but all the offers of the French were rejected, as only intended to amuse and divide the allies: the unreasonable haughtiness of the English plenipotentiaries, and the expected change of the ministry in England, saved France; and affairs from that day took a turn in its favour. Means were found to persuade the queen, who was faithfully attached to the Church of England, that the war, in the end, would prove ruinous to her and her people, and that the Whigs were no friends to the national religion. The general cry was, that "the church was in danger;" which, though groundless, had great effects. Henry Sacheverel, a zealous Tory, had adopted this clamour in one of his sermons, with the ridiculous, impracticable doctrines of passive obedience and non-resistance. It was, as it were, agreed by both parties to try their strength upon this man's trial. He was impeached by the commons, and found guilty by the lords, who ventured to pass upon him only a slight censure. After this trial, the queen's affections were entirely alienated from the duchess of Marlborough and the Whig administration. Her friends lost their places, which were supplied by Tories; and even the command of the army was taken from the duke of Marlborough, in 1712, and given to the duke of Ormond, who produced orders for a cessation of arms; but they were disregarded by the queen's allies in the British pay. And, indeed, the removal of the duke from the command of the army, while the war continued, was an act of the greatest imprudence, and excited the astonishment of Europe. So numerous had

land was in danger of being made prisoner. They suffered other disgraces on the continent; and it now became the general opinion in England, that peace was necessary to save the duke and his army from total destruction. By this time, however, the French marine and commerce were in danger of being annihilated by the English at sea, under the command of Admirals Anson, Warren, Hawke, and other gallant officers; but the English arms were not so successful as could have been wished, under Rear-Admiral Boscawen, in the East Indies. In this state of affairs, the success of the French and English during the war may be said to have been balanced; and, as both courts turned their thoughts to peace, a definitive treaty was concluded at Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748; the basis of which was the mutual restitution of all places taken during the war.

The chief conductor of the government at that time was Mr. Henry Pelham, who certainly did not shine as a war-minister, but was an intelligent and respectable man. Taking advantage of the return of peace, he reduced the interest of the national debt, promoted commerce and the arts, encouraged the renewed colonization of Nova Scotia, and particularly attended to the improvement of the northern parts of Scotland, and the civilization of the Highlanders. To some of his parliamentary measures strong opposition was made by the partisans of Frederic, the heir-apparent, who considered himself as neglected and ill-treated by his father; but the prince's death, in 1751, paralysed the operations of his friends.

When Mr. Pelham died, in 1754, a new war was on the point of breaking out. In consequence of the encroachments of the French, who had built forts on our back settlements in America, and the dispositions they made for sending over vast bodies of veterans to support their usurpations, Admiral Boscawen was sent with a squadron to the banks of Newfoundland, where he took two French ships of the line. Orders were also issued for making general reprisals in Europe; and, before the end of the year 1755, above 500 French mercantile vessels were brought into our ports; but, in the American campaign, General Braddock, who had been sent from England to reduce the forts on the Ohio, was defeated and killed, by falling into an ambuscade of the French and the savages near Fort du Quesne. Major-general Johnson was more fortunate; for he triumphed over a strong body of the enemy near Crown Point.

In proportion as the spirits of the public were elevated by the formidable armaments which were prepared, they were depressed by the intelligence that the French had landed 11,000 men in Minorca, to attack Fort St. Philip; that Admiral Byng, who had been sent out with a squadron at least equal to that of the French, had been baffled, if not defeated, by their *admiral Galissonniere; and that at last Minorca was surrendered by General* Blakeney. The prevailing outcry was such, that the k up Byng to public clamour and polit trigue, and he was shot at Portsmouth doing all that was in his power aga enemy.

About this time Mr. William Pitt was as secretary of state, at the head of t nistration. He had long been known bold, eloquent, and energetic speaker; soon proved himself to be as spirited a n The miscarriages in the Mediterranean consequence but the loss of Fort St. which was more than repaired by the v cess of the English privateers, both in and America. The successes of the in the East Indies, under Colonel Cl almost incredible. He defeated S Dowla, nabob of Bengal, Bahar, and and placed Jaffier in the ancient seat nabobs of those provinces. This event foundation of the great extent of t which the English now possess in t Indies.

The first expedition, prepared by h failed, chiefly from the imprudent ch a commander. Murmurs arose amo people; but they hoped for success in enterprises. The duke of Cumberlan commanded an army of observation, co of subsidiary troops, had been constra agree to a convention of neutrality, wh French took possession of Hanover; they violated in several instances th of the treaty, the English minister co with his sovereign and the king of Pr the expediency of sending a considerab to act with vigour in the continental wa French, in 1758, were driven out of H and, in other parts of Germany, they both loss and disgrace.

In 1759, the ministry planned three g peditions for the American branch of t and all of them proved successful. C against the French islands in the West where Guadaloupe was reduced.

The second expedition was against t the capital of Canada. The comma given, by the minister's advice, to Wolfe, a young officer of a truly military Wolfe was opposed, with far superior fo Montcalm, an able general. Though th tion of the country which Wolfe was to and the works the French threw up to a descent of the English, were deemed i nable, Montcalm never relaxed in his vi Wolfe's courage and perseverance, h surmounted every difficulty; he gain heights of Abraham, near Quebec, wh engaged and nearly defeated the French but was himself killed, as was Mo Monckton (who was next in command wounded, the completion of the French and the glory of reducing Quebec, w served for Brigadier Townshend.

General Amherst conducted the third dition. His orders were to reduce all t

a army under General Wolfe, on the river St. Lawrence. By the expeditions, the French empire ada became subject to Great

mpaign ensued in Germany. nd, of Brunswick, who com- tish and subsidiary troops, made upon the French, with a view of from Frankfort; but he could in that object, nor prevent them ing Hesse-Cassel and invading i territories. In the battle of r, he prevailed over a numerous y the exertions of 7000 British a combatants; and the victory n a complete triumph, if Lord e, who is accused of having pre- nderstand the orders which he ot, at the critical moment, kept of action.

f the French being now des- ir credit ruined, they resolved rt to retrieve all by an invasion in; but Admiral Boscawen at- ulon squadron, commanded by ear the Strait of Gibraltar, took the line, and burned two; and wke entirely defeated the Brest ed by Admiral Conflans, off the , in the Bay of Biscay. The elinquished all thoughts of in- l-defended island.

n of 1760 was less brilliant than ceeding year; but it was not rtant. The conquest of Canada by the reduction of Quebec and : French were attacked with ia, and the powerful company nfluence and authority by the affier Ali Khan; and, in Europe, nd obtained a considerable but antage over the invaders of

hostilities, the king died on the r, 1760, in the 77th year of his nceeded by his grandson, the rederic, prince of Wales.

of George II. is reprehensible t his predilection for his elec- s. In his personal disposition ate but placable, fearless of dan- litary parade, and enjoyed the campaigns in which he served His affections, either public or ver known to interfere with the e of justice; and, though his acted by party, the courts of never better filled than under

i of the reign of George III. public that the war would still vith vigour. In 1761, Belleisle, coast of France, surrendered to ips and forces, as did the im- *of Pondicherry, in the East* Indies. In 1762, Martinique, Grenada, St. Lucia, and other islands in the West Indies, were subdued by the British arms with inconceivable rapidity.

In the mean time, Mr. Pitt, who had conducted the war against France with such eminent ability, and who had received accurate information of the hostile intentions and private intrigues of the court of Spain, proposed an immediate declaration of war against that kingdom. But he was overruled in the council, all the members of which declared themselves of a contrary opinion, except his brother-in-law, Earl Temple. He now found the decline of his influence; and it was known that the earl of Bute, who had a considerable share in directing the education of the king, had acquired an ascendancy in the royal favour. It was now declared by Mr. Pitt, that "as he was called to the administration by the voice of the people, to whom he considered himself as accountable for his conduct, he would no longer remain in a situation which made him responsible for measures that he was not allowed to guide." He therefore resigned the seals, and was pensioned for his services.

The war was still carried on with vigour, and the plans were pursued which Mr. Pitt had previously concerted. The earl of Egremont was appointed to succeed him, as secretary for the foreign department. It was at length found indispensably necessary to engage in a war with Spain, the family compact among all the branches of the Bourbon family being generally known; and accordingly war was declared against that kingdom, on the 4th of January, 1762. A respectable armament was fitted out under Admiral Pococke, having the earl of Albemarle on board to command the land-force; and these spirited commanders struck at the vitals of the Spanish monarchy by the reduction of the Havannah, the most important fortress which his catholic majesty held in the West Indies. It surrendered after a siege of two months and eight days. This conquest was succeeded by that of Manilla and the Philippine islands, in the East Indies, which yielded to an armament commanded by General Draper and Admiral Cornish. To counteract these dreadful blows given to the family compact, the French and Spaniards employed their last resource, which was to injure the British interests by an invasion of Portugal; but the campaign in that country was not so effective as it was alarming.

Negotiations, which the French had proposed without effect in 1761, were now resumed; and the enemy at last offered such terms as the British ministry thought admissible and adequate to the occasion. The defection of the Russians from the confederacy against the king of Prussia, and his consequent successes, produced a cessation of arms in Germany, and in other quarters; and on the 10th of February, 1763, *the definitive* treaty, concluded by his *Britannic majesty* with France and Spain, was

signed at Paris. By this treaty the whole province of Canada was ceded to Great Britain, with Cape Breton; the islands of Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, were also left in the possession of the English, who resigned Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucia, and Belleisle; while the Spaniards gave Florida and Minorca in exchange for the island of Cuba and the Philippines.

The peace did not give universal satisfaction, because there were many who considered the terms as too favourable to the enemy, after so glorious a war; and, from this period, various other causes also contributed to produce great discontent. The affair of Wilkes agitated the whole kingdom. That gentleman, having satirized the king's speech, in the "North Briton," was seized in consequence of a general warrant, directed against the authors, printers, and publishers of that offensive paper. He disputed the legality of his arrest; but the two secretaries of state overruled his objections, and committed him to the Tower. Having demanded a writ of *habeas corpus*, he was liberated by the court of Common Pleas, on the ground of parliamentary privilege, to the great joy of the people. A want of employment, about the same time, stimulated the populace, in various parts of the realm, to riotous acts.

When the House of Commons took the case of Wilkes into consideration, the obnoxious article in the "North Briton" (No. 45) was declared to be a gross libel; and, in 1764, he was expelled from the assembly. Not appearing to take his trial in the court of King's Bench for the libel, and for an obscene Essay on Woman, he was subjected to outlawry. He resided for some years in France; but the zeal of party did not subside during his absence.

The earl of Bute, after acting for a short time as prime minister, found himself so unpopular, that he resigned his station in 1763; and Mr. George Grenville was his successor. By the advice of the new premier, and also of his predecessor, the king resolved to impose taxes upon his subjects in North America, for the relief of the British nation, which had so long fostered and protected the colonies; and a bill, ordaining stamp duties, passed through both Houses, notwithstanding a spirited opposition.

As soon as it was known in North America that the bill was enacted, the whole country was kindled into a flame; and when the act, printed by royal authority, reached the colonies, it was treated with every mark of indignation and contempt. Several acts of violence were likewise committed with a view to prevent the operation of the statute; and associations were also formed in the different colonies, by which the people bound themselves not to import or purchase any British manufactures, till the act should be repealed. The malcontents also established committees in every *colony, to correspond* with each other, and even *appointed deputies from these* committees to meet at New York. They assem ber, 1765; and this was the f holden on the American continer

These commotions occasione alarm in England, that the king per to dismiss his ministers. T Rockingham was appointed firs treasury; and some of his friends the vacant places. In March, 1766 for repealing the American stat bill was countenanced and supp new ministers; and Mr. Pitt, tho nected with them, spoke with g favour of the repeal.

The marquis and his friends continue in the administration. sway, several public measures v tending to the relief of the peop security of their liberties. But the duke of Grafton became firs treasury; the earl of Shelburne, state; Charles Townshend, char exchequer; and Mr. Pitt, afterw earl of Chatham, was appointed privy-seal; but his acceptance of it removed him from the House greatly lessened his weight and i deed, this political arrangement long continuance. Mr. Townsh some time a considerable figure cabinet and in parliament; but or 1767, the place of chancellor of t was supplied by Lord North, wh became prime minister.

The return of Wilkes to Engl strongly excited the public attent chosen representative for Middle again expelled from the House for being the author of some sever the conduct of one of the minis vote for his expulsion, his former which he was now suffering in were complicated with this charg writ was ordered for Middlesex. with which he was prosecuted or his popularity, which was also muc by his spirit and firmness. Before he had been chosen an alderman and he was soon re-elected membe sex, without opposition. The re been made to the House, it was d having been expelled in that ses incapable of being elected a mer parliament. The freeholders treat lution with contempt; and he w when the sheriff had received a n was again declared by the House, not a lawful member; and Colo offered himself as a candidate for Though the whole weight of court thrown into the scale in this favour, a majority of near four to c against him on the day of election standing this, it was voted that have been returned; and the dep the crown was ordered to amend t

a be remembered, that, in conse-
a contest with the government,
nts were declared to be illegal,
as put to the unlawful seizure of
te messengers.

of the stamp act seemed to tran-
colonies; but the impolicy and
rit of the court soon reproduced
complaint. In 1767, duties were
na and other commodities which
ported into North America; but,
ient act, only tea was taxed. As
e amount of the duties, but the
parliament to impose taxes on
ich was the subject of dispute, the
other duties answered no purpose
mained. It could not, therefore,
that discontent would wholly sub-
r some years, exterior tranquillity
the colonies. At length, in 1773,
f several ships at Boston, laden
ited such a ferment, that a party
nts, rushing on board, threw all
nto the sea. This behaviour was
by the British government, that an
for shutting up the port. Another
n after enacted, "for better regu-
vernment of Massachusetts Bay."
of this act was to alter the consti-
hat province, to take the whole
wer out of the hands of the people,
he nomination of the counsellors,
magistrates of all kinds, including
he crown, and in some cases in the
nor, and to make them all remov-

unhappily subsisted in America. The earl of Chatham, who had been long in an infirm state of health, appeared in the House of Lords, and expressed in the strongest terms his disapprobation of the ministerial system. He also made a motion for immediately recalling the troops from Boston; but it was rejected by a large majority, as was also a bill which he brought in for settling the American troubles. The methods proposed in the House of Commons, by Mr. Burke and others, for promoting an accommodation, met with a similar fate. The troops were augmented; and an act was passed restraining the commerce of the New England colonies, and prohibiting their fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland. A motion was, indeed, afterwards made in the House of Commons, by Lord North, for suspending the exercise of the right of taxation in America, in those colonies which should, in their general assemblies, raise such contributions as might be approved by the king in parliament. This proposal was adopted; but, when it had been communicated to some provincial assemblies, it was rejected by them as delusive and unsatisfactory, and only calculated to disunite them. Amidst the irritation of both parties, an appeal was made to the sword. It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war. General Gage having sent troops to destroy some military stores which were at Concord, they succeeded in their design, but were extremely harassed, and forced to a quick retreat; and, soon after, numerous bodies of the American

another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charleston neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time the congress appointed George Washington, a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, who had acquired experience in the preceding war with France, to be commander-in-chief of all the American forces. A declaration was now voted, in which the deputies styled themselves "The Representatives of the United Colonies of North America," and assigned their reasons for taking arms. A second petition to the king was likewise voted, which was presented by one of the proprietors of Pennsylvania; but Mr. Penn was soon after informed, that no answer would be given to it. An address, to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and to the people of Ireland, was also published by the congress: but, as no conciliatory measures were adopted, hostilities still continued; and an expedition was planned by the Americans against Canada, to which they were induced by a commission given to General Carleton, governor of that province, empowering him to embody and arm the Canadians, to march out of the country for the subjugation of the other colonies, and to proceed even to capital punishment against all whom he should deem rebels and opposers of the laws. The expedition was chiefly conducted by Richard Montgomery, who possessed considerable military skill; but, in attempting to gain possession of Quebec, he was killed by the first fire from the battery. The besiegers immediately quitted their camp, and the siege was for some months converted into a blockade.

During these transactions, the troops at Boston were reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans; and General Howe, who now commanded the royal army, was obliged to quit the town in the spring of 1776. Washington eagerly took possession of the place, and prepared for more important enterprises.

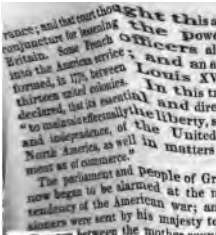
On the 4th of July, the congress promulgated a solemn declaration, assigning reasons, in forcible language, for the separation of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the united colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, "free and independent states; that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connexion between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do." They likewise published articles of confederation, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America."

The new British commander seemed disposed *to act with spirit*. He was at the head of a great army; and the fleet was under the command of his brother. Both were invested with a power under the title of "Commissioners for restoring peace to the Colonies,") of granting pardons to those who would lay down their arms; but offers of this kind were treated with contempt.

An attack upon the town of New York was to have been expected by the provincials, who therefore they had fortified it with great skill. On Long Island they had also a strong body of troops encamped, and several redoubts thrown up. The British troops made a descent on that island, and various conflicts ensued, in which the Americans suffered extremely. Finding themselves overpowered, they retreated in the night to New York, which they likewise soon after abandoned. The royal army obtained some other advantages over the Americans; at the White Plains, taking Fort Washington, with a garrison of 2500 men, and Fort Lee, with a large quantity of stores; and these losses obliged the American general to retreat to a great distance. On the 8th of December, General Clinton and Sir Peter Parker obtained possession of Rhode Island; and the British troops covered the Jerseys. This was the crisis of American danger. All their forts were taken, the time assigned for the service of the greatest part of their army had expired; and the few men who remained with their officers were in a destitute state, while a well-supplied and disciplined army was pursuing them. Had General Howe pushed on at that time to Philadelphia, he might perhaps have put an end to the contest; but his delay gave time for numerous volunteer reinforcements to join General Washington, who, in the night of the 25th of December, amidst snow, storms, and ice, with a small detachment, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of the Hessian troops at Trenton. He attacked another post with success, and thus revived the drooping spirits of his countrymen.

The next campaign commenced unfavourably for the Americans, who, after failing in a partial conflict, were defeated on the banks of the Brandywine, and deprived of the city of Philadelphia. But this ill success was compensated by the event of a British expedition, intended by its projectors for the ruin of the colonial cause. The command of this expedition had been given to Lieutenant-general Burgoyne, who set out from Quebec with an army of near 10,000 men, and a fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of savages. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderoga; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans, under Gates and Arnold, that, after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, he and his men, to the amount of 5600, were obliged, on the 17th of October, to surrender themselves and their arms to the exulting enemy.

During this war, the colonists received occasional supplies of arms and ammunition from



France; and that court thought this a favourable conjuncture for humbling the power of Great Britain. Some French officers also entered into the American service; and an alliance was formed, in 1778, between Louis XVI. and the thirteen united colonies. In this treaty it was declared, that its essential and direct end was "to maintain effectually the liberty, sovereignty, and independence, of the United States of North America, as well in matters of government as of commerce."

The parliament and people of Great Britain now began to be alarmed at the mischievous tendency of the American war; and commissioners were sent by his majesty to settle the dispute between the mother country and the colonies. But it was now too late: the terms which, at an earlier period of the contest, would have been accepted with gratitude, were now rejected with disdain; and the congress positively refused to enter into any treaty with the British commissioners, if the independence of the United States of America should not be previously acknowledged, or the British fleets and armies withdrawn from America. Neither of these requisitions being complied with, the war continued to be carried on with mutual animosity.

The conduct of France toward Great Britain occasioned hostilities between those nations, though without any formal declaration of war on either side. Two French frigates being taken by Admiral Keppel, orders were immediately issued by the French court for making reprisals; and on the 27th of July a battle was fought off Brest, between the English and French fleets. The former consisted of 30 ships of the line, and the latter of 32, beside frigates: they engaged for about three hours, but the action was not decisive. After the engagement, there was much murmuring throughout the English fleet, because a decisive victory had not been obtained over the French; and the blame was thrown upon Vice-admiral Sir Hugh Palliser, who soon after preferred a charge against the admiral. Both were consequently tried by courts-martial; Keppel was honourably acquitted, and Sir Hugh was also pronounced not guilty.

In the East Indies, Pondicherry surrendered to the arms of Great Britain; and, in the West, the island of St. Lucia was taken from the French; but they made themselves masters of Dominica, and, in the following year, they obtained possession of St. Vincent and Grenada. The Count D'Estaing, arriving at the mouth of the river Savannah with a considerable armament, attacked the British troops; but the latter defended themselves so well, that the assailants were driven off with great loss.

By the intrigues of the French court, Spain was at length brought to engage with France in the war against England. One of the first enterprises in which the Spaniards engaged was the siege of Gibraltar, which was defended with great vigour. The naval force of Spain was also added to that of France; and the combined fleets for a time rode almost triumphant in the British Channel. So great were their armaments, that the nation seemed to dread an invasion; but they did not venture to make an experiment of that kind, and, after parading for some time in the Channel, they retired to their ports. On the 8th of January, 1780, Sir George Brydges Rodney, who had a large fleet under his command, captured seven Spanish ships of war, and a number of trading vessels; and, soon after, the same admiral engaged, near Cape St. Vincent, a Spanish fleet, consisting of 11 ships of the line and 2 frigates. Four of the largest vessels were taken by his exertions; one was driven on shore, and one blew up during the action. In April and May three conflicts occurred in the West Indies, between Rodney and the count de Guichen; but, in these actions, not a ship was taken on either side. Admiral Geary took 12 valuable French merchant-ships from Port-au-Prince; but the combined fleets of France and Spain took 5 English East Indiamen, and 50 merchant-ships bound for the West Indies—one of the most complete naval captures which was ever made.

On the American continent, Sir Henry Clinton made himself master of Charleston, and Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over General Gates near Camden. Soon after, Major-general Arnold deserted the service of the congress, made his escape to New York, and was made a brigadier in the royal service. Major André, who negotiated this desertion, and was concerting measures with him for betraying the important post of West Point into the hands of the English, was taken in the American lines, on his return to New York, and, being considered as a spy, suffered death accordingly, much regretted for his amiable qualities.

The year 1780 was distinguished by one of the most disgraceful exhibitions of religious bigotry that had ever appeared in this country, especially if it be considered as happening in an age in which the principles of toleration prevailed. An act of parliament had lately passed for relieving the Romanists from certain penalties and disabilities imposed upon them in the 11th and 12th years of the reign of King William III. This act was generally approved of by men of sense and of liberal sentiments, by whom the laws against Papists were justly deemed too severe. It seemed at first to give little offence to persons of any class in England; but in Scotland it excited great indignation, though it did not extend to that kingdom. Resolutions were formed to oppose any laws for granting indulgences to Papists in Scotland; and a Romish chapel was burned, and the houses of several Papists were demolished at Edinburgh. The contagion of bigotry at length reached England; a number of persons assembled, with a view of promoting a petition to parliament for a repeal of the late act, and assumed the title of the Protestant Association. Under the guidance of Lord George Gordon, 30,000 persons

assembled on the 2nd of June, in St. George's Fields, whence they proceeded to the House of Commons. In the course of the day several members of both Houses of parliament were grossly insulted and ill-treated by the populace; and on the same evening two Romish chapels were nearly demolished. After a day's respite, another mob assembled, and destroyed a popish chapel in Moor Fields. On the 6th the rioters demolished several houses, and destroyed all the household furniture of Sir George Saville, one of the most respectable men in the kingdom, because he had brought in the bill in favour of the Papists. On the following day, great numbers again assembled, and behaved so tumultuously, that both Houses thought proper to adjourn. In the evening, a most daring and violent attempt was made to force open the gates of Newgate, in order to release the confined rioters; and, the keeper having refused to deliver the keys, his house was set on fire, the prison was soon in flames, and great part of it consumed, though a new stone edifice of uncommon strength; and more than 300 prisoners made their escape, many of whom joined the mob. Two other prisons, and the houses of Lord Mansfield and Sir John Fielding, were set on fire; the King's Bench prison, the New Bridewell in St. George's Fields, some popish chapels, several private houses of the Papists, and other buildings, were destroyed by the rioters; and every part of the metropolis exhibited violence and disorder, tumults and conflagrations. At length large bodies of troops were brought to London; and an order was issued, by the authority of the king in council, for the soldiers to act without waiting for directions from the civil magistrates. The troops exerted themselves with diligence in the suppression of these alarming tumults: a great number of the rioters were killed; many were apprehended, who were afterwards put to death as felons; and the metropolis was at length restored to order and tranquillity. Lord George Gordon was tried for high treason; but, as it did not appear that his intentions were traitorous, he was acquitted, chiefly in consequence of the powerful impression made upon the jury by the vehement eloquence of Erskine.

About the close of this year a war with Holland commenced, in consequence of the clandestine commerce carried on between the Dutch and the Americans: it was prosecuted with great vigour; and that republic soon suffered a severe blow in the loss of the island of St. Eustatius. In the summer of 1781, an engagement occurred between an English fleet under the command of Hyde Parker, and a Dutch squadron under Admiral Zoutman, off the Dogger Bank. Both squadrons fought with great gallantry, and by both the victory was claimed, but it undoubtedly belonged to the British.

The war continued to be prosecuted with various success; the French made themselves *masters of Tobago, and the* Spaniards of West *Florida, with little resistance.* Earl Cornwallis obtained a victory over the Americans in North Carolina; but it was productive of all the consequences of a defeat; for, three days after, he was obliged to leave many of his sick and wounded to the care of his enemy, and to make a long retreat before he could find shelter. By different reinforcements, his force had been raised to about 7000 men; but his situation became at length very critical. The most effectual measures were adopted by Washington, in concert with the French general Rochambeau, for surrounding his army; and it was closely invested in York Town, and at Gloucester on the opposite side of the river, both by a military and naval force. The works which had been raised by the British sunk under the weight of the hostile batteries; the troops were much diminished by the sword and sickness, and worn down by constant watching and fatigue; and, all hope of relief failing, on the 19th of October Lord Cornwallis surrendered himself, and his whole army, as prisoners of war.

This misfortune threw a gloom over the court and cabinet, and annihilated the hopes of those who had flattered themselves with the subjugation of the colonies. The surrender of this second British army may be considered as the closing scene of the continental war in America; for the great accumulation of public debt it had brought upon the nation, the waste of human blood it had occasioned, the diminution of trade, and the vast increase of taxes, were evils of such magnitude, as could scarcely be overlooked even by the most insensible and stupid. Accordingly, on the 1st of March, 1782, after repeated struggles in the House of Commons, the House addressed the king, requesting him to put a stop to the war against the American colonies. This was a most important event: it rendered a change of counsels and of measures absolutely necessary, and filled the kingdom with joy. Those country gentlemen who generally voted with the ministry, saw the dangers to which the nation was exposed in a complicated war, without a single ally; and, feeling the pressure of the public burdens, they at length deserted the standard of administration, and a complete revolution in the cabinet was effected, under the auspices of the marquis of Rockingham, who was appointed first lord of the treasury.

Pacification was the first business of the new ministry. Mr. Grenville was invested with full powers to treat at Paris, and was directed to propose the independence of the thirteen United States of America in the first instance, instead of making it a condition of a general treaty.

Peace every day became more desirable to the people. A series of losses agitated their minds. Early in the year, the French had taken Nevis; Minorca was recovered by the Spaniards; and St. Christopher's was given up to the French. Jamaica, in all probability, would soon have shared the same fate, had not

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revolution; and the peace-makers were obliged to withdraw from power. The two new friends were appointed secretaries of state, and the duke of Portland first lord of the treasury, in April, 1783. Mr. Fox soon after brought into parliament his bill for regulating the government of the India Company, and its commercial affairs and territories. As it was pretended by the court, that this bill would render the king a mere tool in the hands of the coalition, by giving to Mr. Fox and his friends the whole patronage of India, the royal influence was exerted against it in a most unconstitutional manner; and it was rejected in the upper House by a majority of 19 votes. The two secretaries were immediately dismissed with contempt; and Mr. Pitt, son of the late earl of Chatham, who had acted as chancellor of the exchequer under the earl of Shelburne, was placed, in 1784, at the head of the treasury. A strong contest ensued between the parties, which could only be terminated by a dissolution of the parliament. On the 18th of May a new parliament assembled; and Mr. Pitt then brought in his India bill, of which we have given an account under the article PUBLIC COMPANIES. In 1786, the plan of the same minister for establishing a sinking fund, and employing a million annually in the reduction of the national debt, was proposed, and received the sanction of the parliament.

While Mr. Pitt attended to the national concerns, he did not neglect foreign politics. He observed, with disgust, that the leaders of the republican party in Holland aimed at the humiliation of the prince of Orange, and that they endeavoured to deprive him even of his lawful authority; and, while the French king abetted their views, it seemed to be the interest of our court to support the stadtholder. The threatening storm burst forth in the year 1787. As the king of Prussia concurred with Great Britain on this occasion, the French court contented itself with mere promises. When the prince was seriously menaced with the ruin of his power, military and naval preparations were ordered by the English ministry; but the dispute was settled by the unaided efforts of a Prussian army. Amsterdam was taken by assault; and the stadtholder was gratified with a considerable augmentation of power.

As no war seemed likely to arise for some years, the minister had full leisure to promote the commerce and industry of the nation; but there was one branch of traffic which he rather wished to suppress than encourage. The trade carried on by this country, and other European nations, upon the coast of Africa, for the purchase of negro slaves, to be employed in the cultivation of the West Indian islands and parts of the continent of America, had not been considered with that general attention which such a practice might have been expected to excite; a practice so repugnant to the mild principles of modern policy and manners. The

first public attempt, we believe, that was made to put a stop to this traffic, was by the Quakers of the southern provinces of America. In Great Britain the same society also took the lead, and presented a similar petition to the parliament of this kingdom. The cause soon after became highly popular. Among those foremost on this occasion was Mr. Clarkson, whose exertions were unceasing. Many pamphlets were published on this subject; eminent divines recommended it from the pulpit, and in printed discourses; and petitions were offered to the legislature by the two universities, and by some of the most respectable towns. Thus stimulated, the ministers instituted an inquiry, before a committee of the privy-council, into the allegations of both parties; and Mr. Wilberforce proposed, in the House of Commons, the abolition of a trade which, he said, was one mass of iniquity from the beginning to the end: but, for many years, the parliament did not attend, in this instance, to the voice of the people.

In the autumn of 1788, the nation was suddenly alarmed by the king's illness. Its precise nature was for several days unexplained; but at length it was known to have fallen upon the brain, and to have produced a temporary privation of reason. More than 20 years previously, symptoms of the same kind had manifested themselves. A species of interregnum took place, though unaccompanied by any of those circumstances which usually characterize and accompany that unfortunate state. The kingdom betrayed no symptoms of confusion, anarchy, or civil commotion. Yet, as it was necessary to provide for the due exercise of the royal functions, the parliament decided that the prince of Wales should be invited and requested to accept the regency, under certain limitations. While the bill for this purpose was in progress, the king became convalescent, and was consequently restored to the exercise of his functions.

While France was convulsed with revolutionary troubles, and other states of Europe were involved in war, Great Britain exhibited a picture of complete serenity. This calm was scarcely disturbed, in 1790, by a frivolous dispute with the Spaniards, who dislodged the English from Nootka Sound, in North America, but were obliged, by menaces of war, to restore it. An alarm soon after arose from the increasing ambition of the Russian empress, who aimed at the extension of her dominions on the side of Turkey; and Mr. Pitt was induced, by a sense of policy, to equip an armament as a check to her pretensions. She consented to conclude peace with the Turks, but insisted on the cession of a considerable territory, reaching to the Niester; and our court at length acquiesced in her demands. A greater alarm was excited by the supposed progress of republican opinions in this country; *and, in 1792, a proclamation* against seditious *writings, followed by an order* for embodying the militia, engaged a considerable share of the public attention. It had the intended effect, and produced many addresses, testifying the loyalty of the people.

In the beginning of the year 1793, numerous associations were formed throughout the kingdom against republican principles and theories. To say that there were no persons who had embraced republican principles, and would have been willing to concur in changing the form of government, would be absurd; but there appears no reason to suppose that the cause for alarm was so great as many imagined, and as others at least affected to believe. The truth lies between the extremes. The controversies occasioned by the pamphlets of Burke and Calonne, and particularly the writings of Paine, well adapted to the comprehension of the lower class of people, and pregnant with pointed remarks on some existing abuses, though, perhaps, destitute of sound policy or principle, had undoubtedly contributed to render the example of the French revolution in some degree contagious. But the disaffected party was neither numerous nor respectable. The church, the aristocracy, and the most opulent individuals of the community, were averse to any change or innovation whatever. It was by the lower part of the middle class of society that democratical opinions were chiefly entertained, and among them more probably as a matter of conversation than as a project to be reduced to practice. The violent proceedings of the French, however, had terrified the well-disposed part of the people, and almost disgusted them with the very name of reform; and the premeditated ill-treatment and unjust death of the king almost entirely annihilated the spirit of republicanism in this country. The public wanted only to be excited, to give the most forcible proofs of its attachment to a constitution which had so wisely provided against the intolerable persecutions of tyranny, and the no less deplorable mischiefs of faction.

The first disposition manifested by Great Britain to break with France, regarded the navigation of the Scheldt, which the French had determined to open for the benefit of Antwerp and the Netherlands. This impediment, however, might perhaps have been removed, from the little disposition which was evinced by Holland to assert its right to the exclusive navigation, and from the seeming readiness of the French to refer the dispute to a negotiation.

The next exception which was taken by the English ministry, was to the decree of fraternity, which was offered by the French convention to the revolting subjects of any monarchical (or, as they said, tyrannical) government, and which was construed into a direct affront to this country, and a plot against its peace; and the justice of this complaint was proved by the reception which the convention had given to English republicans, and the answers which it had made to them.

The bill against the intrusion of aliens, of

...h the French complained, alleging that it ... a violation of the commercial treaty con... and in 1798, formed another ground of dis... ...ute; and this offence was augmented by the ... prohibition of exporting corn to France, while ... it was freely allowed to the powers at war with ... that country.

At length, Chauvelin, the French resident, was officially informed by the English court, that his character and functions were terminated by the fatal death of the king of France; and eight days were allowed for his departure. Maret had been sent by the executive council of France, with enlarged powers; but, arriving in England at the period of Chauvelin's dismission, he thought it prudent immediately to return to France.

A war was now the consequence of suspicion and apprehension on one side, and of animosity on the other. It was first declared by France; and the challenge was readily accepted by Great Britain. For the military operations which ensued, we refer the reader to our account of France, to the history of which country they properly appertain.

In this second year of the war, the alarm which the court felt at the propagation of French principles, prompted the minister to institute a prosecution against Mr. Horne Tooke and other advocates of freedom, who merely wished to promote that reform which they thought necessary for the security of the constitution. He formerly entertained the opinions which they professed; but, when he became a courtier, he followed the example of Pulteney and other apostates, and studiously discountenanced, with few exceptions, whatever he had before recommended. In consequence of this change of sentiment, he was disgusted at the conduct of those who did not relinquish their uncourtly propensities, and considered them as proper objects of the figure of punishment. A shoemaker named Thomas Hardy, who had acted as secretary to a society of reformists, being indicted for a treasonable attempt to subvert the constitution, was tried by a special commission; but, after a minute investigation, which was not closed before the eighth day, he was acquitted by the spirit of the jury. Mr. Tooke and Mr. Thelwall were also tried, and pronounced not guilty; and their supposed accomplices (Bonney, Joyce, Kyd, and Holcroft) were then dismissed, because it was concluded by their prosecutors that they would pass the ordeal without injury. Thus ended these memorable trials, the issue of which the country awaited with the utmost agitation and with anxious suspense, until the just and temperate verdict of an honest jury had defended the law of the land against the dangerous innovation of constructive treason. The verdict of the jury was correct, for there was not evidence to bear out the charge of treason; but enough was proved to show that there was a party in the country which had dangerous *designs*.

In the following year, the trial of Mr. Hastings terminated. He had been impeached, in 1787, of high crimes and misdemeanors, committed in the administration of British India: and his imputed guilt was emblazoned and exaggerated by the eloquence of Burke, Fox, Sheridan, and Windham. The process against him, for the length of its duration, exceeded every trial in the history of the world: but he was honourably acquitted, and his services were rewarded by the India Company with a liberal pension.

After some fruitless attempts to restore peace, the king, at the beginning of the year 1797, was insulted by an act of strange hostility; we allude to the invasion of Great Britain by 1200 men, without artillery, and almost without accoutrements. The alarm at first was great throughout Pembrokeshire, on the coast of which the landing was made; but the men surrendered on the approach of a very small force, and almost without resistance. On inquiry, it appeared that they consisted of galley-slaves and other criminals from Brest; and the object was supposed to be at once to create an alarm on the British coast, and to rid the French republic of a number of desperate persons.

A more serious cause of alarm soon after occurred. The bank of England discontinued the issuing of specie in its customary payments. A run (to speak in the commercial phraseology) had taken place upon some of the country banks; and the great demand for cash from the bank of England induced the directors to lay the state of their company before the minister; in consequence of which an order of council appeared, prohibiting the issue of cash from the bank.

In the spring, the government received intelligence of an important advantage obtained by the British fleet, under the command of Sir John Jervis, over a Spanish fleet of much superior force, on the 14th of February, off Cape St. Vincent. The English admiral, by a successful manœuvre, separated the rear of the enemy's fleet from the main body, and captured four ships of the line. About the same time, in the western hemisphere, a Spanish squadron was attacked with complete success near Trinidad, and that valuable island was subjected to the dominion of Britain.

The seamen of England, however, who had so long constituted the defence and glory of the nation, seemed suddenly to aim at its overthrow. In April, a most alarming mutiny broke out in the grand fleet at Spithead, under the command of Lord Bridport. The sailors required an increase of their pay, and new regulations relative to the allowance of provisions. They appointed delegates, two for each ship, who, for several days, had the command of the whole fleet. In this critical situation, government deemed it most expedient to promise a full compliance with all their *demands*; on which they cheerfully returned to

their duty. But, no act of indemnity being offered for the security of those concerned in the mutiny, they again rose, and deprived their officers of their authority; and the dispute seemed to wear a more gloomy aspect than before. A bill, securing to the seamen what had been promised, was therefore hastily passed through both Houses. The delegates then declared themselves satisfied, and harmony and good order were restored. Discontent, however, arose in other parts of the navy; and, soon after, the seamen of some ships lying at Sheerness began to behave riotously; and, so contagious was the spirit of insurrection, that almost all the ships at Yarmouth appointed delegates, and sailed away to the Nore, to join the mutineers. New grievances were required to be redressed, and new and extravagant demands to be complied with. The ministers were now convinced that to yield would only be to encourage a repetition of similar conduct; and every disposition was therefore made to force these ships to submission. All communication was cut off between them and the shore. The malcontents, to supply themselves with provisions and water, detained all vessels coming up the river, and took out of them whatever they chose; for which their delegates gave drafts on the treasury, as taken for the use of the navy of England. At length, being reduced to great want of water, several ships left the mutinous fleet, and surrendered themselves at Sheerness. Some of these were fired upon by the others; but at length they all came in, and gave up their delegates, who, with other mutineers, were tried by a court-martial. Several offenders suffered death; some were sentenced to different punishments, and many were pardoned. Richard Parker, who had acted as commander of the fleet while in a state of mutiny, displayed great presence of mind, and submitted to his fate with the utmost firmness and fortitude.

As if to erase this stain from the annals of the British navy, the fleet of Admiral Duncan, consisting principally of the ships which had been engaged in this unhappy and disgraceful mutiny, sailed soon after to watch the motions of the Dutch fleet in the Texel, which it for some time held blockaded. On its venturing out, an engagement ensued, on the 11th of October, near Camperdown; and the British fleet obtained a complete victory, taking nine ships of the line and two frigates.

In the course of the year another attempt was made by the cabinet to procure a pacification; but it failed, in consequence of the enemy's obstinacy and intractability. The French, however, condescended to conclude peace with the emperor; and then, having little employment for their armies, threatened England with an immediate invasion; but this menace was not even attempted to be carried into execution; and the government soon after turned its views toward another quarter of the globe, by fitting *out, at Toulon, a formidable* armament, which, in 1798, sailed for Egypt, under the of Bonaparte, with the view to prepar by the conquest of that country, for on the British settlements in India seized upon Malta in their way, the rived at Alexandria, and soon gained of Cairo, while their fleet remained coast. Sir Horatio Nelson, after a search, perceived, with joy, 13 ships in the bay of Aboukir. If he had not c a corresponding number, he would equally ready to attack the enemy. the flag-ship of Brueys, the Frenc carried 120 guns, and above 1000 men 80 guns each, and nine had 74. They up near the shore in a strong and co of battle, flanked by four frigates gun-boats, and protected on one flan tery planted on a small island. Thei therefore, was extremely advantage fence: but the great danger of an not deter the British admiral from attempt. He was desirous of turni of the French, and surrounding a fleet; and he ably executed his pu sunset, on the 1st of August, the e commenced; and both parties fough utmost fury. While the victory was cided, M. Brueys received two wo having changed his situation, was deprived of life by a cannon-shot. action had continued for two hours, French ships were captured; a th soon after; and the whole van was in of the English, who eagerly procee completion of their victory. In the fire was observed in L'Orient, which with great rapidity, till she blew dreadful explosion. After this awful engagement was prosecuted at int daybreak; and only two of the Fr of the line, and two frigates, escap or destruction. Nine sail of the taken, and one, beside L'Orient, w her own captain setting fire to her.

In the ensuing autumn, Sir Joh Warren attacked, off the coast of French squadron, consisting of one line and eight frigates, with troops The whole squadron, two frigates fell into the hands of the assailants.

In the Mediterranean, also, suc upon the British arms; for the Ciudadella, and the island of Min surrendered to General Stuart and C Duckworth; an acquisition which without the loss of a man.

The most important expedition by Great Britain, in 1799, was that w at the rescue of Holland from the Fr The first division of the armament, Ralph Abercrombie, landed near t the summer in North Holland, a spirited conflict, repelled a stron French and Dutch. The enemy then the batteries and works of the Hel

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on the 19th of September, an en-
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The enemy had received a great
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ring at the same time prosecuted the
rent success in Germany, where he had made himself master of the capital and the greater part of Bavaria, the Austrian government thought it advisable to consent to a truce likewise in that quarter, and propositions were made for peace. Preliminaries were signed; but, some delay occurring in their ratification, hostilities recommenced, and Moreau gained the decisive battle of Hohenlinden; after which the negotiations were renewed, and a peace between France and Austria was concluded at Luneville, in 1801.

In the mean time, a serious dispute had occurred between Great Britain and the northern powers, relative to the claims of neutrals. The emperor of Russia, so lately the determined foe of France, had now become her ally, and the enemy of England, and had incited and supported this coalition of the maritime powers of the north against the naval superiority of Britain. To suppress this dangerous combination, an armament was fitted out in the British ports, under the command of Sir Hyde Parker. This fleet triumphantly passed the Sound, and soon reached the capital of Denmark. The Danes had made very formidable dispositions. Before the city were stationed many ships of the line, galleys, fire-ships, and gun-boats. These were flanked and supported by extensive batteries, on the two islands called the Crowns, the largest of which mounted from 50 to 70 pieces of cannon. The attack was made on the 2nd of April, by a division of the English fleet under Lord Nelson, consisting of 12 ships of the line and 4 frigates; and it was attended with complete success. The Danes lost 17 vessels, among which were 7 ships of the line, fitted up for that particular occasion. Lord Nelson proceeded to approach Copenhagen, into which some bombs were thrown; but an attack on the city was prevented by a flag of truce; and an armistice was soon after concluded with Sir Hyde Parker, by the Danish court.

The death of the emperor Paul facilitated the settlement of these disputes; and a convention was signed, by which the right of search, even under a convoy, was allowed. Before this agreement was adjusted, the administration of Mr. Pitt, which had continued seventeen years, was unexpectedly terminated by his resignation, which was immediately followed by that of Mr. Dundas, and of other members of the cabinet. By some it was alleged, that the difficult and dangerous circumstances in which the country was placed had induced him to abandon the reins of government, which he found he could no longer guide with success; while others, with more reason, asserted that a difference in the cabinet, relative to the fulfilment of the promise of emancipation, made to the Catholics of Ireland when the measure of the union was carried, was the real and sole cause of his retreat. He was succeeded by Mr. Addington; while Lord Hawkesbury, as one of the secretaries of state, assumed the management of foreign affairs.

By the dissolution of the northern confederacy, one obstacle to the peace between Great Britain and the French republic was happily removed; as was another, soon after, by the complete conquest of Egypt from the French, by General Hutchinson; Abercromby, who originally had the command of that expedition, having unfortunately but gloriously fallen in the battle of Alexandria. The ministry therefore entered seriously into negotiations with the French government. Preliminaries were adjusted at London; and, after farther negotiations, the definitive treaty was signed at Amiens on the 27th of March, 1802.

By this treaty Great Britain agreed to restore all her conquests, except the island of Trinidad and the Dutch possessions in Ceylon. The Cape of Good Hope was to remain a free port to all the contracting parties, who were to enjoy the same advantages. Malta was to be evacuated by the British troops, and restored to the order of St. John of Jerusalem, under the guaranty of the principal powers of Europe. Egypt was to be restored to the Porte; the territory of Portugal was to be maintained in its integrity; the French troops were to evacuate the territories of Rome and Naples; and the Ionian republic was recognized by France.

But the restless and insatiable ambition of the French government did not suffer this treaty long to remain inviolate. It affected to treat Great Britain as compelled by necessity to conclude peace, and incapable of resisting the encroachments of France, unsupported by foreign allies. But the principal subject of dispute was the island of Malta, which the king refused to evacuate without the guaranties for which he had stipulated in the treaty of Amiens. At length, after a protracted negotiation, in the course of which the first consul expressed himself with petulance and insolence, descending even, in a conference with the English ambassador, to the contemptible threat of invasion, a message from the throne was sent to the House of Commons, in 1803, stating, that the conduct of the French government had obliged his majesty to recall his representative from Paris.

The war being thus renewed, the most active preparations were made for prosecuting it with vigour. A warm impress was carried on in every port, and an act passed for raising an army of reserve, which added 30,000 men to the regular force. A bill was also enacted, enabling his majesty to call out the whole mass of the people fit to bear arms, in different classes, and to put a certain proportion of them into immediate training. This measure was, however, rendered unnecessary by the spontaneous zeal of the nation. In some cases, the wish of the government was anticipated, and volunteer associations were formed even before they knew that their services would be accepted. *Loyal meetings* were called in London and in *all the great towns, which* terminated, not in mere verbal declarations, but in substantial aid to the government. On the part of the enemy great preparations were likewise made, especially at Boulogne. Troops were stationed near the coast, to an extraordinary amount; and vessels of a particular description, calculated to cross the Channel with ease, were constructed, not only in the ports, but in the navigable rivers of France and the Netherlands.

An act of treachery disgraced the French government at the commencement of hostilities. A number of English gentlemen and others, who had visited France from motives of curiosity, were inhospitably seized, and committed to custody as prisoners of war. Such an act was as impolitic as base, since the French government could derive no advantage from it.

Success attended the maritime expeditions of the English. They took St. Lucia, Tobago, St. Pierre, and Miquelon; and, as war was also declared against the Dutch, because they were under the control of France, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice, were subjected to British sway. On the other hand, the French, not being fully prepared for the invasion of our island, rushed into the Hanoverian territories, and reduced them under the yoke of the first consul, who, though he might easily have distinguished the feeble German elector from the powerful British monarch, assailed both characters with the same hostility.

In the beginning of the year 1804, it was evident that a strong party was forming itself against Mr. Addington. The general measures of government were described as bearing such a character of indecision, that the first lord of the treasury and his chief associates were supposed no longer to enjoy that degree of public confidence, without which no administration can maintain its ground. On various occasions the majorities of the court, in both Houses, were very inconsiderable; and the opposition, consisting principally of Mr. Fox, Lord Grenville, and Mr. Windham, derived strength from the accession of Mr. Pitt's powerful talents. Mr. Addington therefore retired from the helm, and Mr. Pitt again became prime minister; but Lord Grenville was not one of his colleagues, as it was understood that he would not come in without Mr. Fox, with whom he had formed certain engagements, and who was said to be peremptorily excluded.

The war, in this year, was undistinguished by splendid operations; but the colony of Surinam was wrested from the Hollanders, and Goree was recovered soon after the French had taken possession of it.

As the Spanish government had become entirely subservient to that of France, which derived from it considerable pecuniary supplies, the English cabinet deemed it justifiable to seize any treasure, which would certainly be employed to strengthen the hands of the enemy; and, as four Spanish frigates richly

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with the greatest gallantry; but the attack was irresistible, and a great and glorious victory was its reward. About three in the afternoon, ten sail of the line, joining the enemy's frigates to leeward, bore away to Cadiz. Five more of the headmost ships in the van tacked and stood to the southward, to windward of the British line. They were engaged, and the sternmost taken; the four others sailed off, leaving 19 ships of the line in the hands of the conquerors.

This victory was glorious, but it was dearly purchased. Lord Nelson was struck on his left shoulder by a ball, which penetrated into his chest, and in the course of two hours he expired. He lived, however, to know that his triumph was complete, and almost his last words were to thank God he had done his duty. His obsequies were celebrated with extraordinary honours. After lying in state for three days in the great hall at Greenwich, his body was removed to the Admiralty, whence it was conveyed to St. Paul's in a magnificent car, attended by one of the grandest processions that was ever witnessed.

In the autumn of 1805, an expedition under Sir Home Popham and Sir David Blair, was sent against the Cape of Good Hope, which colony surrendered in January, 1806. Buenos Ayres was soon after taken, but was recovered by the Spaniards.

The success of the French arms against Austria and Russia will be described under the head of "France." The disastrous result of the continental coalition, combined with the fatigue and anxiety of his official duties, shortened the life of Mr. Pitt. He died on the 23rd of January.

were too much for his enfeebled frame. In a few months symptoms of dropsy appeared, the disorder rapidly gained ground, and he sank into a state of languor, and expired within a few months after his illustrious rival. Hatred itself can hardly deny him the praise of having been an eloquent senator, an able statesman, and a firm assertor of public freedom. He died on the 13th of September, 1806. Lord Howick succeeded him in the foreign department. George III. had never given this ministry his confidence; and he at length found a pretext for breaking it up. It was thought advisable by the ministers that relief should be given to the Catholics, and they accordingly brought in a bill for that purpose. The cry of "the church is in danger" was immediately raised, and the ministers, who refused to give an unconstitutional pledge, which the king demanded of them, resigned their places. They were succeeded in March, 1807, by a ministry of which the duke of Portland was the nominal head; but of which the leaders were Perceval, Canning, Hawkesbury, and Castlereagh. To Mr. Fox and his colleagues humanity is indebted for the act by which the infamous slave trade was at length abolished.

The leading events of the next year (1807) were the expedition against Copenhagen, which has been already described, under the head of "Denmark," the abortive attempt to detach Turkey from its connexion with France, by forcing the passage of the Dardanelles, and menacing Constantinople, and equally unsuccessful enterprises against Egypt and Buenos Ayres. A new scene opened in the following year, which led to the most important consequences. Spain rose against her oppressor, and formed an alliance with Great Britain, who joyfully came forward to aid her in the struggle. A British army was sent to the peninsula, under Sir Arthur Wellesley; it gained the battle of Vimiera, and liberated Portugal from the French. Towards the close of the year, Sir John Moore, who had assumed the command, marched into Spain, in the hope of saving Madrid; but the overpowering numbers of the enemy compelled him to make a toilsome and disastrous retreat through Galicia. He turned upon the pursuing army at Corunna, and fell gloriously in the moment of victory. His troops embarked without further molestation, and returned to England.

The year 1809 was a stirring period, both abroad and at home. The parliament was long and anxiously employed in debating upon charges of misconduct, as commander-in chief, which were brought against the duke of York. His royal highness was acquitted of personal corruption; but the popular prejudice was so much against him that he found it necessary to resign. Late in the year, the death of the duke of Portland broke up the ministry. The whigs were invited to take office in conjunction with some of their opponents; but they declined, and a ministerial arrangement was formed, of which Mr. Perceval was the head. On the continent the British arm increased its reputation, had the v rulers been equal to the valour of Spain, Sir Arthur Wellesley gaine Talavera, and disconcerted the French generals, but was ultimat to retreat, by the want of reinfo supplies. In the hope of aiding A was then in arms, and of reducing capturing the French fleet, one formidable expeditions that ever lish coast was dispatched to the S mitted to an incapable command possession of Flushing and the i cheren, and there its progress e and weeks were suffered to pass enemy was actively preparing for at length, after having lost sev men by the Walcheren fever, the ment returned to England.

When the parliament re-assemb inquiry was instituted into the W pedition; but so powerful was th the court, that the House of C blushingly refused to stigmatiz scheme itself or the conductors prise. While this inquiry was order to exclude strangers gave c public. A speaker in a debatin tured to condemn it in strong te sent to prison by the offended co conduct was vindicated by Sir Fr and with a freedom of remark still more violent indignation. the House, and denying the leg authority, (as it did not in his opin the people,) the popular baronet in the Tower till the end of the this treatment he did not quietl some lives were lost in the riot on this occasion.

The campaign in the peninsula piece on the part of the British g victory at Talavera had gained h Lord Wellington. Spain was at in a very exhausted state, and h scattered and weakened to act i with his lordship. Napoleon av of this state of things, to endea the British from Portugal. Ma consequence, dispatched, with effect that desirable object. B had foreseen and provided again For months an impregnably fort upon which he might fall back, paring at Torres Vedras, not far Towards that, when the French e gal, he slowly retreated, orderin tants to remove with all their the British lines, leaving a desert He paused, however, on the heigh to retard the march of Massena, a defeat which cost the French m thousand men. Having done tinued his retrograde movement dras. While matters were proce

the south, Great Britain was carrying on a contest in the north, with the king of Denmark and the emperor of Russia; but it was unproductive of any striking events.

Towards the close of this year, the king was again attacked by that mental imbecility under which he had more than once suffered. The inflictions of a disordered mind became more violent when the princess Amelia, his youngest daughter, whose health had long been declining, exhibited symptoms of approaching death. A regency now became necessary; but the ministers contrived to put it off for three months, and then, in the fear that the prince would choose other counsellors, they prevailed on parliament to limit the power of the regent. Though the prince disapproved of the restrictions, he did not call his former friends into the cabinet. He seemed to have fallen into a state of philosophic indifference, and forgotten all distinctions between the friends and the enemies of liberty, the advocates of reform and the partisans of corruption. He quietly suffered Mr. Perceval to guide him, and followed the course which was prescribed by the existing cabinet.

In the progress of the war, the defensive firmness of Lord Wellington exhausted the patience and resources of the French. After having for months remained in the vicinity of Torres Vedras, unable to advance and reluctant to retreat, Massena, whose troops were on the point of famishing, and had been sorely thinned by want, disease, and a harassing warfare with the natives, at length commenced his retreat. He was followed to the frontier by the British army, and, though he displayed infinite skill, his losses were severe. The conflict between the British and French was fiercely renewed in Spain, and the latter were vanquished at Fuentes d'Onoro, Albuera, and Barrosa.

When the restrictions upon the regent's power expired, in 1812, he made an overture to draw Lords Grey and Grenville into the cabinet, but they declined to form a union with the tory part. Mr. Perceval having fallen by the pistol of Bellingham, a man who had evidently been rendered insane by real or imagined injuries, another offer was made to them, and was rejected. The earl of Liverpool was therefore raised to the chief ministerial dignity; and he gratified the public by revoking those orders in council which had for some years checked the freedom of trade, and consequently injured the manufacturing interest.

When Napoleon found, as early as the year 1806, that the French commerce was reduced to a low ebb, while that of Great Britain rapidly increased, he issued a decree from Berlin, prohibiting all intercourse and correspondence with the British dominions, and ordering the seizure of all commodities which had been purchased or procured from our countrymen. As this edict was answered, on the part of our court, by an ordinance requiring all neutrals to stop at some British *port, and pay a duty for* the privilege of proceeding to France, the exasperated ruler of that country declared, that every vessel which should submit to the new demand should be seized and condemned as a lawful prize. The president and congress of the United States, resenting the conduct of both powers, prohibited all mercantile connexions with the subjects of either state; and the effect of this order was severely felt in Great Britain. The rigour of these orders were occasionally softened by the grant of particular licences; yet great discontent prevailed, until they were annulled. The revocation did not so opportunely take place as to prevent an open rupture with the Americans; nor would it, in all probability, have had that conciliatory effect, even if it had not been so long delayed. Mr. Madison was at the head of that party which favoured the French, and had been accustomed to declaim against the selfish spirit of the British traders and the arrogance of the court; and nothing would satisfy his republican animosity, but a trial of military and naval strength with this country. His influence over the congress procured a majority of votes for war; and, in the hope of subduing a considerable portion of Canada, he gave orders for an invasion of that province. Neither the aggressors nor the defenders had a great force; but, as the former took the field with a number which trebled that of their antagonists, the latter had recourse to the savages for aid, and thus procured a supply of resolute warriors, whose hostilities were particularly dreaded by the regular troops of the United States. The battalions which Brigadier Hull led into action, and subsequently another corps, were obliged to surrender themselves to captivity, to avoid destruction. This disgrace could not easily be palliated by the evasive sophistry of the Americans; but they gloried in the capture of some frigates, which, however, were far inferior to the opposing ships, both in the weight of metal and in the complement of men.

The war in Spain assumed a more promising aspect. The important fortresses of Ciudad Rodrigo and Badajos were taken, but not without great loss; and, in the battle of Salamanca, Lord Wellington increased his claims upon the applause and gratitude both of Britain and Spain. Some ill success, indeed, followed; yet the general effect of the campaign was auspicious to the common cause, the whole south of Spain being rescued from the enemy.

The ensuing campaign was more fortunate than it was expected to prove, even by those who reflected, with joyful hope, on the ruin of the mighty force which the infatuated ruler of France had led into the wilds of Russia. A new coalition was formed by the northern emperor and the king of Prussia; and, as it was not sufficiently efficacious in checking the renewed career of Napoleon, the Austrian potentate was induced, by the promise of a British subsidy and the hope of triumph, to *add his force* to the confederacy, which was

also in some degree strengthened by the aid of Sweden. The battle of Leipsic, and other instances of success, nearly ruined the new army, which blindly followed the enemy of the continent; and he was obliged to restrict his efforts to the defence of his own empire. In the meantime, the great champion of Spain, having subdued that jealousy which had weakened the attachment and gratitude of the supreme junta and the people, prepared to make a decisive impression upon the French party in that kingdom. The strength of the enemy's position at Vittoria, rather served to animate than to discourage him. He stormed the adjacent heights, seized every post, and obtained a complete victory. He overran Navarre; drove the dispirited foe to the Pyrenees; and, by invading France, pointed out to the confederates in Germany, the course which they might with little danger pursue.

The prince regent encouraged his allies, by repeated persuasions, and by new pecuniary grants, to act with the utmost vigour. He did not send a large army to join the troops that were preparing, in 1814, for a march to Paris; but he ordered a considerable corps to take a position in the Netherlands. As the chief incidents of the memorable march are noticed in our history of France, it will be sufficient here to observe, that the Austrians and their gallant associates, disregarding the occasional checks which they received from the consummate military skill of Napoleon, boldly advanced to the French capital, and, by carrying the feeble outworks which defended it, alarmed the inhabitants with the dread of pillage and massacre. Having no such intentions, the allied princes granted honourable terms to the capitulating citizens; and, while the conquering troops remained in the neighbourhood, the sovereignty was quietly restored to the House of Bourbon, whose representative hastened from England to secure his legitimate inheritance. Lord Wellington, leaving Bayonne under blockade, had already sent a detachment to the Garonne, and received under his protection the royalists of Bordeaux, and had taken Toulouse, but not without a severe loss; and he was preparing to pursue the routed foe, when the intelligence of the late success at Paris reduced him to a state of inaction.

When the French, by the treaties which their new sovereign signed with the princes who had placed him on the throne, had been obliged to abandon the territorial acquisitions of the revolutionists, and the deposed emperor had been sent to Elba, by the moderation and lenity of his adversaries, the British nation hoped to enjoy some years of peace. The Americans, however, were not yet disposed to relinquish their hostile views. They continued the war with a seeming increase of animosity; and in the excess of that feeling their opponents certainly did not yield to them. Having taken Fort Erie, the republicans defeated a British corps; *but, in the next conflict,* they were disgracefully routed by a force which they greatly ou numbered. In the vicinity of the Potowma the invaders were eminently successful; f they defeated 3000 men at Bladensburg, an captured and ravaged the city of Washingto A pacification was at length concluded, Ghent; but the treaty left the disputed poin unsettled.

While apparent tranquillity prevailed, th escape of Napoleon, in 1815, rekindled th flames of war, as his invasion of France n stored him to that power which he had co stantly used for the most ambitious purpose When a respectable army, composed of Britis and subsidiary troops, had taken positions i the Netherlands, a Prussian host also appeare ready for action and enterprise. Napoleon di not suffer the combined force to remain lon in suspense: he advanced with seeming alacrity and dislodged the troops of Blucher, the Prus sian general, from various posts. A battl ensued near Ligny, in which the French ob tained a victory. An engagement took plac at Quatre Bras, at the same time, to the detri ment of the French, who were repelled wit no small loss by the troops which the duke of Wellington commanded. A conflict of fa greater importance followed. The duke, whos courage was tempered with prudence and judg ment, resolved for the present to stand upon the defensive; and, on the other hand, Napoleo was eager for offensive hostilities. About 85,00 men advanced, on the 18th of June, to attack the British troops, and German and Belgian subsidiaries, whose amount did not exceed 65,000. The duke's positions were not particularly strong; but the zeal and courage of his troops inspired him with confident hopes of repelling every assault. The post of Hougomont, on the British right, was first attacked. Jerome Bonaparte commanded in this part of the field; and he acted with apparent courage, but did not make any permanent impression upon the British defenders. The troops of Brunswick-Wolffenbuttel, eager to avenge the death of their young sovereign, who had fallen in the preceding battle, distinguished themselves by their determined spirit and perseverance, and, with the aid of well-served artillery, thinned the opposing ranks. The centre bodies, at the same time, fiercely combated without any visible advantage on either side. Some of those well-disciplined battalions and squadrons which were included in the British left, displayed remarkable firmness and resolution, more particularly the cavalry, by whom the cuirassiers, pronounced by their enthusiastic countrymen invincible, were repelled with great slaughter. Repeated assaults were made by the French, with that spirit which ever their adversaries admired; but their courage was surpassed by the firmness with which the attacks were sustained. When the battle had raged for six hours, without the decisive preponderance of either army, a Prussian division, commanded by Bulow, approached the

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...alleviated some relief to the middle class, and
liberal subscriptions saved the poor from absolute famine; yet misery long prevailed, and diffused a great degree of discontent. No other than a gradual remedy could be expected for this evil; and the good sense of a great proportion of the people taught them to wait with patience for better times. In the mean while, a new expedition called off the public attention from the anxious observance of individual misery.

It was a prevailing opinion in Europe, that Great Britain, satisfied with the security of her own trade, had no wish to put an end to the piratical practices of the states of Barbary; and, indeed, it could not reasonably be expected that her arms and treasure should be employed for the protection of the subjects of other powers, for which she might meet with no other return than ingratitude. It was the duty of other states to defend their commerce by their own exertions, or to form a grand confederacy for the suppression of a predatory system, the toleration of which was an apparent disgrace to the humanity of Europe. The rash audacity of the pirates at length prompted them to attack even British vessels; but the menaces of Lord Exmouth procured compensation for these outrages. While that commander was engaged in this expedition, the port of Bona, in which the English, by a pecuniary grant, had obtained the freedom of trade and other privileges, became the scene of a horrible massacre, perpetrated by the animosity of the infidels upon the Christians whom they found in the town. Ignorant of these

seven hours, the object of the enterprise was achieved. The batteries were then in a state of dilapidation and ruin; the vessels of war and trade were involved in flames; and the arsenal and store-houses were destroyed. Humbled by these misfortunes, the dey condescended to treat with the British admiral; and it was stipulated that all slaves should be given up without delay, and Christian slavery be abolished in his dominions.

Glory the nation gained by this enterprise; but, as glory could not mitigate the distress of the people, the discontent of many persons broke out, during the ensuing winter, into sedition and riot. A meeting of the populace was called in Spa Fields, by some pretended friends of the poor, and, after a young man named Watson had delivered an inflammatory speech, a considerable number followed him into the city, for the purpose of procuring fire-arms. A stranger was shot, but not mortally, in a gunsmith's shop, by one of the rioters; and, having seized a quantity of arms and ammunition, the mob paraded the streets, attacked the lord mayor and the police at the Royal Exchange, without effect, and were at length dispersed by the opportune arrival of troops. Some of the delinquents were apprehended, and one of them was executed. The young demagogue escaped to North America; but his father, an unemployed apothecary, was sent to prison, and tried for high treason, with some of his supposed accomplices. That they were guilty of sedition was undeniable; but, as the jury acquitted them of the higher crime, they were set at liberty. In various parts of the country, many individuals who had been engaged in commotions, or were suspected of designs hostile to the government, were taken into custody, and, in consequence of the suspension of the *habeas corpus* act, detained for several months in confinement. With disgraceful meanness spies were employed to procure intelligence, under the mask of friendly co-operation, and to betray (if not to instigate to violence) the discontented provincials. The unconstitutional suspension of a protective statute was spiritedly opposed in both Houses, but great majorities were obtained for it, through ministerial influence, and the employment of spies was unblushingly vindicated. It was well urged against the measure, by Sir Samuel Romilly, that the *habeas corpus* act was intended for unquiet times; for, as even arbitrary ministers would not have, in tranquil times, any motive for the long detention of suspected persons without trial, such a statute is not then required; but when commotions, whether slight or dangerous, are apprehended in consequence of a rising spirit of discontent, an abuse of the power of continued imprisonment may be dreaded from the fears or indignation of the court; and therefore, that is the time when the public may wish for the benefit of such an act. Now, however, by the precedents which have been established *since the return* of peace, it may be suspended on every idle pretence or exaggerated alarm.

The continued distress of the manufacturers, in some of the midland counties, produced meetings and combinations, which alarmed the civil power. The most serious disturbance was that which arose in Nottinghamshire, where the malcontents bore the name of Luddites. Jeremiah Brandreth was the leader of a seditious party, which openly professed an intention of reforming the government. He went with other manufacturers to different houses, in June, 1817, demanding arms; and, in one instance, when the answer was a refusal, he brutally fired through a window, and murdered an inoffensive individual. Having augmented his band to more than 100 men, he marched in military order, and spread terror over the country; but, as soon as some dragoons approached, they threw down their arms, and precipitately fled. Thirty-five of the number were apprehended; but the only persons who suffered were Brandreth and two of his most active associates.

As the general distress had only been partially relieved, discontent still prevailed; and, when the prince regent opened a new parliament, in January, 1819, the public anxiety was excited to a high degree. The session, nevertheless, passed over without any disturbance. Meetings of the people were, however, held during the summer, in various parts of the country, at which the government was bitterly censured. One of these meetings gave occasion to a terrible catastrophe. It was held at Manchester, on the 16th of August, and was presided over by Mr. Henry Hunt, who was then in the zenith of his popularity. Not less than 50,000 men, women, and children, were present; but they were unarmed, and gave no indications of any design to disturb the peace. All at once, while Hunt was addressing the multitude, a body of yeomanry cavalry drew their swords, and charged furiously into the throng, slashing and trampling under foot all who came within their reach. As the people were hemmed in within a confined space, and in their terror could with difficulty find egress, the base and cowardly ruffians who attacked them had ample time to gratify their sanguinary propensities. At least between 400 and 500 of their victims were either killed or wounded. On one of the flags which were carried by the crowd was inscribed "No Corn Laws," and this circumstance may perhaps account for the ferocity of the yeomanry: to wish to deprive them of the power of grinding the faces of the poor was doubtless an inexpiable offence. The brutal outrage committed by these pseudo-soldiers was, however, denominated a massacre by the people, and it excited a flame all over the country, which was raised still higher by the thanks of the government being unblushingly transmitted to the yeomanry. This military blow was followed up by a civil one. In the next session, six bills were enacted, for the restriction of all public meetings, the prevention of

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contest in which some lives were lost, they succeeded in accomplishing their object.

The king observed, with an anxious eye, the state of affairs on the continent. He might perhaps wish that Spain, Portugal, and Naples had representative governments; but at all events he did not approve of the mode in which the insurgents of those countries effected their revolutions; nor was he inclined to countenance the Greeks in throwing off the Ottoman yoke. The generality of the people seemed to wish success to the revolutionary party in each of those states; but the government denied or doubted the propriety of interference. The princes of the Holy Alliance, as it was absurdly called, alleged that it was the duty of the British monarch to oppose all such attempts, as the principles on which they invited him to concur with them were perfectly conformable to the treaties which his court had concluded; but this was going too far, and he honourably directed his ambassadors to reply, that the treaties to which they referred imposed on him no such obligations as they pretended.

In the meanwhile, the distress of the agricultural part of the community, which had been allayed for a time, became more severe than ever. Many farms were given up for want of cultivation; many landholders were impoverished by the loss of their rents; and their complaints and remonstrances induced the ministers, in 1822, to make new regulations in the system of the corn laws, which were far more favourable to them than to the public in general, and which, after a lapse of twenty years, were destined to raise a tempest of indignation. In the

tinguished. The result justified the experiment.

The minister who was most active in the business of this session was the marquis of Londonderry, who, though he was an indifferent and often absurd speaker, was no unskilful manager of the House of Commons. Oppressed by the fatigues of public business, he occasionally manifested symptoms of derangement; he lost his recollection, and became feverish and irritable; and, being for a short time left alone, he severed the carotid artery with a penknife. He was succeeded as secretary for foreign affairs by Mr. Canning, whom he had formerly challenged and wounded, for what he considered as an act of insidious rivalry. He had in his youth been a friend of liberty; but being seduced into an opposite course by Mr. Pitt, he was ready to lend himself to every ministerial job, and to promote every encroachment on the rights of the people. His concern in bringing about the union of Ireland was perhaps dictated by a conscientious conviction of the expediency of that measure; but that consideration did not justify the mixture of artifice and violence by which the scheme was effected. It is immoral to accomplish even righteous schemes by improper means.

The deceased minister had been chosen to represent his sovereign at the congress of Verona; but the duke of Wellington did as much at the conferences as the marquis could have done—that is, nothing. The continental princes were not to be dissuaded from their nefarious scheme of violent interference in the affairs of Spain, and the case was left to the prejudiced decision of those unprincipled supporters of the high claims of power. The Russian despot dictated his will, and the servile monarch of France, admitting that he was particularly interested in the event, consented to undertake the base scheme of coercion.

Soon after the prorogation of parliament, the king, who in the preceding year had visited Ireland and Hanover, honoured Scotland with his presence. His reception in that country was less warm than it had been in Ireland, but it was perhaps no less cordial. These visits were doubtless the more agreeable, as the late king had confined his excursions to the narrow limits of England, and George I. and II. had never felt disposed to visit either North Britain or Ireland.

When the king met his parliament, in 1823, he declared that he had used his most anxious endeavours to avert a war between France and Spain; and the prime minister spoke more strongly on the subject, intimating that the proposed attack on an unoffending nation was at once unwise and unjust. The leaders of opposition blamed the court for not supporting its negotiation in this case by a show of force: but the majority, in both Houses, sanctioned the conduct of the ministry. The other business of the session was not particularly important; but it was beneficial in one respect, namely, a diminution of the burdens of the people.

When, in North and South America, all hopes of overcoming the colonists was at last extinguished in the breast of Ferdinand, our court resolved to send consuls to each of the new states; alleging that the only ground of refusing to form such a connexion was removed by the impossibility of restoring the tie between them and the mother country. The Spanish court remonstrated, but without effect, and the holy allies were inexpressibly shocked at this encouragement of rebellion; and still more were they displeased when the commercial agreements were strengthened by more explicit stipulations, and by an open acknowledgment of the independent governments.

By these treaties the British commerce was augmented and obtained additional security. But, at the outset, the benefit was counterbalanced by a disadvantage. Our merchants, in the zeal of overtrading, glutted these and all other foreign markets; and this sanguine spirit, combined with the mania for new joint stock companies, and all sorts of idle and wanton speculation, gradually led to severe distress, which reached its climax in the year 1826. The number of bankruptcies then exceeded all former estimates, and almost every branch of trade suffered a great depression. The liberality of the king was displayed in frequent and considerable donations for the relief of the distressed manufacturers; but the parliament did not deem it expedient to vote the public money on such an occasion. With the usual coldheartedness of statesmen, the ministers urged that such a grant would form a bad precedent, as it would teach the people to rely too confidently upon future grants, and that it would be more advisable to trust to the progress of time, the ordinary course of events, and the exercise of patience—a doctrine which is anything but consolatory to an indigent and miserable population.

In the spring of 1826, after a short but busy session, the parliament dissolved. In the general election, which followed, several severe struggles took place, much bitterness was displayed, and some seats were gained from their opponents by the opposition; but no very material change took place in the composition of the House of Commons. Catholic emancipation and the corn laws were the chief subjects of contention between the rival parties. The new parliament met in November, but did little during the remainder of the year. The manufacturing classes continued to be involved in distress; and a subscription for their relief was ordered to be raised in all the churches.

Early in 1827, the duke of York died. This event was soon followed by another, which brought about a ministerial change. By an apoplectic stroke, the earl of Liverpool was rendered incapable of performing his official duties. In the hope that he might recover, two months elapsed before measures were

ı of a more liberal character, of
ıs the premier, and he likewise ob-
mise of support from the opposi-
of whom subsequently took office.
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Lord Goderich; and some other
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They chose rather to bear the taunts and reproaches heaped upon them, as deserters from their principles, by the ferocious bigotry of their Orange friends. To lessen, however, the danger which they apprehended might arise from their yielding, they resolved to suppress the Catholic Association and to disfranchise the forty-shilling freeholders. The bill for putting down the Catholic Association passed unopposed; but it was rendered unnecessary, for, before it became a law, the Association had dissolved itself. The bill for Catholic emancipation was brought in on the 5th of March, 1829, and gave rise to long and bitter debates, which continued till the 30th, when the bill was carried, in the commons, by 320 votes against 142. A more strenuous resistance was made to it by the lords, but it was eventually carried by 217 against 112, and on the 13th of April it received the royal assent. In the meanwhile the disfranchisement bill, which raised the voting qualification to £10, was proceeded with, and became a law with but little opposition. Among the principal parliamentary business of the session, was the establishment of a new metropolitan police, and a discussion on the silk trade, in which the ministers defeated an attempt to return to the prohibitory system. Throughout the year, the country was much disturbed by riots and commotions, occasioned by distress among the weavers and other manufacturers.

George IV., whose health had long been declining, died on the 26th of June, 1830, of dropsy and disease of the heart, and was succeeded by

parliament, a hostile vote of the commons rendered necessary the resignation of his grace and his colleagues. They left the country in an alarming state to their successors; discontent was general, incendiary fires were common, and the situation of affairs on the continent was gloomy and threatening.

The long excluded whigs were now called to the possession of power. In November, 1830, a ministry was formed, at the head of which was Earl Grey. Its first measure was to bring in a bill for an extensive reform of the parliamentary representation, by extinguishing the rotten boroughs, giving members to large towns, and increasing the number of county members. It was brought into the Commons on the 1st of March, 1831, and the second reading was carried by a majority of one. The purpose of the bill was, however, frustrated by an amendment; and, in consequence, the parliament was immediately dissolved. When the new parliament met, in June, the reform bill was again introduced. After a protracted debate, it was carried in the lower House by a triumphant majority; but, on the second reading, the peers threw it out by a majority of 41, on the 8th of October. A prorogation ensued till December, on the 12th of which month the bill was reintroduced for a third time. It passed the Commons on the 19th of March, 1832, by 355 against 239, and the second reading was carried in the Lords by a majority of 9. The bill now appeared to be safe, but it was not so. Not venturing to throw it out, its opponents had determined to introduce such alterations as should nullify it. Lord Lyndhurst led the way in carrying this scheme into effect. A motion which he made was carried by a majority of 25; and the result was, that the ministers resigned their offices. The king made an ineffectual attempt to form a ministry out of the tory party, and the Grey ministry was consequently restored to power. At length, on the 4th of June, the bill was passed in the Lords, by 106 against 22, the hostile peers having absented themselves from the House; and on the 7th it received the royal assent. Bills of the same tenor, for Ireland and Scotland, were soon after passed; and, on the 3rd of December, the parliament was dissolved.

During the whole of this critical period the public mind was in a state of feverish agitation, such as has seldom been witnessed in this country. Public meetings were held in all quarters, at which the most vehement language was freely used; and, from day to day, the press joined in swelling the cry for reform, and, occasionally, with more zeal than decorum. In some instances, the multitude disgraced the cause by acts of violence. Riots of an alarming nature occurred at Bristol and Nottingham; at the former place great numbers were killed or wounded, fifty houses and public buildings were burned, and property to the amount of *half a million* was destroyed: at Nottingham, *the mob burnt the castle*, the property of the duke of Newcastle, who had excited the rage of the populace by his opposition to the bill; and, still more, by his arrogant declaration, with respect to the votes of his tenants at Newark, that he "had a right to do what he liked with his own." In the midst of these tumults, England was visited by the cholera morbus. It first appeared at Sunderland, in November, 1831, reached the metropolis in the following February, and continued its ravages till autumn, by which time nearly 30,000 persons in the kingdom had become its victims. It then ceased. In the course of this year, the safety of the king was endangered; while he was at Ascot races, a discharged Greenwich pensioner threw a stone, which struck him on the forehead, but, happily, without doing serious injury. The offender was sentenced to death, but his life was spared by the king.

The reformed parliament met, for the first time, on the 23rd of January, 1833, and it displayed throughout the session a degree of ability and vigour which was highly satisfactory. On an average it sat nine hours daily, for 142 days, and some of the laws which it passed were of the utmost importance. Among them were acts for reducing the number of Irish bishoprics, and abolishing the vestry cess, and making other ameliorations in the Irish church; for reforming the Scotch municipal bodies; for abolishing slavery, and giving a compensation of £20,000,000 to the planters; for improving the government of India, and throwing open the trade to China; for renewing the Bank charter, and curtailing some of its privileges; and for amending a variety of laws. Several taxes were also repealed or reduced.

The recent reforms, when first brought forward, had surpassed even the hopes of the reformers; but a craving soon began to be felt, and clamorously expressed, for more. The ministers, however, were wisely of opinion, that such headlong haste in making extensive changes was fraught with danger, and consequently they were not disposed to comply with the demands which were made upon them, for an instant sweeping away of everything that was denounced as an abuse. Their prudence brought on them the hostility of many who had hitherto been their energetic supporters. The radicals began to hate them for doing too little; the tories already hated them for having done so much. Even in the ministry there were individuals who thought their colleagues were going too far; and this at length produced a schism. On the question of whether an expected surplus of Irish church revenue should be appropriated to secular purposes, Mr. Stanley, Sir James Graham, the earl of Ripon, and the duke of Richmond, who were hostile to it, seceded from the cabinet. A more important change took place soon after. Earl Grey had for some time been desirous of retiring from public life, and in July, 1834, he carried his purpose into effect. He was succeeded, as premier, by Viscount Melbourne. The princi-

tive measures of this session were
abument of a central criminal court
repolis, to accelerate and amend the
tion of justice; and the establish-
new system of poor laws. Taxes to
rable amount were also repealed.
t was prorogued in August; and, on
f October, the venerable pile, in
two Houses had for centuries held
ıgs, was consumed by a fire which
oned by negligence.
: 1834 was near upon its close when
was astonished by the abrupt dis-
he Melbourne ministry. In Novem-
Althorpe being called to the House
m the death of his father, Viscount
waited on the king, to propose Lord
ell as his lordship's successor. To the
astonishment, the monarch informed
he considered the ministry as dis-
l that he should intrust the formation
r to the duke of Wellington. Some
cruples about touching church pro-
supposed to have actuated his ma-
is also believed, and with apparent
have been urged on by female in-

considerable delay, occasioned by
t Peel being in Italy, a cabinet was
t the head of which he was placed.
election having taken place, the new
t met on the 9th of February, 1835.
came evident that the new ministry
estined to be long-lived. At the very
was defeated on the question of
speaker. After having been repeat-
l in the House of Commons, it re-
the 8th of April, and the Melbourne
resumed the government. During
on the English municipal corpora-
e reformed, a check was given to
dges, the mode of manning the navy
iorated, and various other beneficial
enacted.
r 1836 was marked by an unusual de-
anquillity and prosperity. Even Ire-
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ad, though some complaints were
a the agricultural interest, commerce

a premature termination. That event was the decease of his majesty William IV., who died in his 73rd year, of internal decay. He was succeeded by his niece, the princess Victoria, daughter of the duke of Kent; and writs were issued for a general election.

The first session of the new parliament was opened on the 20th of November; but nothing of importance was done before the Christmas recess. The Houses resumed their sittings in January, 1838, and the work of legislation proceeded. The most prominent enactments of the session were those for establishing a poor law in Ireland, and for abolishing tithe compositions in that country, and substituting a rent-charge in the place of them. The Irish corporations bill was again lost, through the pertinacious resistance of the lords. On the 10th of January, in this year, the Royal Exchange of London was burned to the ground. Canada, in 1837 and 1838, was disturbed by treasonable attempts to overturn the government. Insurrections broke out in both provinces; but, after several skirmishes, in which the rebels were defeated, tranquillity was restored. The two provinces have since been united into one, and arrangements made for the removal of all real grievances. The insurgents having been aided by some of the frontier Americans, the loyalists passed over to the American shore, and burnt a steam-boat which was employed in carrying supplies to the rebels. This circumstance excited violent indignation in America, and had nearly produced a war. There was already a cause of quarrel between the countries, arising out of the unsettled state of the north-east boundary line between the British and American territories. It is still a subject of dispute, and may eventually lead to hostilities.

A hurricane, which devastated many parts of England and Ireland, and wrecked numerous vessels, marked the first week of the year 1839. The parliament was opened early in February; and in the course of the session it passed several valuable acts, among which may be numbered those for improving the metropolitan police, regulating the metropolitan police courts, and, above all, reducing the rate of

his accomplices were subsequently transported for life. A plot of the Chartists to set fire to Sheffield was also frustrated. Abroad, the country was engaged in warfare, at once in Afghanistan and China. The sovereign of Afghanistan having engaged in intrigues against us, it was resolved to dethrone him, and replace Shah Soojah on the throne. This was accomplished by an army from India, which stormed Ghizni, and other places, and compelled the reigning sovereign to surrender himself into our hands. The war with China was provoked by the violent and insulting conduct of the Chinese emperor. The British army has several times defeated the enemy, and has taken various places, and obliged Canton to ransom itself; but the termination of the contest seems to be yet remote.

The year 1840 was an eventful one. On the 10th of February, her majesty was married to Prince Albert of Saxe Gotha, and, on the 10th of June, while she was riding out with her consort, she was fired at, happily without effect, by a youth named Oxford. He was acquitted, on the charitable supposition that he was insane. Treason was encouraged by the impunity thus granted to it. The queen has since (in 1842) been twice aimed at; once by a caitiff named Francis, and again by another named Bean. Francis was found guilty, but her majesty mercifully mitigated the sentence to transportation for life. The fate of Bean is as yet undecided.

In May, York Minster was, for the second time, greatly injured by fire, and, in September and October, terrible conflagrations occurred in the dock-yards of Devonport and Sheerness. Thoughout the year, war with France seemed to be unavoidable; it was, however, averted. In the autumn, the glory of the British arms was nobly sustained, on the coast of Syria, mainly by the gallant exertions of Commodore Napier, who defeated Ibrahim Pasha, and made Acre surrender, by a bombardment of a few hours' duration. These successes compelled Mehemet Ali to make his submission to the Porte. Foremost in interest among the enactments of this session are the bill for uniting the two Canadas, and establishing a form of government, and that for regulating Irish municipal corporations, with respect to the latter of which, a compromise was at length agreed upon between the two Houses.

The parliamentary business of 1841 was of less moment than in former years. Some improvement was, however, made in the existing laws, particularly in diminishing the number of offences liable to capital punishment, and in effecting a commutation of manorial rights respecting lands of copyhold and customary tenure. In October, the royal armoury, and other buildings in the Tower, with property to the value of nearly £1,000,000 were destroyed by fire. But the most remarkable event was the change which then took place in the ministry. Since 1830, with only one brief interval, the reins of government had been in the hands of the whigs; but, of late years, their majority in parliament had been continually on the decline. A bold attempt to make up for a deficiency in the revenue precipitated their downfall, by arraying against them a variety of powerful interests. Their plan was to effect a radical change in the duties on corn, sugar, and timber. By this measure they brought upon themselves the hostility of the agriculturists, the West India proprietors, and the Canada merchants. They were defeated by a majority of one, and, in consequence, the parliament was dissolved. In the course of the summer a general election took place; and, so active were the tories on this occasion, that, when the new parliament met, a vote of want of confidence in the ministers was carried by a large majority. The ministers of course resigned; and, in September, they were succeeded by their opponents; Sir Robert Peel and the duke of Wellington being placed at the head of a tory cabinet.

Victoria I., daughter of the duke of Kent, was born May 24, 1819; and married, February 10, 1840, prince Albert Francis of Saxe Coburg Gotha, by whom she has issue:—1. Victoria Adelaide, princess royal, born November 21, 1840. 2. Albert Edward, prince of Wales, born November 9, 1841.

WALES.

The Welsh are supposed to be the descendants of the Cymraig Gauls, who made a settlement in England before the first descent of Julius Cæsar.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Breadth, 60	between	51. 25. and 52. 25. N. lat.
Length, 170		2. 41. and 5. 20. W. long.

Wales contains 8125 square miles, with more *than 112 inhabitants* to each.

Boundaries—Divisions.—Wales was formerly of greater extent than it is at present; but, after the Saxons had made themselves masters of the southern and midland parts of England, the Welsh, or the descendants of the ancient Britons, were obliged gradually to retreat to the westward. It does not, however, appear that the Saxons ever made any farther conquests in their country than Monmouthshire and Herefordshire, which are now reckoned

parts of England. Wales is divided into twelve counties: those of Montgomery, Merioneth, Denbigh, Caernarvon, Flint, and Anglesey, form the northern division; while the southern portion comprehends the shires of Glamorgan, Caermarthen, Pembroke, Cardigan, Radnor, and Brecknock.

Mountains — Lakes — Rivers. — Wales abounds in mountains, especially in the northern part; and the loftiest peaks in the latter division are situated in two counties. In Caernarvonshire, Snowdon, the king of the Welsh mountains, is 3571 feet above the level of the sea; Carnedd Llewellyn, 3469; and Carnedd David, 3427. In Merionethshire, Arran Fowddy is 2855; Cader Idris, 2944; Arrenaig, 2809; and Cader Berwyn, 2563. Plynlimmon, in Montgomeryshire, rises to a height of 2463 feet. The rest of the Welsh mountains are of inferior altitude. The mountainous nature of the country greatly assisted the natives in withstanding the assaults of the Romans, Saxons, and Normans.

The ascent of Snowdon is toilsome and terrific. After passing over craggy rocks, the traveller reaches a verdant expanse; and he then labours up another series of crags. The mountain seems propped up by four vast buttresses, between which are deep hollows, having one or more lakes lodged in them. It is bicapitated; the higher head rises almost to a point; the other appears with serrated tops. Cader-Idris, which seems to have been volcanic, is steep and craggy on every side; and the southern descent is nearly perpendicular. Of these two mountains, the chief rocky ingredients are granite and porphyry. Plynlimmon is also a considerable mountain, dignified by the rise of some fine rivers, among which are the Severn and the Wye.

The Welsh lakes are very numerous; but they are in general small and unimportant. That of Bala, called Llyn-Tegid, is about four miles in length, and less than a mile in breadth. Its greatest depth is forty feet. The Dee, with little probability, is said to pass through it without a communication of water. Llyn-Savathan, in the shire of Brecknock, is famous for the multitude of its fish.

A considerable number of rivers diffuse over the principality their fertilizing streams. The Severn rises in a chalybeate spring, on the eastern side of Plynlimmon, becomes navigable near Welsh Pool, passes through several English counties, and at length contributes to the formation of the Bristol Channel. On the southern side of the same mountain the Wye starts into existence, and, after a devious course, falls into the Severn below Chepstow. The Dee is formed by the junction of two small streams in Merionethshire, and is enlarged into an estuary below Chester. A picturesque vale in Denbighshire derives its appellation from the Clwyd; the rapid Conway flows through a beautiful vale, and is navigable from Trefriew to the Irish Sea; *the Ttyy and the Towy are also not* undistinguished among the rivers of this interesting country.

Many canals were formed in Wales during the reign of George III. Some of them occasionally pass under the highlands through tunnels; and one, the Ellesmere, is carried over the Dee at Pont-Cysaylte, between Llangollen and Chirk, by an aqueduct composed of plates of cast iron, supported upon stone pillars, some of which are 125 feet in height.

Metals—Minerals.—Wales contains many quarries of freestone, marble, and slate, several mines of lead and iron, and abundance of coal-pits. The Parys mountain, in Anglesey, is a rich mine of copper, not found in veins, but in a prodigious mass, which is worked in the manner of a quarry. Vast excavations have been made, some of them 300 feet deep, and several yards square, in the midway of which, men hung on slings, suspended from elastic scaffolds, work in removing the ore. This valuable mine was discovered in 1768, and it is now nearly exhausted. At Llanberris, and near Pont-Aberglaslyn, mines of copper have been found, the ore of which is superior in quality to that of Anglesey. The mine at Llanvair, and that of Cwmsimlog, contain silver, lead, and quartz.

Climate — Soil. — Generally speaking, the climate of Wales differs not greatly from the parts of England that lie in the same latitude. But, in some points it has the advantage. The southern counties and the coast district, especially Glamorgan and Pembrokeshires, are more favourable to invalids than most other parts of Britain, the temperature being milder, and less subject to sudden variations of heat and cold. The soil of Wales, especially towards the north, is mountainous, but contains rich valleys, which produce crops of wheat, rye, and other corn.

Vegetables—Animals.—In these Wales differs little from England. The horses are smaller, but can endure great fatigue, and are very gentle; the black cattle are small likewise, but afford excellent beef; and the cows are remarkable for yielding large quantities of milk. Great numbers of goats formerly fed on the mountains; but, since so many plantations have been made, they are becoming less common. Of the predatory animals, the martin, the wild cat, the otter, and the fox, are still to be found in Wales, but there are few of the latter. The last wolf in Wales was killed about 1709, in the hills, a price having been set upon his head. Game is plentiful.

Natural Curiosities.—Among the natural curiosities of this country are the following. At a small village called Newton, in Glamorganshire, is a remarkable spring near the sea, which ebbs and flows contrary to the tide. At Holywell, in Flintshire, is St. Winifred's well, at which, according to the legendary tales of the common people, miraculous cures have been performed. The spring boils with great *impetuosity* out of a rock, and is formed into *a beautiful* polygonal well, covered with a rich

arch, supported by pillars; and the roof is exquisitely carved in stone. Over the spring is also a chapel, a neat piece of Gothic architecture, but in a very ruinous state. King James II. paid a visit to the well of St. Winifred, in 1686, and was rewarded for his piety by a present of the very shift in which his great-grandmother, Mary Stuart, lost her head. The spring is supposed to be one of the finest in the British dominions, and is found to throw out about 84 hogsheads of water in a minute, and turns 11 mills in the course of a mile. Near Caermarthen is a fountain, which, like the sea, ebbs and flows twice in 24 hours.

In the year 1694, a singular circumstance occurred, which spread great alarm in the neighbourhood of Harlech. A kind of kindled exhalation came from a sandy marshy tract of land, called Morfa Bychan, across the channel eight miles towards Harlech, and injured much of the country by poisoning the grass in such a manner as to kill the cattle, and firing hay and corn ricks for near a mile from the coast. It is represented to have had the appearance of a weak blue flame, which, by any great noise, such as the firing of guns, or the sounding of horns, was easily extinguished. All the damage was done invariably in the night; and in the course of the winter not less than sixteen hay ricks and two barns were burnt by it. It did not seem to affect anything else, and men could go into it without receiving injury. It prevailed most for the first three weeks, but was observed at intervals for at least eight months.

Population—Inhabitants—Manners and Customs.—The inhabitants of Wales amount, by the census of 1841, to 911,321, of which number Glamorganshire contains nearly a sixth part. The Welsh are, if possible, more jealous of their liberties than the English, and far more irascible; but their anger soon abates, and they are remarkable for their sincerity and fidelity. They are very fond of carrying back their pedigrees to the most remote antiquity; but we have no criterion for the authenticity of their manuscripts, some of which they pretend to be coeval with the beginning of the Christian era. It is, however, certain, that a great part of their history, especially the ecclesiastical, is more ancient, and better attested than that of the Anglo-Saxons. Wales was formerly famous for its bards, particularly Taliessin, who lived about the year 560, and whose works were certainly extant at the time of the Reformation, and clearly evince that Geoffrey of Monmouth was not the inventor of the history which makes the present Welsh the descendants of the ancient Trojans. This poetical genius seems to have inspired the ancient Welsh with an enthusiasm for independence; for which reason Edward I. is said to have perpetrated a general massacre of the bards; an act of inhumanity which was characteristic of that ambitious prince, but which *is not well authenticated.* The Welsh are more an unmixed people than most other nations, and were long remarkable for maintaining the ancient hospitality, and for their adherence to ancient customs and manners. This appeared even among gentlemen of fortune, who in other countries commonly follow the caprices of fashion.

Some of the customs of the Welsh peasants are remarkable. One, which is indeed declining, is rather indelicate. A lover is allowed by the parents of his favourite, or by her master, to converse with her in a bed-chamber, between blankets; and it would perhaps be a libel to affirm that any improper familiarity takes place at these interviews. When a marriage is fixed upon, a friend goes about the neighbourhood as a bidder, and invites the people to bring presents, which are returned on similar occasions. At a funeral, provisions are sometimes given over the body to poor persons of the same sex with the deceased, who are expected to bring herbs and flowers, which are put into the coffin. All who are present then kneel down, and the Lord's Prayer is repeated; and, at every cross-way, in the progress toward the church, the same ceremony is renewed. Flowers are also planted over the grave, and varied in their species according to the age of the defunct.

Credulity and superstition are still parts of the Welsh character. The following proofs, from among many, may suffice. As soon as it is dark on the evening before Michaelmas day, the Welsh kindle great fires near their houses, and generally, where they can have it, on a large stone upon an eminence. These they call *coelcerth*, or bonfires; and Rowlands, in his "Mona," supposes this custom to have originated with the Druids, and to have been intended by them as an offering of thanksgiving for the fruits of the harvest. On Michaelmas eve, several hundreds of these fires may be seen at once, round each of which are numbers of the labouring people, dancing hand in hand, and singing in the most riotous and frantic manner. In many places they retain a custom of throwing stones or nuts into the flame, by which they pretend to foretell the good or bad luck that will attend them in the ensuing year.

On the eve of St. John the Baptist, they fix sprigs of the plant called St. John's wort over their doors, and sometimes over their windows, in order to purify their houses, and by that means drive away all fiends and evil spirits, in the same manner as the Druids were accustomed to do with vervain.

There is an opinion, very commonly received within the diocese of St. David's, Pembrokeshire, that a short time before the death of any person, a light is frequently seen proceeding from the house, and even sometimes from the bed, where the sick person lies, and pursues its way to the church where the corpse is to be interred, precisely in the same track in which the funeral is afterwards to follow. This

illed *cerwyll corph*, or the corpse

owns—Edifices.—Wales contains towns that are remarkable either ness or magnificence. Wrexham, shire, is a well-built town, with a and it is a great mart for flannel. is a considerable and handsome ifully situated on the Menai Strait: l harbour, is frequented as a bathing- exhibits the remains of a stately aich Edward II. was born. Amlwch, r, before the year 1768, was a small ed village; but the discovery of the pper mines in the neighbourhood a considerable town. The best in South Wales, except Swansea, is n; and its inhabitants, with the tion, are the most polished. Swansea of great resort for bathing and for n: it is the most populous town in ing about 16,000 inhabitants. Cardi- riving town, situated in the vicinity ies. Brecknock has manufactures nd hose; and its situation is pic- id romantic. Cardiff has a commo- our, in which various articles of shipped for Bristol. It also sends uantities of iron, which it receives from Merthyr Tydvil, a flourishing ched within our memory by the dis- ines of lead and coal. It is pro- at no distant period, Cardiff will ortant commercial town, in conse- he improvements which have been by the marquis of Bute, who has l a ship canal, and two magnificent largest of which is 1400 yards in

n works, the two most remarkable are the Pont-y-Pridd and Menai he first of these, which is of 140 feet very light and elegant, crosses the in Glamorganshire, and was built y mason named Edwards. It was, rears, the widest stone arch in the s now exceeded by that of Chester, span of 200 feet. The Menai bridge, ses the strait of the same name, ts Anglesey and Caernarvonshire, is work. It is a suspension bridge, y sixteen enormous chains, which ro lofty pyramids, and are bedded at ties in rocky chambers. It is ap- r four lofty stone arches on the d three on the Caernarvonshire side, of 560 feet between the pyramids, ted 500 feet above high-water mark. was commenced in 1819, and com- e years and a half.

E and Manufactures. — The some inland trade, and send to great number of cattle. Swansea rable copper and iron-works, a pot- pe-walks, and employs many ves- xportation *of stone, coal, and other* useful articles. Pembroke also, which enjoys the benefit of the great haven of Milford, carries on a lucrative trade. The vicinity of the royal dock-yard promises also to add to its prosperity. Some branches of the woollen manufacture occupy many of the people in different counties; and the Welsh flannel is preferred to that of England.

Constitution and Government.—Wales was united and incorporated with England in the 27th of Henry VIII.; when, by act of parliament, the government of it was modelled according to the English form, and the inhabitants were admitted to a participation of all the English liberties and privileges, particularly that of sending members to parliament. By the 34th and 35th of the same reign, four circuits were ordained for the administration of justice, each of which was to include three shires. By the 18th of Queen Elizabeth, an assistant was given to each of the former judges.

Religion.—The established religion of Wales is that of the Church of England; but the common people in many places are so tenacious of their ancient customs, that they retain several of the Romish superstitions, and some ancient families among them are still Catholics. The principality also contains a great number of Protestant dissenters.

For Bishopries, *see* England. In former times, Wales contained more bishoprics than it does now; and, about the time of the Norman invasion, the religious foundations in that country far exceeded the wealth of all the other parts of the principality.

Literature, Learning, and Learned Men.—Wales was a seat of learning at a very early period; but it suffered much by the repeated massacres of the bards and clergy. Wickliffism took shelter in Wales, when it was first persecuted in England. The Welsh and Scots dispute about the nativity of some learned men, particularly four of the name of Gildas: but there is no doubt of the Cambrian birth of Giraldus, an ingenious writer, who lived in the time of Henry II.; and Leland mentions many learned men of the same country, who flourished before the Reformation. Since that period, Wales has produced several excellent antiquaries and divines, and other distinguished men; and, notwithstanding all that Dr. Hickes and other antiquaries have said to the contrary, it furnished the Anglo-Saxons with an alphabet, as is clearly demonstrated by Mr. Lhuyd, and confirmed by monumental inscriptions. The history of Henry VIII. written by Lord Herbert of Cherbury, may be mentioned as a valuable production of Welsh literature; but it ought to be observed, that he is grossly partial to the memory of that tyrant. In modern times, the Welsh may boast of the merit of Mr. Pennant, an able and accurate naturalist, and an intelligent and amusing tourist.

Language.—The Welsh have still preserved

their ancient language, which is a branch of the Celtic, though considerably different from the Erse or Irish. The Lord's Prayer, in that dialect, is as follows:—

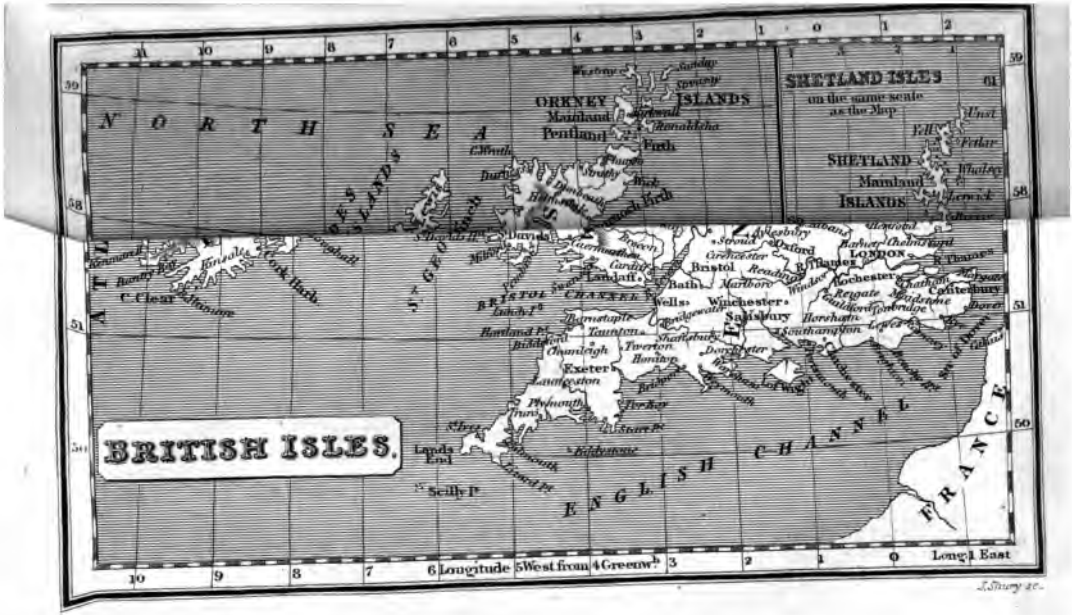
"Ein Tad, yr hwn wyt yn y nefoedd, sanctеidier dy enw: deued dy deyrnas; bydded dy ewyllys ar y ddaear, megis y mae yn y nefoed: dyro in i heddyw ein bara beunyddiol; a maddeu i ni ein dyledion, fel y maddeuwn ni i'n dyledwyr; ac nac arwain ni i brofedigaeth eithr gwared ni rhag drwg: canys eiddot ti yw'r deyrnas, a'r gallu, a'r gogoniant, yn oes oesoedd. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—Wales abounds in remains of antiquity. On Moel Arthur, in Flintshire, and on many other mountains, there are vestiges of British entrenchments. Several of its castles are of large dimensions; and, in some, the remains of Roman architecture are plainly discernible. In Brecknockshire are some rude sculptures, upon a stone six feet high, called the Maiden-stone; but the remains of the Druidical institutions, and places of worship, are chiefly visible in the isle of Anglesey, which was the chief seminary of the Druids. Caerphili Castle in Glamorganshire is said to have been the largest in Great Britain, except Windsor; and the remains of it show that it was a most beautiful fabric. One half of a round tower has fallen quite down, while the other overhangs its basis more than nine feet, and is as great a curiosity as the leaning tower of Pisa in Italy. Conway and Harlech Castles, with several others, are also noble remains of the olden time.

HISTORY.—The ancient history of Wales is uncertain, on account of the number of petty princes who governed it. That they were sovereign and independent, appears from the English history. It was formerly inhabited by the Silures, Dimetæ, and Ordovices, who were never entirely subdued by the Romans, though part of their country was bridled by garrisons; and, during the sway of the Saxons in England, they remained an independent people, governed by their own princes and laws. They made many brave attempts to maintain their liberties against the Norman kings of England. In 1237, the crown of England was first supplied with a pretext for the future conquest of Wales, the old and infirm prince Llewellyn, in order to be safe from the persecutions of his undutiful son Gryffyth, having put himself under the protection of Henry III., to whom he did homage. But no capitulation could satisfy the ambition of Edward I., who resolved to annex Wales to the crown of England; and, as young Llewellyn disdained the idea of subjection, Edward raised an army, with which he penetrated as far as Flint, and, taking possession of the isle of Anglesey, drove the Welsh to the mountains of Snowdon, and obliged them to consent to a tribute. They renounced this disgraceful stipulation, and, in 1282, attacked the fortresses which Edward had erected in their country but their gallant prince was defeated and slain. He was succeeded by his brother David, the last independent prince of Wales, who, falling into Edward's hands through treachery, was by him most barbarously and unjustly hanged; and the king, from that time, pretended that Wales was annexed to the crown of England. It was about this time, probably, that he gave orders for the massacre of the Welsh bards. Perceiving that this cruelty was not sufficient to complete his conquest, he sent his queen, in 1284, to be delivered in Caernarvon Castle, that the Welsh, having a prince born among themselves, might the more readily recognize his authority: this prince was the unhappy Edward II.; and from him the title of prince of Wales descended to the eldest sons of the English kings. The history of Wales and England may from that time be deemed inseparable. We may here observe, that the kings of England found it their interest to soothe the Welsh with particular marks of regard. Their eldest sons not only held their titular dignity, but actually kept a court at Ludlow; and a regular council, with a president, was named by the crown, for the administration of all the affairs of the principality. But, in the reign of Henry VIII., these arrangements were no longer deemed politic or necessary.

ENGLISH ISLES.

THE ISLE OF WIGHT is situate opposite the coast of Hampshire, from which it is separated by a channel called the Solent Sea, varying in breadth from two to seven miles; it is considered as part of the county of Southampton, and is within the diocese of Winchester. Its greatest length, extending from east to west, measures about 23 miles; its breadth, from north to south, above 13. The air is healthy, particularly in the southern parts: the soil is *various; but so great* is its fertility, that it was *many years ago computed*, that more wheat was raised here in one year than could be consumed by the inhabitants in eight; and it is supposed that its present produce, under the great improvement of agriculture, and with the additional quantity of land lately brought into tillage, has more than kept pace with the increase of population. Hills, which afford fine pasture for sheep, extend from east to west, through the middle of the island. The interior parts of the island, as well as its extremities, and along the southern coast, present many beautiful and picturesque prospects, not only


BRITISH ISLES.
SHETLAND ISLES
on the same scale
as the Map
ORKNEY
Mainland
Pentland
ISLANDS
Firth
SHETLAND
Mainland
ISLANDS
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FRANCE
BRISTOL CHANNEL
LONDON
Bristol
Bath
Wells
Winchester
Salisbury
Exeter
Landaff
Cork Harb.
C. Clear
Lands End
Scilly Is
Longitude 5 West from 4 Greenwh
Long. 1 East
J. Shury sc.

in the pastoral but also in the great and romantic style. Of these beauties the gentlemen of the island have availed themselves, as well in the choice of situations for their houses, as in their other improvements. The farm-houses in general are built of stone, and even the cottages are neat and comfortable.

From the purity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the beauty and variety of the landscapes of this island, it has been called, and not undeservedly, the garden of England; it has some very fine gentlemen's seats; and it is often visited by parties of pleasure, on account of its delightful scenes. It is divided into 52 parishes. According to an accurate calculation made in the year 1777, the inhabitants then amounted to 18,024, exclusive of the troops quartered there: in 1821, 31,600 composed the amount; and in 1831 it was 35,431.

Newport stands nearly in the centre of the island, of which it may be considered as the capital. It derives some benefit, in point of trade, from the Medina, which, though not a considerable river, is navigable to the sea at West Cowes. Five of its streets extend from east to west, and are crossed at right angles by three others, which are spacious, clean, and well paved. It has a theatre, a free school, three markets, and a population of about 5000 persons.

Carisbroke Castle, in this island, about a mile from Newport, has been rendered remarkable by the imprisonment of King Charles I. After his decapitation, it was converted into a place of confinement for his children; and his daughter Elizabeth died in it. It stands on an eminence, and occupies nearly 20 acres of ground. There are several other forts of less magnitude on the coast of this island, which were erected about the 36th year of the reign of Henry VIII.

In the English Channel are four islands subject to England: these are Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark; which, though they lie much nearer to the coast of Normandy than to that of England, are within the diocese of Winchester. They lie in a cluster in Mount St. Michael's Bay, between Cape la Hogue, in Normandy, and Cape Frehelle, in Bretagne, and are the only fragments left of our Anglo-Gallic dominions.

JERSEY, anciently CÆSAREA, was known to the Romans, and lies farthest within the bay, 18 miles west of Normandy. The north side is inaccessible, through lofty cliffs; the south is almost level with the water; the higher land, in the midland part, is well planted, and abounds with orchards. The valleys are fruitful and well cultivated, and contain cattle and sheep in abundance. The inhabitants neglect tillage too much, being intent upon the culture of fruit, the prosecution of commerce, and more particularly the manufacture of stockings. The honey in Jersey is remarkably fine; and the island is well supplied with fish and wild fowl of almost *every kind, some of both being peculiar to the spot.*

The island is 12 miles in length, and 7 in breadth; and it is divided into 12 parishes. In Camden's time, it was said, there was here no business for a physician; but, though the air is salubrious, medical advice is occasionally found necessary. The inhabitants, according to the census of 1841, are 47,566 in number. The population has increased 30 per cent. in the course of 10 years. The capital town of St. Helier, or Hilary, has a good harbour, and makes a handsome appearance. It is defended by two strong forts; one of which, Fort Regent, is on the heights above the place, and the other, Fort Elizabeth, on a rock in the bay of St. Helier. The current language is French, with which English words are intermingled. Knit stockings and caps form the staple commodities; but a considerable quantity of agricultural produce, live stock, and oysters, is sent to England; and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in fish with Newfoundland, and dispose of their cargoes in the Mediterranean. The governor is appointed by the crown; but the civil administration rests with a bailiff, assisted by 12 jurats. As this island is the principal remain of the duchy of Normandy depending on the kings of England, it preserves the old feudal forms, and particularly the assembly of states, which is, as it were, a miniature of the British parliament, as settled in the time of Edward I.

GUERNSEY is about 12 miles from south-west to north-east, and 11 where broadest, east and west. It is divided into 10 parishes, which have only 8 churches. Though this is naturally a finer island than that of Jersey, it is less valuable, because it is not so well cultivated nor so populous. Want of fuel is the greatest inconvenience under which both islands labour. The exterior of the farm-houses has an imposing appearance, in point of size and ornament, when compared with the interior, where are found plain walls, an earthen floor, and a supply of kitchen utensils in almost every apartment, while the spacious entrance is usually crowded with barrels of cider, large shining brass kettles, and harness and saddles for horses. The ordinary food of the farmers and peasantry is a kind of soup, made of cabbage, fat, flour, and undried bacon; and this dish, improved with a small portion of beef, is not only the favourite holiday fare, but is also found at the tables of the gentry. In the corner of the dwelling-room is frequently seen the *lit de veille*, a broad bed-frame, raised a foot and a half above the ground, and covered with dry fern, or hay, or pease haum, on which, in the evening, the young people of that and the neighbouring habitations sit in a circle, feet to feet, the girls sewing or knitting, and the young men talking or singing. The administrative convention of Guernsey consists of a governor, coroners, jurats, clergy, and constables. The islanders have commercial concerns with Newfoundland and the Mediterranean. The staple manufacture is knit stock-

ings. The only harbour here is at St. Pierre-le-Port, which is guarded by two forts.

ALDERNEY is about 8 miles in compass, and is separated from Normandy by a strait called the Race, which is a dangerous passage in stormy weather, when the two currents meet; otherwise it is safe, and has depth of water for the largest ships. To the west, extending near three leagues, lie the rocks called the Caskets, among which are several very dangerous whirlpools or eddies. This island is remarkable for a fine breed of cows, and is fertile in grain, much of which is exported to England.

SARK is a dependency upon Guernsey, about 5 miles long, and 3 broad. The natives are long-lived, and enjoy from nature all the conveniences of life; their number is about 300. The inhabitants of the three last-mentioned islands, with the islets of Herm and Jethou, in the aggregate, are returned by the census of 1841, at 28,538. In all the four islands the religion is that of the Church of England.

The SCILLY ISLES are a cluster of 17 dangerous isles, and situated about 30 miles from the Land's End, in Cornwall. Only six of them are of any importance. The inhabitants live by fishing and kelp-making. By the situation of these isles, between the English Channel and that of St. George, they have occasioned the destruction of many ships and lives. Sir Cloudesley Shovel, returning from a fruitless expedition against Toulon, was lost here in October, 1707, with about 900 seamen; and two other ships foundered at the same time. St. Mary's is the largest of these islands, being about 9 miles in circumference, and has a good harbour. The total population of the Scilly Isles is about 3000.

The ISLE OF MAN is in St. George's Channel, almost at an equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. Its population was 41,000 in 1831, and 47,985 in 1841. The Mona mentioned by Tacitus, was not this island, but Anglesey. Mona, indeed, seems to have been a generic name with the ancients for any detached island. The length of Man, from north-east to south-west, is 30 miles: its breadth varies from 8 to 15. The air is wholesome, and the climate nearly the same as that in the north of England. The hilly parts are barren, and the champaign fruitful in wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, hemp, roots, and pulse. Of the mountains, which nearly divide the island, and which both protect and fertilize the valleys, the highest is Sneafell, which rises more than 2000 feet above the sea. The coasts abound with sea-fowl; and the puffins, which breed in rabbit-holes, are almost lumps of fat, and esteemed very delicious. The herring fishery is carried on to a considerable extent. It employs about 250 boats, from 15 to 30 tons burden, and from 40,000 to 50,000 barrels of fish are taken in successful years. Mines of iron, lead, and copper, and quarries of marble and slate, are found in various parts of the island. It contains 17 parishes, and 4 towns on the coast. Castle-town is the seat of its government. Peele flourishes much less than it formerly did. Douglas, though a century ago it consisted of only clay huts, has now the best market and best trade in the island, and is the richest and most populous town, on account of its excellent harbour, and its fine mole. It contains nearly 1000 houses, with a population of more than 7000: the buildings are lofty, but the streets are narrow and close. Ramsay has likewise a considerable commerce, on account of its spacious bay, in which ships may ride safe from all winds except the north-east.

The established religion of Man is that of the Church of England. The bishop of Sodor and Man enjoys all the spiritual rights and pre-eminences of the other bishops, but does not sit in the British House of Peers—his see never having been erected into an English barony. One of the most excellent prelates who ever adorned the episcopal character, was Dr. Thomas Wilson, who presided over the diocese of Man for more than 57 years, and died in 1755, at the age of 91. He was eminently distinguished for his piety, benevolence, and hospitality, and his unremitting attention to the happiness of the people intrusted to his care. He encouraged agriculture, established schools, translated some of his devotional pieces into the Manx language, and founded libraries in every parish. Some of his notions respecting government and church discipline, were not of the most liberal kind: but his failings were so few, and his virtues so numerous and conspicuous, that he was a great blessing to the island, and an ornament to human nature. Cardinal Fleury had so much veneration for his character, that, out of regard to him, he obtained an order from the court of France, that no privateer of that nation should ravage the Isle of Man.

The ecclesiastical government is well maintained in this island, and the livings afford a competent support to those incumbents who are not devoted to luxury. The language is radically Erse, or Irish, with a mixture of other dialects. The natives are inoffensive, charitable, and hospitable. The superior inhabitants live in stone houses, and the poor in thatched huts; and their ordinary bread is made of oatmeal. Their products for exportation consist of wool, hides, and tallow.

This island affords some curiosities which may amuse the antiquary. They consist chiefly of Runic sepulchral inscriptions and monuments, of ancient brass daggers, and other weapons of that metal, and partly of pure gold, which are sometimes dug up, and seem to indicate the splendour of its ancient possessors. In no part of England are these Danish remains so frequent. Some Druidical temples have also been discovered.

With respect to the history of this island, it was the rendezvous of the Scandinavian rovers, and their chief force was here collected; and hence they annoyed the Hebrides, Great Bri-

, and Ireland. The kings of Man are often tioned in history; and, though we have no lar account of their succession, and know w of their names, they undoubtedly were ome ages masters of those seas. About rear 1263, Alexander III. king of Scotland, irited prince, having defeated the Danes, claim to the superiority of Man, and ged the king to acknowledge him as lord mount. It seems to have continued tribu- to the kings of Scotland, till it was re- d by Edward I.; and the English monarchs i that time exercised the superiority over sland; though we find it still possessed by osterity of its Danish princes, in the reign dward III., who dispossessed the last queen ie island, and bestowed it on the earl of sbury. His family honours and estate being ited, Henry IV. bestowed Man, and the onage of the bishopric, first upon the humberland family, and, that being dis- ed, upon Sir John Stanley, whose posterity, earls of Derby, enjoyed it, till, by failure eirs male, it devolved upon the duke of l, who married the sister of the last Lord y. Commercial and fiscal reasons rendered cessary for the crown of Great Britain to hase the regalities and customs of the d from the Athol family; and the bargain completed by the payment of £70,000 to the , in 1765. This agreement was considered, e time, as final; but Mr. Pitt procured from parliament, in 1805, the grant of a large tional sum to the courtly peer, on pretence ie extraordinary increase in the value of sland; and, in 1825, a still larger sum was rted from the country, on the same false ext. The king has now the same rights, ers, and prerogatives, which the duke for- merly enjoyed; but the peer retains his territorial property in the island, and the inhabitants also preserve many of their ancient constitutions and customs.

To the British insular possessions in Europe must be added the island of Helgoland, or Heligoland, which was ceded to England, by Denmark, in 1804. This island (or, more correctly speaking, islands) is situated off the coast of Holstein, and nearly equidistant from the mouths of the Eyder, Elbe, and Weser rivers. Originally, Helgoland was of considerable size; but in the years 800, 1308, 1500, and 1649, parts of it were swept away by the action of the waves. In the portion that was left, a current has, since 1770, cut through a passage, ten fathoms in depth, and thus split it into two islands, Helgoland and Sandy island. The former, which is the inhabited part, and is about three miles in circumference, is distinguished into cliff and low land; the first being a rock of red marl, varying in height from 90 to 170 feet above the sea, and ascended by a flight of 191 steps, which lead to a level plain about 4200 yards in circumference. The low land is an almost uninhabited down, with two good harbours, and, to the east, a roadstead. The inhabitants, who are about 2400 in number, live on the cliff, subsist by fishing and pilotage, and exchange their fish at Cuxhaven and Hamburgh, for such articles as they need. Helgoland was anciently the seat of worship of a Saxon deity. It was taken possession of, in 1807, by the English, and was, for some years, during the war, the great depository of British manufactures, which, from thence, were smuggled into the continental ports. Four batteries and a lighthouse have been erected on the cliff, and the island is occupied by a British garrison.

SCOTLAND.

'LAND was known to the Romans by the e of *Caledonia*; a name, according to some, ed from a Celtic word, signifying forests ountains: or, perhaps, it is related to the *Gael*, by which name the inhabitants of Highlands still call themselves. After the ation of the Roman power, Scotland be- the country of the Picts or Peohts, a y from the south of Norway. At length, e 11th century, the Scoti coming over from nd and establishing themselves in Scot- the name of *Scotia* was transferred to the try.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
th, 278	between	55. and 59. N. lat.
dth, 100		1. and 6. W. long.

aining 27,794 square miles, with more than habitants to each.

UNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.—*Scotland is ded on the south by England; and on the* north, east, and west, by the Deucaledonian, German, and Irish Seas, or more properly the Atlantic Ocean. It is divided into the counties south of the Frith of Forth, and those to the north of the same river. This was the ancient national division; but some modern writers have divided it into Highlands and Lowlands, on account of the different habits, manners, and customs of the inhabitants of each. Eighteen counties, or shires, are allotted to the southern division, and fifteen to the northern; and those counties are subdivided into sheriffdoms, stewartries, and bailiwicks, according to the ancient tenures and privileges of the landholders. The most populous of these counties are those of Lanark, Edinburgh, Aberdeen, Perth, Ayr, Fife, and Forfar; while the most insignificant in point of population are those of Selkirk and Kinross. The western isles are included in *three* counties, the northern parts of the group being assigned to the shire of Ross, the middle

to that of Inverness, and the southern to Argyleshire.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—The appearance of the southern part of Scotland has a great resemblance to that of England; and, with respect both to the general aspect of the country, and to the progress of cultivation, exhibits every kind of rural variety: the northern part is chiefly an assemblage of vast dreary mountains, not, however, without some fertile valleys on the northern and eastern coasts. Argyleshire, the western part of Perthshire, and the counties of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness, are the parts which are usually comprehended under the denomination of Highlands. The nudity of the country in many parts, in consequence of the want of wood, is generally observed by visitants from the south; but the extensive plantations of trees, formed during many years past by the nobility and gentry, must greatly mitigate, and will eventually remove, this defect. Scotland is in general diversified with a pleasing intermixture of natural objects. The vast inequalities of the ground, if unfavourable to the labours of the husbandman, are particularly pleasing to the traveller, and afford those delightful situations for country houses, of which many of the opulent inhabitants have so judiciously availed themselves. It is their situation, more than any expensive magnificence, that renders the seats of the dukes of Argyle and Athol, of the earl of Hopetoun, and many others, so striking.

MOUNTAINS.—The principal mountains in Scotland are the Grampian Hills, which run from east to west, from the vicinity of Aberdeen to Cowal in Argyleshire, almost the whole breadth of the kingdom. The Pentland Hills run through Lothian, and join those of Tweedale. A third chain, called Lammermuir, rises near the eastern coast, and runs westward throughout the Merse. Beside those chains, among which we may reckon the Cheviot or Teviot Hills on the borders of England, Scotland contains many detached mountains, which, from their conical figure, are sometimes called by the Celtic name, *Laws*. A remarkable mountain is Ben Fouaish, in the east part of Ross-shire. It rises nearly in the form of a rick of hay to the height of 4200 feet, and ends in a flat summit or plain, three miles long, and half a mile broad. Ben Nevis, near Fort William, is reported to be the highest mountain in Britain, being 4368 feet above the level of the sea. Its summit is usually covered with snow. Ben Lawers, in Perthshire, has an altitude of 4015 feet, and Ben Mac Dhu, the highest of the Cairngorm mountains, rises to the height of 4306 feet, and generally has a snowy top.

FORESTS.—The face of Scotland, even where it is most uninviting, presents us with the most incontrovertible evidences of its having formerly abounded with timber. The deepest mosses, or morasses, contain large logs of *wood; and their waters*, being impregnated *with turpentine, have an* antiseptic quality. The Sylva Caledonia, or Caledonian fores supposed to have been Ettrick Forest which name the whole county of Selkirk formerly called. Several parts of Scotlan still denominated forests; as Abernethy Fo Parff, Reay, and Broachilitve. Fir-trees in perfection almost all over Scotland, form beautiful plantations. The Scottis is excellent in the Highlands, where woods reach 20 or 30 miles in length, and 5 in breadth.

LAKES.—The lochs or lakes of Scotlan too numerous to be particularly descr Loch Tay, Loch Lomond, Loch Ness, Awe, and one or two more, display such turesque scenes as are scarcely equalled i other country of Europe. Several of t lakes are beautifully fringed with woods, contain great quantities of fresh-water The Scots sometimes give the name of lo an arm of the sea; for example, Loch which is 60 miles long, and 4 broad, a famous for its excellent herrings. The lo Spinie, near Elgin, is remarkable for s which are tempted, as some think, by attractions of the plant *oloring*. Near Ness is a high hill, on the top of which lake of cold fresh water about 30 fathom length, so deep that it has not yet fathomed, and which never freezes: whe only 17 miles from it, the lake Loch An or Green Lake, is constantly covered with The ancient province of Lochaber rec that name from being the mouth of the l The coasts of Scotland are in many part dented with large, bold, navigable bays, or of the sea, as the bays of Glenluce and ton; sometimes they are called *friths*, a Solway Frith, which separates Scotland England on the west, the friths of F Moray, Cromartie, and Dornoch.

RIVERS.—The largest river in Scotla the Forth, which rises in the southern p Perthshire, and, passing by Stirling, af number of beautiful meanders, discharges near Edinburgh into an arm of the Ge Sea. Second to the Forth is the Tay, issues out of Loch Tay, and, running t south-east, passes the town of Perth, and into the sea at Dundee. The Spey, the rapid river in Scotland, issues from a l the same name in Badenoch, and, ru from south-west to north-east, falls int sea near Elgin; while the rivers Dee and which run from west to east, disemb themselves at Aberdeen. The Tweed ris the borders of Lanarkshire; and, after windings, it discharges itself into th at Berwick, serving as a boundary bet Scotland and England, on the eastern The Clyde is a large river on the west of land, has its rise in Annandale, runs t north-west, and, after passing by La Hamilton, Glasgow, Renfrew, Dumbarton Greenock, falls into the frith of Clyde, site to the isle of Bute. Besides these

cotland contains many of infe-
ch equally enrich and beautify
Several of those rivers have the
which is an old Celtic word for

Railways.—A canal, forming a
en the rivers Forth and Clyde,
1768, and finished in 1790. It is
ier than any English canal. Its
iles; and, in the course of the
vessels are raised, by means of 20
eight of 155 feet above the level
oceeding on the summit of the
3 miles, it then descends by 19
the Clyde. It is carried over 36
lets, and two great roads, by 38
ewn stone. By one of these, 400
it passes the Kelvin, near Glas-
ght of 70 feet above the bed of the
lley below. It crosses the great
inburgh to Glasgow, by a fine
e; and is carried over the water
other aqueduct bridge, the arch
) feet broad. The great utility
unication between the eastern
as, to the trade of Great Britain
must be evident, from the consi-
t shortens the distance between
shortest passage, that of the
, near 600 miles.
at work of this kind is styled the
nal, which connects the central
and, and forms a communication
ast and west seas. Among the
ns connected with this canal, it
necessary to form new courses
Spean and Ness, that the canal
the old bed of each river; and,
proceeded, some lakes were
as to form a useful part of the
cks are on a stupendous scale.
of this undertaking was enor-
wever, as it was defrayed by par-
not seriously felt; but the canal
productive of all the advantages
pected from it, and now stands
pensive repairs. In Scotland
ut 20 railways, the principal of
e Edinburgh and Glasgow, and
nd Ayr.

Minerals.—Though Scotland
resent boast of its gold mines,
ly afforded a considerable quan-
letal for its coinage. James V.
r contracted with certain Ger-
rking the mines of Crawford-
when the former married the
daughter, a number of covered
vith coins of Scottish gold, were
the guests by way of dessert.
s and troubles which followed,
ighter, in the minority of his
ve those foreigners from their
since that time have not been
me small pieces of gold have
those *parts, washed down by the* floods. It likewise appears by the public records, that the beautiful coins of James V., called bonnet pieces, were fabricated of gold found in Scotland. Public records prove that in one year coin to the amount of £48,000 was issued from the mint in Scottish gold.

The lead-mines of Scotland are very productive and profitable, and contain considerable quantities of silver; but there are no silver-mines that are worked at present. Some copper-mines have been found near Edinburgh, and in some other places; and many parts of Scotland, in the east, west, and northern counties, produce excellent coal of various kinds, large quantities of which are exported. Limestone is found here in great plenty, as are also freestone and several kinds of marble.

Lapis lazuli is dug up in Lanarkshire; alum mines have been found in Banffshire; crystal, variegated pebbles, and other transparent stones, which admit the finest pólish for seals, are found in various parts; as are tale, potter's clay, and fuller's earth. The new earth of the modern mineralogists and chemists, called strontian, is found in Argyleshire. No country produces a greater plenty of iron ore, both in mines and stones, than Scotland; from which the proprietors derive great profits in their founderies, as at Carron, and other metalline manufactures.

Climate, Soil, and Agriculture.—The air of Scotland is more temperate than could be expected in so northerly a climate. This arises partly from the variety of its hills, valleys, rivers, and lakes; but still more, as in England, from the vicinity of the sea, which affords those warm breezes, that not only soften the natural keenness of the air, but, by keeping it in perpetual agitation, render it pure and healthful, and prevent epidemic distempers. In the neighbourhood of some high mountains, however, the air is keen and piercing for about nine months in the year. The soil in general is not so fertile as that of England; and, in many places, it is less fitted for agriculture than for pasture. At the same time, there are particular plains and valleys of the most luxuriant fertility; though experience has proved, that many vegetables and hortulan productions do not come so soon to maturity in Scotland as in England.

The soil may be rendered, in many parts, nearly as fruitful as that of England. It is even said that some parts of the Lowlands exceed in value English estates of the same extent, because they are less exhausted than those of the southern parts of the island: and agriculture is now as well understood, both in theory and practice, among many of the Scottish landlords and farmers, as it is in any part of Europe.

Vegetables.—Scotland in general produces wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hay, and pasture. In the southern counties the finest garden fruits, particularly apricots, nectarines,

and peaches, are little, if at all, inferior to those of England; and the same may be said of the common fruits. The uncultivated parts of the Highlands abound in various kinds of salubrious and pleasant-tasted berries, though it must be owned that many extensive tracts are covered with a strong heath. The coast produces the *alga marina*, and other weeds or plants, which are eaten for nourishment or pleasure, or converted into the alkaline salt called kelp.

ANIMALS.—This country contains few or no kinds either of wild or domestic animals that are not common to its neighbours. Wolves were not extirpated before the year 1680, and the wild cats have not yet disappeared. The red deer and roebuck are found in the Highlands; but their flesh is not comparable to English venison. Hares are much more abundant than deer. The heathcock, a most delicious bird, the capperkaily, and the ptarmigan, are also found by the sportsmen; but these birds are scarce even in the Highlands, and, when discovered, are very shy. Eagles and beautiful falcons are not unfrequent here, and the shores abound in various kinds of sea-fowl. The numbers of black cattle that cover the hills toward the Highlands, and sheep that are fed upon the beautiful mountains of Tweedale, and in other parts of the south, are almost incredible; and the black cattle, when fattened on the southern pastures, have been reckoned superior to English beef.

Formerly, the Scottish kings took great pains to improve the breed of horses, by importing a larger and more generous kind from the continent; but, notwithstanding all the care that was taken, it was found that the climate and soil of Scotland were unfavourable to those animals; for they diminished both in size and spirit; so that, about the time of the union, few horses, natives of Scotland, were of much value. Great efforts, however, have been made in our time, to introduce the English and foreign breeds, and such care has been taken to provide them with proper food and management, that success has almost equalled the most sanguine expectations.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—Traces of ancient volcanoes are not unfrequent in Scotland. The hill of Finhaven is one instance; and the hill of Bergonium, near Dunstaffnage Castle, is another, yielding vast quantities of pumices or *scoriæ* of differeut kinds, many of which are of the same species with those of the Icelandic volcanoes. The basaltic isle of Staffa will be described under the head of "Scottish Islands." Among other natural curiosities of this country is a heap of white stones, most of them clear as crystal, found with great quantities of oyster and other sea-shells, on the top of a mountain called Scorna-Lappich, in Ross-shire, at the distance of twenty miles from the sea. In many parts of the interior there are proofs *of their having been* covered by the sea, at *some distant period.* Traces of glaciers are likewise found in many of the mou Slanes, in Aberdeenshire, is remarl petrifying cave, called the Drop where water, oozing through a spoi rock at the top, quickly consolida drops to the bottom. Like other ous countries, Scotland abounds i picturesque scenes, rocks, cata caverns.

POPULATION.—The population of in 1755, was only 1,265,380; but, by made to the population bill, in 1801, ber stated was 1,599,068; and the 8690, the estimated number of inh the places from which no regular re made, increased the amount to 1,6 1811, the regular enumeration swell to 1,805,688, exclusive of the army and seamen in registered vessels; afterwards, the number exceeded 2, 1831 it had risen to 2,365,114, and 2,628,957; so that the population has doubled in the course of eighty-sev

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANN CUSTOMS.—The people of Scotland rally raw-boned; and a kind of charn feature, that of high cheek-bones, their faces: they are lean, but cle and can endure incredible fatigue. venturous spirit was chiefly produce lated by their laws of succession, vested the elder brother, as head of with the inheritance, and left a v portion for the other sons. This c latter to seek their fortunes abroad, people have more affection for their than the Scots in general have. this disparity of fortune, among the family, prevails likewise in Englan resources which younger brother England are numerous, compared of a country so narrow, and so little either by commerce or agriculture, a was formerly.

An intelligent reader will easily pe the ridiculous family pride, which is p entirely extinguished in Scotland, the feudal institutions which prev longer than in England. The far ences, especially of the Highlander ized them to blood and slaughter most ferocious passions were auth cherished by their chieftains. T except some, who were endued with nary virtues, were considered onl manders of the army in the time o during peace, their civil authority cumscribed, that every clan or fam the most civilized parts of Scotla upon its own chieftain as its soverei prejudices were confirmed even by which gave those petty tyrants a p and death upon their own estates generally executed their hasty s four-and-twenty hours after the pa prehended. The pride which those

er little, at present, in their manners of living, from their English neighthe like fortunes. The peasantry peculiarities; their ideas are conno people can adapt their tempers they do to their stations. They are m their infancy to bridle their pashave submissively to their superiors, ithin the bounds of the most rigid Hence they save their money and titutions; and, more particularly last century, few instances of murother atrocious crimes, occurred in yet it must be owned, with regret, cottish morality has declined in our , in proportion to the increase of

le seldom used to enter singly upon enterprise; but, when they acted in e secrecy, sagacity, and resolution, they carried on any bold underre not to be paralleled; and their one another, under the strongest s arising from their poverty, was extraordinary. Their mobs were ith all the caution of conspiracies; cularly that which put Porteous to 1736, in open defiance of law and t: though the agents in this bold re well known, and some of them d and put on their trials, with a £500 annexed to their conviction, no ould be found sufficient to bring punishment. The fidelity of the s of both sexes, under still greater

mourning: no mourning cloaks are used; nor do women ever follow. The coffins of the poorer classes are laid on two poles, like chairpoles, but a little broader, and are carried by four relatives or friends; the nearest relative supporting the head of the coffin. The corpse is interred without any address to the people, or prayers. The funerals of the nobility and gentry are performed nearly in the same manner as in England, but without any regular service. The Highland funerals were generally preceded by bagpipes, which played certain dirges, called coronachs, and were accompanied by the voices of the attendants of both sexes.

Dancing is a favourite amusement; but little regard is paid to art or gracefulness; the whole consists in agility, and in keeping time to the tune, which is usually done with great exactness. One of the peculiar diversions practised the gentlemen, is golf, which requires equal art and strength: it is played with a bat and a ball, and resembles that of the mall, which was common in England in the middle of the 17th century. The diversion of curling is, perhaps, peculiar to the Scots. It is performed upon the ice, with large flat stones, often from 20 to 200 pounds weight, which they hurl from a common stand toward a mark; and, whoever is nearest to the mark is the victor.

The dress of the Highlanders is a kind of national characteristic, a description of which must not be omitted. It is composed of a woollen stuff, sometimes very fine, called tartan. This consists of various colours, forming stripes which cross each other at right

beg, which seems to be of Milesian extraction. Their stockings are likewise of tartan, tied below the knee with tartan garters formed into tassels. The poor wear upon their feet brogues made of untanned or undressed leather; for the head a blue flat cap is used, called a bonnet, of a particular woollen manufacture. From the belt of the philibeg hung generally their knives, a dirk or dagger, and an iron pistol, sometimes of fine workmanship, and curiously inlaid with silver. The introduction of the broad sword of Andrea Ferrara, a Spaniard, (which was always part of the Highland dress,) seems not to have been earlier than the reign of James III., who invited that excellent workman into Scotland. A large leathern purse, richly adorned with silver, hanging before, was always part of a Highland chieftain's dress.

The dress of the Highland women consisted of a petticoat and jerkin, with close sleeves, trimmed or not trimmed, according to the quality of the wearer. Over this they wore a plaid, which they either held close under their chins with the hand, or fastened with a buckle. On the head they wore a kerchief of fine linen of different forms. The plaid was worn by them in a graceful manner, the drapery falling toward the feet in large folds.

The attachment of the Highlanders to this dress rendered it a bond of union, which often proved dangerous to the government. Many efforts were made by the legislature, after the rebellion, in 1715, to disarm them, and oblige them to conform to the Low-country dresses. The disarming scheme was the most successful; for, when the rebellion broke out, in 1745, the common people had scarcely any other arms than those which they took from the king's troops. Their overthrow at Culloden rendered it no difficult matter for the legislature to force them into a total change of their dress. The parliament, however, after an interval of 40 years, consented to its restoration, as it was found better adapted to freedom of motion than the close garments of the English. The dress of the higher and middle ranks of the Low-country differs little from the English; but many of the peasants retain the bonnet, for the cheapness and lightness of the wear.

CITIES, CHIEF TOWNS, AND EDIFICES.—Edinburgh claims the first place under this head. It is said to have been built by the Saxon king, Edwin, whose territory reached to the frith of Forth; and it did not fall into the hands of the Scots before the reign of Indulphus, who lived in the year 953. The town was built for the benefit of protection from the castle; and a more inconvenient situation for a capital can scarcely be conceived; the High Street, which is on the ridge of a hill lying east and west, and the lanes running down its sides north and south. In former times, the town was environed by water, except toward the east; so that, when the French landed in Scotland during the regency of Mary of Guise, they gave it the name of *l'Isle Bourg, or the insular* town. This situation suggested the idea of building very lofty houses, divided into many stories, each of which contains a suit of rooms, generally large and commodious, for the use of a family. Many of these houses are more than 40 yards high. The High Street makes a grand appearance, especially as it rises a full mile in a direct line and gradual ascent from Holyrood House on the east, and is terminated on the west by the rude majesty of its castle, built upon a lofty rock. The castle not only overlooks the city and a fine neighbouring country, but commands a most extensive prospect of the river Forth, the shipping, the opposite coast of Fife, and even some hills at the distance of 35 or 40 miles, which border upon the Highlands. It contains some good apartments, a tolerable train of artillery, and a large magazine of arms and ammunition.

Holyrood House is a stately palace; the quadrangle of which, begun by James V. and finished by Charles I., is of magnificent modern architecture, built according to the plan and under the direction of Sir William Bruce. Round the quadrangle runs an arcade, adorned with pilasters; and the inside contains magnificent apartments. Its long gallery is adorned with figures, some of which are from portraits, but all of them painted by modern artists, of the kings of Scotland down to the time of the Revolution.

The hospital, founded by George Heriot, goldsmith to James VI., commonly called Heriot's Work, stands to the south-west of the castle. It is the finest and most regular specimen which Inigo Jones (who went to Scotland as architect to Queen Anne, wife of James VI.) has left us of his Gothic manner, and far exceeds anything of that kind to be seen in England. One Balcanquil, a divine, whom Heriot appointed his executor, is said to have prevailed upon Jones to admit some barbarous devices into the building, particularly the windows, and to have insisted that the ornaments of each should be different from those of the others. It is, however, upon the whole, a noble fabric, adorned with gardens not inelegantly laid out. It was built for the maintenance and education of poor children belonging to the citizens and tradesmen of Edinburgh, and is under the direction of the city magistrates.

Among the other public edifices of Edinburgh, before the Revolution, was the college, which claims the privileges of a university, founded by King James VI. in 1580, and by him put under the direction of the magistrates, who have the power of chancellor and vice-chancellor. The original buildings which composed it were calculated for the sober literary manners of those days; but it has been rebuilt in an elegant style. It is supplied with excellent professors in the several branches of learning; and its schools for every part of the medical science are superior to any in Europe. This college is provided with a library, founded by one Clement Little, which has been greatly augmented since

his time; and a museum belonging to it was given by Sir Andrew Balfour, a physician.

The Parliament Square, or (as it is there called) Close, was formerly the most ornamental part of the city; it is formed into a noble quadrangle, part of which consists of lofty buildings; and in the middle is a fine equestrian statue of Charles II. One side of it was destroyed by fire in 1824. The room built by Charles I. for the parliament house, though not so large, is better proportioned than Westminster Hall; and its roof, which is executed in the same manner, has by some persons been deemed superior. It is now converted into a court of law, where a single judge, called the lord-ordinary, presides by rotation; in two rooms near it sit the other judges; and adjoining are the public offices of the law, exchequer, chancery, sheriffalty, and magistracy of Edinburgh, and the valuable library of the advocates. The collection has been made with taste and judgment; and it includes the most valuable manuscript remains of the Scottish history, chartularies, and other papers of antiquity, beside a series of medals.

The high church, called that of St. Giles, is now divided into four churches, and a room for the general assembly. It is a large Gothic building, and its steeple, which is 165 feet high, is supported by flying buttresses, arranged so as to form an imperial crown, which has a good effect.

The modern edifices in and near Edinburgh, such as the exchange, public offices, university, hospitals, and bridges, demonstrate the improvement of the Scottish taste in public works. Parallel to the city, on the north, the nobility, gentry, and others, erected a new town many years ago. The streets and squares are laid out with the utmost regularity, and the houses are elegantly built with stone. In St. Andrew's Square is a column in honour of Lord Melville, and, on the summit of the Calton hill, a monument in memory of Nelson.

Between the city and the new town lies a narrow bottom or vale, at the west or upper end of which the castle looks down with awful magnificence, from an elevation of 300 feet. Its eastern extremity is bounded by a lofty bridge, the middle arch being 90 feet high, which joins the new buildings to the city, and renders the descent on each side of the vale more commodious for carriages.

Edinburgh contains a theatre, sanctioned by act of parliament; and concerts, assemblies, balls, music meetings, and other polite amusements, are as frequent and brilliant here, as in any part of her majesty's dominions, London and Bath excepted. In the new town are several handsome and convenient hotels, and the coffee-houses and taverns in the old town are much improved.

The city is governed by a lord provost and other magistrates, annually chosen from the common council. The provost was formerly colonel of the *town-guard, a military institution* existing in no British town but Edinburgh, and which has been abolished for some years. It served for the city watch, and patrolling the streets, was useful in suppressing inconsiderable commotions, and attended the execution of criminals. The number of inhabitants, in 1801, did not exceed 82,560; but the amount is now much more than doubled.

Leith, though near two miles distant, may be properly called the harbour of Edinburgh, being under the same jurisdiction. It is divided into North and South Leith. The public buildings are not remarkable; the most worthy of notice is the church of North Leith, which has a fine portico, and a tower and spire 140 feet high. Leith contains several extensive manufactories of various kinds. Its commerce with foreign parts, and its coasting trade, are considerable, and it has a large share in the whale and herring fisheries. It has two dry docks, and two basins of great magnitude, with extensive warehouses. The basins, which were formed in 1806 and 1817, occupy the spot where formerly stood the citadel, erected by Oliver Cromwell.

The neighbourhood of Edinburgh is adorned with noble seats, some of which yield to few in England. About four miles from Edinburgh is Roslin, noted for a stately Gothic chapel, esteemed one of the most curious pieces of workmanship in Europe; founded in the year 1440, by William St. Clair, prince of Orkney, and duke of Oldenburg.

Glasgow, situated on the Clyde, in the shire of Lanark, is, in point of population, the second city in Scotland, the most flourishing in trade and manufactures, and one of the first in Europe for the elegance, regularity, and beautiful materials of its buildings. The streets cross each other at right angles, and are broad, straight, well paved, and consequently clean. The houses make a grand appearance, and are in general four or five stories high; and many of them, toward the centre of the city, are supported by arcades, which form piazzas, and give the whole an air of magnificence. Some of the modern churches, particularly St. Enoch's, St. Andrew's, and St. David's, are in a fine style of architecture; and the cathedral dedicated to St. Kentigern, is a stupendous Gothic building, the finest structure of the kind in Scotland. It contains two churches, and for some time had a third, subterraneous, which is now restored to its original use as a cemetery. This underground church, which was called the Barony Kirk, is described in Walter Scott's "Rob Roy." The spire of the cathedral is 220 feet high. The university is spacious, and elegantly built. The town-house is a lofty structure, and has fine apartments for the magistrates. In this city are several well-endowed hospitals; and it is particularly well supplied with large and convenient inns, proper for the accommodation of strangers, even of high rank. The population of the city and suburbs, in 1831, was 202,426; in 1841 it was 282,134. The ports belonging to *the city* are Greenock, a large and flourishing

town, near the mouth of the Clyde, where ship-building is carried on with great spirit; and Port Glasgow, about 14 miles westward of Glasgow, which has an excellent harbour, quays, and warehouses.

Aberdeen consists of the old and new towns. The latter is the shire town, and was evidently built for the purpose of commerce. It has a spacious and secure harbour, which, however, was not easily entered by large vessels, till it was improved by Smeaton and other eminent engineers. Its trade with North America, the West Indies, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic, is very considerable, and also its coasting trade; and many mercantile ships are here built. The population, in 1831, was 58,019. It has 21 places of worship, among which are only two parochial churches; one is a fine structure in the Gothic style, while the other exhibits the attractions of modern elegance. The old town, though almost joined to the new one by means of a long village, has no dependance on the other; it is moderately large, but has no haven. In each there is a well-endowed college, both being termed the University of Aberdeen, even amidst a separation of government and discipline. The church of St. Machar, in Old Aberdeen, is a remnant of a magnificent cathedral, which was destroyed by the reformers.

Perth has a considerable trade with the north of Europe, and an improving linen manufacture. It was once the capital of the Scottish realm. Here the courts of justice sat, the parliament assembled, and the king resided: it was then defended by a strong castle, and is at present one of the most regular and handsome towns in Scotland: it contained about 20,000 inhabitants, in 1831. Dundee, in the shire of Forfar, is far more populous than Perth, and has a very flourishing trade. Its population in 1831 was 30,575.

Commerce — Manufactures. — The trade and manufactures of Scotland are in most respects similar to those of England, (though on a smaller scale,) and for many years past have been rapidly improving. The exports are cotton and linen goods, iron, lead, glass, woollen, leather, grain, soap, kelp, &c.; the imports are timber, hemp, flax, wine, brandy, and, from the West Indies and the American continent, rum, sugar, rice, cotton, and indigo.

The fisheries of Scotland are well conducted, and produce large supplies for the English and foreign markets. Many whalers sail annually from the Scottish ports. The busses, or vessels employed in the great herring-fishery on the western coast, are fitted out from the north-west parts of England, and the north of Ireland, as well as the numerous ports of the Clyde and neighbouring islands. The grand rendezvous is at Campbell-town, a commodious port of Argyleshire, which has consequently risen from a mere village into a flourishing town.

The chief manufactures of Scotland are those *of cotton* and linen. At Glasgow, the former *branch is carried on* to a very great extent; for it appears that, in one year, ending on the 1st of May, 1818, the exports of cotton goods, including all articles of that description in which silk is partly used, nearly amounted to 46,000,000 of yards, beside cotton-hose, thread, twist, and yarn; and it is supposed that a still greater quantity was manufactured in that town and neighbourhood, within the same period, for home consumption. The quantity has since greatly increased. Glasgow was one of the first towns that adopted the power-loom, and, in 1835, it contained between 13,000 and 14,000 of those machines. With the exception of some establishments at Aberdeen, the entire Scottish cotton manufacture is confined to Glasgow and a circle round it to the extent of 25 miles. The iron manufacture is also largely carried on at Glasgow, and is yearly being extended. Paisley is famous for its manufactures of lawn, muslin, and gauze. The inhabitants of Perth and Dundee make various kinds of linen. Sail-cloth and cordage are well prepared in various parts; and, if the Scots do not equal the English in the fabric of fine woollens, they make a useful ordinary sort of cloth, and strong carpets.

The iron works at Carron, near Falkirk, have long been distinguished; and all sorts of iron goods are there made, from the smallest article to the largest cannon, a great quantity of which are exported. The short piece of ordnance called a carronade was first made here, and hence received its name.

Constitution, Government, and Laws.— The ancient constitution and government of Scotland have been highly applauded, as excellently adapted to the preservation of liberty; and it is certain that the power of the king was greatly limited, and that there were many constitutional checks upon him, which were well calculated to prevent his assumption of a despotic authority. But the Scottish constitution was far too aristocratic to afford to the common people that equal liberty which they had a right to expect. The king's authority was more than sufficiently restrained; but the nobles, chieftains, and great landholders, had it too much in their power to tyrannise over their tenants and the generality of the people, and that power they too often exercised.

The parliament of Scotland anciently consisted of all who held any portion of land of the crown, by military service. This assembly fixed the time of its own meetings and adjournments, and appointed committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of parliament; and, indeed, it had a commanding power in all the affairs of government. The king had no negative voice, nor could he declare war, make peace, or conclude any other public business of importance, without the advice and approbation of the parliament. His prerogative was so bounded, that he was not even intrusted with the executive part of the government: he was merely the first servant of his people, or rather of the nobles. Some of the kings, how-

ever, notwithstanding this paramount power in the parliament, found means to weaken and elude its force; and in this they were assisted by the clergy, whose revenues were very great, who had little dependance upon the pope, and were always jealous of the powerful nobility. This was done by establishing a select body of members, who were called "the lords of the articles." These were chosen from the classes of the clergy, nobility, knights, and burgesses. The bishops, for instance, chose eight peers, and the peers eight bishops; and these sixteen jointly chose eight barons (or knights of the shire,) and eight commissioners for burghs; and to all those were added eight great officers of state, the chancellor being president of the whole body. Their business was to prepare all questions and bills that might be brought into parliament; so that in fact, though the king could give no negative, yet, as he was, by the subserviency of the clergy, and the places he had to bestow, generally sure of the lords of the articles, few matters could come into parliament that could call for his negative. It must be acknowledged that this institution seems to have prevailed by stealth; nor was it ever brought into any regular system; even its modes varied: and the greatest lawyers are ignorant when it first took place. The Scots, however, never lost sight of their original principles; and, though Charles I. wished to form these lords of the articles into regular machines for his despotic purposes, he found it impracticable; and the melancholy consequences are well known. At the Revolution, the Scots gave a fresh instance how well they understood the principles of liberty, by omitting all pedantic debates about abdication and the like terms, and voting at once that James had forfeited his crown.

This spirit of resistance was the more remarkable, as the people of Scotland had groaned under the most insupportable ministerial tyranny ever since the Restoration. If it be asked, Why did they submit to that tyranny?—the answer is, In order to preserve that independence which Cromwell and his parliament endeavoured to destroy by uniting them with England. They therefore chose rather to submit to a temporary evil; but they took the first opportunity of freeing themselves from their oppressors.

Scotland, when it was a separate kingdom, cannot be said to have had any peers, in the English sense of the word. The nobility, who were dukes, marquises, earls, and barons, were by the king made hereditary members of parliament; but they formed no distinct house; and the commons had the same deliberative and decisive vote with them in all public affairs. A baron, though not a baron of parliament, might sit upon a lord's assize in matters of life and death; nor was it necessary for the assizers, or jury, to be unanimous in their verdict.

Before the *union, the kings of Scotland had* four great and four inferior officers of state: the great were the chancellor, treasurer, secretary, and keeper of the privy-seal; the others were the lord-registrar, advocate, justice-clerk, and treasurer-depute. Since the incorporation, the three first offices, and the last, have been discontinued. The officers of the crown were the high-chamberlain, constable, admiral, and marshal. The employments of constable and marshal were hereditary. A nobleman has still a pension as admiral, and the post of marshal is exercised by a knight-marshal.

The chancellorship of Scotland, and the other suppressed offices, differed little from those of England. The lord-registrar was head-clerk to the parliament, convention, treasury, exchequer, and session, and keeper of all public records. Though this office was only during the king's pleasure, yet it was rendered very lucrative by the disposal of the deputation, which lasted during life. He acted as teller to the parliament, and it was not prudent or safe for any member to dispute his report of the numbers upon divisions. The lord-advocate's office resembles that of the attorney-general in England; but his powers are more extensive, because, by the Scottish laws, he is the prosecutor of all capital crimes before the justiciary, and likewise concurs in all pursuits before sovereign courts, for breaches of the peace, and also in all civil matters, wherein the king, or his donator, hath interest.

The privy council in Scotland, before the Revolution, possessed, or assumed, inquisitorial powers, even that of torture; but it is now sunk in the parliament and privy council of Great Britain; and the civil and criminal causes in Scotland are chiefly cognizable by two courts of judicature. One is the college of justice, which was instituted by James V. after the model of the French parliament, to supply an ambulatory committee of parliament, who assumed the names of the lords of council and session, which the present members of the college of justice still retain. This court consists of a president and twelve ordinary members, besides extraordinary ones named by the king, who may sit and vote, but have no salaries, and are not bound to attendance. It may be called a standing jury in all matters of property. The civil law is the guide of the judges in all cases which come not within the municipal laws of the kingdom. It has been often matter of surprise, that the Scots were so tenacious of the forms of their courts, and the essence of their laws, as to reserve them by the articles of the Union. This, however, may be easily accounted for, because those laws and forms were essential to the possession of estates and lands, which in Scotland are often holden by modes incompatible with the laws of England. The lords *of council* and session act likewise as a court *of equity*; but their decrees are (fortunately

perhaps for the subject) reversible by the British House of Lords, to which an appeal lies. The supreme criminal judge was named the Justiciar, and the Justiciary court succeeded to his power.

The Justiciary court is the highest criminal tribunal in Scotland; but in its present form it was instituted so late as the year 1672, when a lord-justice-general, removable at the king's pleasure, was appointed. This lucrative office still exists in the person of one of the chief nobility; but the ordinary members of the court are the justice-clerk and five other judges, who are always nominated from the lords of session. In this court the verdict of the major part of a jury condemns or acquits.

Besides these two great courts of law, the Scots, by the articles of the Union, have a court of Exchequer. This court has the same power, authority, privilege, and jurisdiction, over the revenue of Scotland, as the court of Exchequer in England has over the revenue of that country; but, on the death or retirement of the present members, it will be abolished. The Scots have also a court of Admiralty, with an independent jurisdiction.

The College of Advocates, answering to the English inns of court, may be called the seminary of Scottish lawyers. They constitute within themselves an orderly court, and their forms require great precision and examination, to qualify the candidates for admission. The inferior professors of the law, or, as they may be called, attorneys, denominate themselves writers to the signet, because they alone can subscribe the writs that pass the signet; they likewise have a by-government for their own regulation.

The counties in Scotland were formerly governed by sheriffs and stewards, courts of regality, baron-courts, commissaries, and justices of the peace.

Formerly, sheriffdoms were generally hereditary; but, by act of parliament, they are now all vested in the crown; it being enacted, that all high sheriffs, or stewards, shall, for the future, be nominated and appointed annually by his majesty, his heirs, and successors.

Stewartries were formerly part of the ancient royal domain; and the stewards had much the same power in them as the sheriff had in his county.

Courts of regality of old were holden by virtue of a royal jurisdiction vested in the lord, with particular immunities and privileges; but these were so dangerous and so extravagant, that all the Scottish regalities were dissolved by act of parliament.

Baron-courts belong to every person who holds a barony of the king. In civil matters they extend to causes not exceeding forty shillings sterling; and, in criminal cases, to petty actions of assault and battery. It is remarkable that even these courts were in former *days invested with* the power of life and death.

The courts of commissaries, in Scotland, answer to those of the English diocesan chancellors, the highest of which is kept at Edinburgh; wherein, before four judges, actions are pleaded concerning wills, the right of patronage to ecclesiastical benefices, tithes, divorces, and causes of that nature; but in almost all other parts of the country there is only one judge in these causes.

According to the present institution, justices of the peace in Scotland exercise nearly the same powers as those in England. In former times, their office, though of very old standing, was insignificant, being cramped by the power of the great feudal tyrants.

The legal punishments in Scotland are the same as in England. Decapitation was performed by an instrument called the Maiden, which resembled the French guillotine; and of which the model was taken from Halifax in England, to Scotland, by the regent Morton, where it was first used for the execution of himself.

From this short view of the Scottish laws and institutions, it is plain that they were radically the same with those of the English. The latter allege, indeed, that the Scots borrowed, in substance, their *Regiam Majestatem*, their oldest law-book, from the work of Glanville, who was a judge under Henry II. of England. The Scots, on the other hand, say that Glanville's work was copied from their code, even with the peculiarities of the latter, which do not now, and never did, exist in the laws of England.

The royal burghs in Scotland form, as it were, a commercial parliament, which meets once a year at Edinburgh, consisting of a representative from each burgh, to consult upon the common good of the whole. Their powers are extensive; and, before the Union, they made laws relative to shipping, manufactures, and commerce. Their conservator is indeed nominated by the crown; but their convention regulates his power, approves his deputies, and appoints his salary; so that in truth the whole staple trade is subjected to their management. This is a remarkable institution, and sufficiently proves the great attention which the government of Scotland formerly paid to trade. It took its present form in the reign of James III., and had excellent consequences for the benefit of commerce.

The conformity between the practice of the civil law of Scotland, and that in England, is remarkable. The English law-reports are of the same nature with the practice of the Scots; and their acts of *sederunt* answer to the English rules of court; the Scottish wadsets and reversions, to the English mortgages and defeasances; their poinding of goods, after letters of horning, is much the same as the English executions upon outlawries; and an appeal against the king's pardon, in cases of murder, by the next of kin to the deceased, is admitted in both countries. Some other usages are the same in both. There was, in particular, an ancient custom, which proves the similitude

the English and Scottish constitu-
n old times, all the freeholders in
met together in the presence of the
was seated on the top of a hillock,
Moot-hill: all national affairs were
acted, judgments given, and differ-
ed. This Moot-hill was probably of
nature as the Saxon Folkmote, and
nly the hill of meeting.

OF THE THISTLE.—This is a military
ituted, as the Scottish writers assert,
king Achaius, upon his making an
and defensive league with Charle-
r, as others say, by Constantine, on
of a victory over Athelstan, king of
when he vowed, in the kirk of St. An-
t he and his posterity should ever
eir ensigns the figure of that cross
the saint suffered. It consists of the
and twelve companions, who are
ights of the Thistle, and have on
gn this significant motto, *Nemo me
cesset*, "None shall provoke me with
"

ON. — Ancient Scottish historians,
e and other writers, pretend that
ty was first taught in Scotland by
he disciples of St. John the apostle,
o this northern country to avoid the
n of Domitian, the Roman emperor;
s not appear to have been publicly
before the beginning of the third
hen a prince, whom historians call
e First, his queen, and several of his
re solemnly baptized. It was far-
irmed by emigrations from South
uring the persecutions of Aurelian
tian, when it became the established
Scotland, under the management of
rned and pious men, named Culdees,
to have been the first regular clergy
d, and were governed by overseers
s chosen by themselves from among
body.

ithout any dependance upon the
Rome, Christianity seems to have
ht, planted, and finally confirmed in
as a national church, where it flou-
its native simplicity, till the arrival
us, a priest sent by the bishop of
the 5th century, who found means
ce the modes and ceremonies of the
hurch, which at length prevailed.
thus became involved in that dark-
s for ages overspread Europe, though
iency to the pope was very slender,
spared to the blind subjection of
r nations.

dees long maintained their original
and remained a distinct order, to
of Robert de Brus, when they dis-

er the power of the pope in England
oyed by Henry VIII., a similar
n began in Scotland, in the reign
V.; it *made great progress under the*
sway of his daughter Mary, and was completed through the preaching of John Knox, who had adopted the doctrines of Calvin, and was the chief reformer of Scotland.

The religion at present established by law in Scotland, differs chiefly from that of the Church of England, in having for its fundamental principle a parity of rank and authority among its clergy; all its ecclesiastics, or presbyters, being equal in dignity, and forming among themselves a kind of ecclesiastical commonwealth of the democratic species. It agrees with the reformed churches of the continent in its opposition to popery; but it is modelled principally after the Calvinistic plan established at Geneva. This establishment, at various periods, proved so tyrannical over the laity, by having the power of excommunication, which was attended by a forfeiture of estate, and sometimes of life, that the kirk sessions, and other bodies, are no longer allowed to exercise their arbitrary and dangerous powers.

The highest ecclesiastical authority in Scotland is that of the General Assembly, consisting of commissioners (some of whom are laymen) from presbyteries, royal burghs, and universities. The king sends his representative (who is always a nobleman) to preside in this assembly; but he has no voice in its deliberations. A clergyman is chosen for its moderator, or speaker. Appeals are brought to it from all the other ecclesiastical courts in Scotland; and no appeal lies from its determination in religious matters.

Provincial synods are next in authority. They are composed of a number of the adjacent presbyteries, over whom they have power. Subordinate to the synods are presbyteries, of which there are 69 in Scotland, each consisting of a number of parishes. The ministers of these parishes, with one ruling elder chosen half-yearly out of every session, compose a presbytery. A kirk session consists of ministers, elders, and deacons. The deacons are laymen, and act nearly as churchwardens do in England. The elders are supposed to act in a kind of co-ordinancy with the ministers, and to be ready to assist them in some of their clerical duties. The ministers preach, administer the sacrament, catechise, pronounce church-censures, ordain deacons and ruling elders, and assist at the imposition of hands upon other ministers.

The established religion of Scotland formerly partook of all the austerities of Calvinism, and of too much of the intolerance of popery; but at present it is mild and gentle; and the sermons and other theological writings of many of the modern divines are equally distinguished by good sense and moderation. In the Lowlands, there are many who dissent from the presbyterian establishment and doctrines, in several particulars, and are called Seceders. They maintain their own preachers; and scarcely any two congregations agree either in principle or practice with each other.

The other dissenters, in Scotland, consist of

the Episcopalians, a few Quakers, and many Baptists, beside some sects which are denominated from their preachers. Episcopacy, from the Restoration to the Revolution, was the established religion of Scotland; and would probably have continued so, had not the bishops, who were in general very weak men, refused to recognise King William's title. The partisans of the excluded prince retained the Episcopal religion; and King William's government was rendered so unpopular in Scotland, that, in the reign of Queen Anne, the Episcopalians were more numerous in some parts than the Presbyterians; and their meetings, which they held under the act of toleration, were as well attended. A Scottish Episcopalian thus becoming another name for a Jacobite, they received some checks after the rebellion in 1715; but they recovered themselves so well, that, before the year 1745, they again became numerous; after which the government found means to invalidate the acts of their clerical order. Their meetings, however, still subsist, but thinly; and there are titular bishops among them.

The defection of some great families from the cause of popery, and the extinction of others, have rendered its votaries few and inconsiderable in Scotland. They are chiefly confined to the northern parts, and the islands, and are as quiet and inoffensive as Protestant subjects.

LITERATURE.—Scotland has been said to have produced St. Patrick, the celebrated apostle and literary instructor of Ireland; but this is exceedingly doubtful; there being good reason to believe that the saint was a native of Armorica. The writings of Adamanus, and other authors who lived before and at the time of the Norman invasion, are specimens of early Scottish learning. Charlemagne unquestionably held a correspondence by letters with the kings of Scotland, with whom he entered into a league, and employed Scots in planning, settling, and ruling, his favourite universities, and other seminaries of learning, in France, Italy, and Germany. After an interval of darkness, we meet with a poet named Thomas of Erceldoun, who flourished about the year 1270; and, in the following century, John Barbour was the enlightened contemporary and rival of Chaucer. In consequence of the destruction of the Scottish monuments of learning and antiquity, the early annals of the country are lame, and often fabulous; but the Latin style of Buchanan's history is equal in classical purity to that of any modern productions, and the letters of the Scottish kings to the neighbouring princes are the finest compositions of the times in which they were written.

The important discovery of the logarithms may be mentioned as the indisputable right of Napier of Merchiston; and, since his time, the mathematical sciences have been cultivated in Scotland with great success. Keil, in his physico-mathematical works, to the clearness *of his reasoning* has sometimes added the colouring of a poet. Of all writers on astronomy, Gregory is one of the most perfect and elegant. Maclaurin, the friend of Sir Isaac Newton, was endowed with all that precision and force of mind which rendered him peculiarly fitted for bringing down the ideas of that great man to the level of ordinary apprehensions, and for diffusing that light through the world which Newton had confined to the sphere of the learned. His "Treatise on Fluxions" is regarded by the best judges as the clearest account of the most refined and subtile speculations on which the human mind ever exerted itself with success. While Maclaurin pursued this new career, a geometrician no less famous distinguished himself in the almost deserted track of antiquity. This was Dr. Simson, so well known for his illustrations of the ancient geometry.

In the department of history great celebrity has been acquired by Scottish writers. Hume was the first who, with any pretensions to classical elegance, wrote the "History of England." Dr. Robertson began his literary career of glory with the history of his own country. This was followed by that of all Europe, in the reign of the emperor Charles V. The captivating account of the discovery of America was next presented to the world; and an historical disquisition concerning India was the last production of this philosophical historian. Dr. Gilbert Stuart was also an able historic writer; and, in Dr. Henry's "History of Great Britain," we meet with an accurate, methodical, and perspicuous detail under distinct heads, of everything interesting in the civil history, constitution, learning, arts, commerce, and manners of the people from the earliest times. Tytler has recently elucidated the history of his native country, with equal elegance and research. The investigations of Dr. Adam Smith, on the subject of national wealth and politics, have perhaps never been equalled; and the "Moral Philosophy" of Hutcheson is allowed, even by its opponents, to be ingenious and plausibly supported.

In poetry, if the Scots have not risen to the greatest height, many have certainly far surpassed mediocrity. Foreigners who inhabit warmer climates, and conceive the northern nations incapable of tenderness and feeling, are astonished at the poetic genius and delicate sensibility of Thomson, and at the various powers of Armstrong, Beattie, and Burns. By researches in metaphysics and morals, and by critical taste, Lord Kames and Dugald Stewart were highly distinguished; Adam Ferguson studied history and philosophy with intelligent acuteness; the novels of Smollet place him in the next rank to Richardson and Fielding; and those of Mackenzie are marked with elegance, nature, and pathos. Among modern authors, Sir Walter Scott stands pre-eminent as a novelist, poet, and miscellaneous writer. The names of a throng of other Scotchmen, who have shone in literature and science, may be seen in the Obituary at the end of the volume.

by Bishop Turnbull in 1453; that of
›mposed of two colleges, one in the
ounded by Bishop Elphinston in
King's College; and one in the new
d by George Keith, fifth earl-mar-
3, called Marischal College; and
nburgh, founded by James VI. in
: are respectable foundations; and
professors are men of distinguished

s.—The Erse or Gaelic, a dialect of
is still spoken in the Highlands;
uage of the Low Countries, which
ne origin with the English, is con-
ending. The English and Scotch
in the same manner; and the pro-
of the latter is scarcely more differ-
it of London than we find it in many
ern and western English counties.
IES.—The Roman and other anti-
d in Scotland have of themselves
latter for large volumes. The sta-
Roman legions, their *castella*, the
or walls reaching across the island,
iced with great precision by antiqua-
orians; so that, without some new
an account of them can afford no in-
the learned, and little amusement
ant, because at present they can be
nly by critical eyes. Some mention
f, however, may be proper. The
e Roman wall (or, as it is called
ry people, "Graham's Dyke," from
hat a Scottish warrior of that name
over it,) between the Clyde and

which remain in Ross-shire, are probably Norwegian structures, built about the 5th century, to favour the descents of that people.

Two Pictish monuments, as they have been supposed to be, of a very extraordinary construction, exist in Scotland: one of them at Abernethy in Perthshire, the other at Brechin in Angus; both of them are columns, hollow in the inside, and without the stair-case; that of Brechin is the most entire, being covered at the top with a spiral roof of stone, with three or four windows above the cornice; it consists of 60 regular courses of hewn freestone, laid circularly, and regularly tapering toward the top. Its height is 123 feet: that of Abernethy has an altitude of only 74 feet. These erections are exactly like the round towers of Ireland, the purpose of which has been a theme of so much dispute among antiquaries.

The vestiges of erections by the ancient Scots themselves are not only curious but instructive, as they regard many important events of their history. That people had amongst them a rude notion of sculpture, by which they transmitted the actions of their kings and heroes. At a place called Aberlemno, near Brechin, four or five ancient obelisks are still to be seen, called Danish stones. They were erected as commemorations of victories, and are adorned with bas-reliefs of men on horseback, and many emblematical figures and hieroglyphics, not intelligible at this day. Other historical monuments of the Scots have been discovered; but it must be acknowledged that the ordinary interpretations of them are fanciful. Among

held their last settlement in Scotland, after the defeat they received from Malcolm, a few years before the Norman invasion.

At Sandwich, in Ross-shire, is a splendid ancient obelisk, surrounded at the base with large well-cut flag-stones, formed like steps. Both sides of the column are covered with various enrichments, in well-finished carved work. One face presents a sumptuous cross, with a figure of St. Andrew on each hand, and some uncouth animals and flowerings under it. The central division on the reverse exhibits a variety of curious figures, birds, and other animals. There are also several remains of Druidical circles in Ross-shire; and many cairns on the summits of the hills.

The ruins of the cathedral of Elgin are very striking; and many parts of that fine building have still the remains of much grandeur and dignity. The west door is highly ornamented; there is much elegance in the carvings, and the whole edifice displays very elaborate workmanship.

Among the remains of ancient castles, may be mentioned that of Kildrummy, which was formerly a place of great strength and magnificence, and often used as an asylum for noble families in times of civil war. Inverugie Castle is also a large and lofty pile, situated on the steep bank of a river; two very high towers bound the front, and, even in their decaying state, give the castle an air of grandeur. Long rows of venerable trees, enclosing the adjoining garden, add to the effect of the buildings. Near Huntley are the ruins of a castle. On the avenue that leads to it are two large square towers, which defended the gateway. The castle seems to be very old, and a great part of it is demolished; but there is a massy building of a more modern date, in which some of the apartments, and, in particular, their curious ceilings, are still in tolerable preservation. They are painted with a great variety of subjects, in small divisions, in which are contained many emblematical figures.

HISTORY.—Though the writers of ancient Scottish history are too fond of fable, it is easy to collect, from the Roman authors, and other evidence, that Scotland was formerly inhabited by various people. The Caledonians appear to have been its first inhabitants. With respect to the Picts, some have supposed that they were those Britons who were forced to the northward by the Belgic Gauls, about eighty years before the descent of Julius Cæsar, and who, settling in Scotland, were joined by great numbers of their countrymen, driven also in the same direction by the Romans; but it seems to be ascertained that they came from Norway. The tract, lying southward of the Forth, appears to have been inhabited by the Saxons, and by the Britons, who formed the kingdom of Alcluyd, the capital of which was Dumbarton: but all these people in process of *time were subdued* by the Scots.

It does not appear that the Caledonians, the ancient Celtic inhabitants of Scotland, were attacked by any of the Roman generals before the time of Agricola, who invaded them in the year 83. The name of the prince with whom he fought was Galdus, by Tacitus named Galgacus; and the history of that war is not only transmitted with great precision, but is corroborated by the remains of the Roman encampments and forts, raised by Agricola in his march toward Dunkeld, the capital of the Caledonians. The brave stand made by Galdus against that great general, does honour to the courage of his people; and the sentiments of the Caledonian, concerning the freedom and independence of his country, appear to have warmed the noble historian with the same generous feeling. It is evident, however, that Tacitus thought it for the honour of Agricola to conceal some parts of this war; for, though he makes his countrymen victorious, they certainly returned southward to the province of the Horesti (the county of Fife) without improving their advantage.

Galdus, otherwise called Corbred, was, according to the Scottish historians, the twenty-first in a lineal descent from Fergus I., the founder of their monarchy; and, though this genealogy has been disputed, it seems to be certain that the Caledonians, or Scots, were governed by a succession of brave and wise princes, during the abode of the Romans in Britain. Their valiant resistance obliged Agricola himself, and, after him, the emperors Antoninus Pius and Severus, to build the two famous prætentures or walls, one between the friths of Clyde and Forth, and the other between Tynemouth and the Solway Frith, to defend the Romans from the Caledonians and Scots; whence it appears that the independence of the latter was never subdued.

At the time of the introduction of Christianity into Scotland, about the year 201, the Picts had gained a footing in that realm; and, being often defeated by the ancient inhabitants, joined the Romans against the Scots and Caledonians, who were of the same original, and considered themselves as one people; so that the Scottish monarchy suffered a short eclipse; but it broke out with greater lustre than ever, under Fergus II., who recovered his crown; and his successors gave some severe overthrows to the Romans and South Britons.

When the Romans left Britain, the Scots, as appears from Gildas, were a powerful nation; and, in concert with the Picts, they for many years severely harassed the South Britons, who, by calling the Saxons to their aid, rushed into equal or greater danger, the effect of which we have already seen. While the new war raged in the south, Dongard was king of Scotland; and it appears from the oldest histories, and those which are least favourable to monarchy, that the succession to the crown continued in the family of Fergus, but in general devolved collaterally; till the inconveniences of that mode of succession were so much felt, that by

all into disuse, and it was at last
e descending line.
year 796, the Scots were governed
a prince so much respected, that
ip was courted by Charlemagne,
e was concluded between them,
ined inviolate, while the monarchy
had an existence. No fact of equal
better attested than this league,
h the great service performed by
nen of Scotland, in civilizing the
minions of that great conqueror.
ll remained in Scotland as a sepa-
and were sufficiently powerful to
on the Scots; who, about the year
Kenneth Mac Alpin was king of
ally subdued them, but not in the
er mentioned by some historians,
ation; for he obliged them to in-
mselves with their conquerors, by
names, and adopting their laws.
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er that part of the Scottish his-
elates to the fall of the Picts. The
of Kenneth maintained frequent
e Saxons on the southward, and
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Scots by occasional invasions.
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for, while the Danes were erect-
chy in England, they were over-
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ut of the kingdom. The Saxon
princes who then governed Eng-
not more successful against the
aintained their freedom and inde-
ot only against foreigners, but
r own kings, when they thought
ered. The feudal law was intro-
them by Malcolm II.
II., commonly called Canmore,
elic words which signify a large
st probably from his great capa-
d the throne in 1057. He was the
gracious Duncan," whose name
has immortalized. Malcolm was
magnanimous prince, and in no
ior to his contemporary the Nor-
or, with whom he was often at
rried Margaret, daughter to Ed-
tlaw, son to Edmund Ironside.
h of her brother, Edgar Atheling,
ght to the crown of England de-
the posterity of that princess, who
e wisest and worthiest women of
her daughter Matilda was accord-
to Henry I., of England. Mal-
glorious reign, was killed, with
herously, it is said, at the siege of
the besieged.
II. was succeeded by his brother
and he was dethroned by Dun-
e legitimacy was disputed. They
led by Edgar, the son of Mal-
o was a wise *and valiant prince;* he was succeeded by Alexander, and, upon his death, David mounted the throne.

David was one of the greatest princes of that age, whether we regard him as a man, a warrior, or a legislator. The laws which he promulgated, do his memory immortal honour. They are said to have been compiled under his inspection, by learned men, whom he assembled from all parts of Europe in his magnificent abbey of Melrose. He was succeeded by his grandson, Malcolm IV., and he by William, surnamed the Lion. William's son, Alexander II., was succeeded, in 1249, by Alexander III., who was a good king. He married, first, Margaret, daughter to Henry III. of England, by whom he had Alexander, the prince who married a daughter of the earl of Flanders; David; and Margaret, who married Eric, son to Magnus IV., king of Norway, and bore him a daughter, the Maiden of Norway; in whom King William's posterity failed; and the crown of Scotland returned to the descendants of David, earl of Huntingdon, brother to Malcolm IV., and William. By his second wife, Joleta, daughter of the Count de Dreux, he had no issue.

This detail has been given, because it is connected with great events. On the death of Alexander III., John Baliol, who was great-grandson to David, earl of Huntingdon, by his eldest daughter Margaret; and Robert de Brus, grandfather to the great King Robert I., grandson to the same earl of Huntingdon by his youngest daughter Isabel, became competitors for the crown of Scotland. The laws of succession, which were not so well established in Europe as they are at present, rendered the case very difficult. Both parties were almost equally matched in interest; but, after a confused interregnum of some years, the great nobility agreed in referring the decision to Edward I. of England, the most politic and ambitious prince of his age. He accepted the office of arbiter; but, having long had an eye to the crown of Scotland, he revived some obsolete claims of its dependance upon that of England; and, finding that Baliol was disposed to hold it by that disgraceful tenure, he awarded it to him; but afterwards dethroned him, and treated him as a slave, without exciting his resentment.

After this, Edward used many endeavours to annex the crown of Scotland to his own, which were often defeated; and, though for a short time he made himself master of Scotland, the Scots were ready to revolt against him on every opportunity. Those who were so zealously attached to the independence of their country, as to be resolved to hazard everything for it, were indeed few, compared to those in the interest of Edward and Baliol, which was the same; and for some time they were obliged to temporize. Edward availed himself of their weakness and his own power. He accepted a formal surrender of the crown from Baliol, to *whom he* allowed a pension but detained him

in England, and sent every nobleman in Scotland whom he in the least suspected, to different prisons in or near London. He then forced the Scots to sign instruments acknowledging their subjection to him, and carried off or destroyed all the monuments of their history, and the evidence of their independence, particularly the famous fatidical or prophetic stone, which is still to be seen in Westminster Abbey.

These severe proceedings, while they rendered the Scots sensible of their slavery, revived their longing for freedom; and Edward, finding that their spirit could not be subdued, endeavoured to conciliate them, and affected to treat them on a footing of equality with his own subjects, by projecting a union of the kingdoms. The Scottish patriots treated this project with disdain, and united, under the brave William Wallace, to expel the English. In executing this scheme, Wallace performed actions that entitled him to eternal renown. Being, however, no more than a private gentleman, and his popularity daily increasing, the nobles, among whom was Robert de Brus, grandson of the first competitor, began to suspect that he had an eye upon the crown; especially after he had defeated the earl of Surrey, Edward's viceroy of Scotland, in the battle of Stirling; had reduced the garrisons of Berwick and Roxburgh; and was declared by the states of Scotland their protector. Their jealousy operated so far, that they formed violent cabals against Wallace. Encouraged by these dissensions, Edward once more invaded Scotland, at the head of the most numerous and the best-disciplined army that England had ever seen; for it consisted of 80,000 foot, 3000 horsemen completely armed, and 4000 light-armed, and was attended by a fleet to supply it with provisions. These, with the troops who joined him in Scotland, formed an irresistible body: Edward, however, was obliged to divide it, reserving the command of 40,000 men to himself. With these he attacked the Scots under Wallace at Falkirk, while their disputes ran so high, that the brave regent was deserted by Comyn, the most powerful nobleman in Scotland, who was at the head of the best division of his countrymen. Wallace, whose troops did not exceed 30,000, being thus betrayed, was defeated with great loss, but made an orderly retreat, during which he found means to have a conference with Brus, and to convince him of his error in joining Edward. Wallace still continued in arms, and performed many gallant actions against the English; but was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who most ungenerously put him to death at London, as a traitor. That monarch died as he was preparing to renew his invasion of Scotland with a still more desolating spirit of ambition, after having destroyed 100,000 of her inhabitants.

Brus died soon after the battle of Falkirk, *but not before he* had inspired his son, who *was a prisoner at* large about the English court, with the glorious resolution of vindicating his own rights, and the independence of his country. He escaped from London, and with his own hand killed Comyn, for his attachment to Edward; and, after collecting a few patriots, among whom were his four brothers, he assumed the crown, but was defeated by the English, who had a great army in Scotland, at the battle of Methven. After his defeat, he fled to the western parts of Scotland, where his fatigues and sufferings were as extreme as the courage was incredible with which he and his friends bore them, especially Sir James Douglas. Though his wife and daughters were sent prisoners to England, where the best of his friends and two of his brothers were put to death, yet, such was his persevering spirit, that he recovered all Scotland, except the castle of Stirling, and improved every advantage that was given him by the dissipated conduct of Edward II., who raised an army more numerous and even better appointed than that of his father, to make a total conquest of North Britain. It is said that it consisted of 100,000 men; but this is an exaggerated computation: however, it is admitted that the army of Brus did not exceed 30,000; but all of them were veterans who had been bred up in a detestation of tyranny.

Edward, who was not deficient in courage, led his powerful army toward Stirling, then besieged by Brus, who had chosen, with the greatest judgment, a camp near Bannockburn. The chief officers under Edward were the earls of Gloucester, Hereford, and Pembroke, and Sir Giles Argenton. Those under Brus were his own brother Sir Edward, who, next to himself, was supposed to be the best knight in Scotland; his nephew, Randolph, earl of Moray; and the young Lord Walter, high steward of Scotland. Edward's attack was so furious, that it required all the courage and firmness of Brus and his friends to resist it; which they did so effectually, as to obtain one of the most complete victories that are recorded in history. The great loss of the English fell upon the bravest part of their troops, who were led on by Edward against Brus himself. The Scottish writers make the loss of the English amount to 50,000 men; but this is an absurd exaggeration, though there never was a more striking defeat. The English camp, which was immensely rich, and calculated for the purpose rather of a triumph than a campaign, fell into the hands of the Scots; and Edward himself was pursued by Douglas to the gates of Berwick, whence he escaped in a fishing-boat. This great and decisive battle happened in the year 1314.

The remainder of Robert's reign was a series of glorious success; and, so strong was the spirit of independence in his nobility, and so unfettered were they by religious considerations, that, in a letter they sent to the pope, they acknowledged that they had set aside Baliol for debasing the crown, by holding it of

l declared that they would treat the same mark of indignation, if ake the like attempt. Robert, elivered Scotland, sent his brother reland, at the head of an army, e conquered a great part of that was proclaimed its king; but he h, defeated and slain. Robert, in ade an advantageous peace with e died in 1329, with the character reatest hero of the age.

f the Scots may be said to have mith under Robert, who was suc- son, David II. He was a virtuous is abilities, both in war and peace, by those of his great and power- Edward III. of England, whose ried. Edward, who was as eager i predecessors to effect the con- land, espoused the cause of Baliol, iginal competitor. His progress umazingly rapid, and he and Ed- l the royal party in several bloody Baliol was at last driven out of ingdom by the Scots. David had ie to be taken by the English at Durham; and, after continuing rs in captivity, he paid 100,000 ransom. He died in 1371, and the ed upon the family of Stuart, entative had married the daughter

The first king of that name was wise and brave prince. He was his son of the same name, whose nities disqualified him from reign- he was forced to confide the go- his brother, the duke of Albany, prince, who seems to have had an procuring the crown for his own ert, in a moment of alarm, at- end his son James into France; agenerously intercepted by Henry and, and, after suffering a long is obliged to pay an exorbitant ring the imprisonment of James he military glory of the Scots was greatest height in France, where d that tottering monarchy against l their generals obtained some of s of the kingdom.

first of that name, upon his re- land displayed great talents for enacted wise laws, and was be- e people. He had received an ucation in England, during the ary IV. and V., where he saw the a refined from many of the imper- h still adhered to it in his own resolved, therefore, to abridge the wer of the nobles, and to recover had been unjustly wrested from uring his minority and the pre- s: but the execution of these him his life; for he was murdered y some of the chief nobility, in ge of 43 years.

A long minority succeeded; but James II. would probably have equalled the greatest of his ancestors, both in warlike and civil virtues, had he not been suddenly killed by the accidental bursting of a cannon, in the 30th year of his age, as he was besieging the castle of Roxburgh, which was defended by the English.

Suspicion, indolence, immoderate attachment to females, and all the errors of a feeble mind, are visible in the conduct of James III., whose turbulent reign was closed by a rebellion of his subjects. He was slain in battle, in 1488, aged 35.

His son, James IV., was the most accomplished prince of his age; he was naturally generous and brave: he loved magnificence; he delighted in war, and was eager to obtain fame. He encouraged and protected the commerce of his subjects, so that they greatly increased in riches; and his court, at the time of his marriage with the daughter of Henry VII., was splendid and respectable. Even this alliance could not cure him of his family distemper, a predilection for the French; into whose cause he rashly entered, and was killed, with the flower of his nobility, by the English, in the battle of Flodden, in 1513, when he was in the 40th year of his age.

The minority of his son, James V., was long and turbulent; and when he grew up, he married two French ladies; the first being daughter to the king of France, and the latter of the House of Guise. He instituted the court of Session, enacted salutary laws, and greatly promoted the trade of Scotland, particularly the working of the mines. At this time the balance of power was so equally poised between the contending princes of Europe, that the friendship of James was courted by the pope, the emperor, the king of France, and his uncle Henry VIII. of England, from all of whom he received magnificent presents. But he took little share in foreign affairs; he seemed rather to imitate his predecessors in their attempts to humble the nobility; and, when the doctrines of the Reformation began to be propagated in Scotland, he permitted, at the instigation of the clergy, a religious persecution, though it is generally believed, that, had he lived longer, he would have seized all the church-revenues, in imitation of Henry. As he slighted some friendly overtures made to him by the king of England, and thus gave great umbrage to that prince, a war at length broke out between them. A large army, under the command of the duke of Norfolk, entered Scotland, and ravaged the country north of the Tweed. After this short expedition, the English army retired to Berwick. James then sent 10,000 men to the western borders, who entered England at Solway Frith; and he followed them at a short distance, ready to join them upon occasion. He soon after gave great offence to the nobility and the army, by imprudently depriving their general, Lord Maxwell, of his commission, and conferring the

command on Oliver Sinclair, a private gentleman, who was his favourite. The troops were so much disgusted at this alteration, that they were ready to disband, when a small body of English horse appeared, not exceeding 500. A panic seized the Scots, who immediately fled, supposing themselves to be attacked by the whole army. The English horse closely pursued them, slew a great number, and captured 7 lords, 200 gentlemen, and 800 soldiers, with 24 pieces of artillery. This disaster so much affected James, that it threw him into a fit of illness, of which he soon after died, on the 14th of December, 1542.

His daughter and successor, Mary, was only a few hours old at the time of her father's death. Her beauty, her misconduct, and her misfortunes, are alike famous in history. It is sufficient here to say, that during her minority, and while she was wife to Francis II. of France, the Reformation advanced in Scotland; that, being called to the throne of her ancestors while a widow, she married her cousin-german, the Lord Darnley, whose untimely death has given rise to so much controversy. The consequence of her husband's death, and of her marriage with Bothwell, who was considered as his murderer, was an insurrection of her subjects, from whom she fled into England, where she was ungenerously detained a prisoner for 18 years, and afterwards, on motives of state-policy, put to death by Queen Elizabeth in 1587, in the 45th year of her age.

On the death of Elizabeth, Mary's son, James VI. of Scotland, succeeded to the English crown, in consequence of his descent from Henry VII. This union of the two crowns, in fact, destroyed the independence, as it impoverished the people, of Scotland: for, the seat of government being removed to England, their trade was checked, their agriculture neglected, and their gentry obliged to seek for situations in other countries. James, after a splendid but troublesome reign over his three kingdoms, left them, in 1625, to his son, the unfortunate Charles I. The despotic principles and conduct of that prince so irritated both his Scottish and English subjects, that they took up arms. It was in Scotland that the sword was first drawn against him; but, when the royalists were totally defeated in England, the king put himself in the power of the Scottish army. The officers at first treated him with respect, but afterwards sold him to the English parliament, on condition of the payment of £400,000 to the Scots, said to be due to them for arrears. However, the Scots afterwards made several spirited but unsuccessful attempts to restore his son, Charles II. That prince was defeated by Cromwell, at the battle of Worcester, in 1651; after which Scotland was entirely reduced to submission; and, till the time of Charles's restoration, the commonwealth of England and the protector gave law to Scotland.

The state of parties in England, at the accession of Queen Anne, was such, that the whigs once more had recourse to the Scots, and offered them their own terms, if they would agree to an incorporative union. It was long before the majority of the Scottish parliament would listen to the proposal; but, at last, partly from conviction, but mainly through the effects of money distributed among the indigent nobility, it was agreed to; since which event, the history of Scotland becomes the same with that of England.

ISLES OF SCOTLAND.

The Isles of Scotland consist of three clusters; the Hebrides (corruptly so called, for *Hebudes*) or Western Islands, the Orkneys, and the Shetland Isles.

The Western Islands are situated on the north-west coast of Scotland. About 200 of them are reckoned; but many of them are uninhabited. Those which are most worthy of notice are Arran, Bute, Islay, Jura, Mull, Skye, Lewis and Harris, which form one island, North Uist, and South Uist, Iona, Staffa, and St. Kilda.

Arran, in the frith of Clyde, is about 24 miles in length, and, where widest, about 10 in breadth. It consists chiefly of a series of rough and broken mountains, from one of the highest summits of which, named Goatfell, in the centre of the island, which has an elevation of 2840 feet, the view extends at once to Ireland and the Isle of Man, and even into South Britain. There are several rivulets and lakes of fresh water in this island, and it has many fine harbours. It is occupied by 7500 persons, and the chief place is the village of Ranza.

Bute is about 18 miles long, and 4 broad; and its chief town is Rothsay, which has a castle, and gave the title of duke to the eldest sons of the kings of Scotland, as it now does to the prince of Wales. Rothsay is likewise a royal burgh. Bute contains about 7000 inhabitants. The island abounds with freestone and limestone, and employs a great number of boats in the herring fishery.

Islay is 28 miles long, and nearly 18 broad, and is not less populous than Arran. The soil is good, and might by industry be rendered extremely productive. Flax is the principal article of cultivation. A lead-mine was discovered here in 1763. In an island, in the centre of a lake, are vestiges of the palace of the Macdonalds, the lords of the isles.

Jura, about 32 miles long, and 7 broad, is one

it rugged of the western islands, i general mountainous. The moun- l the Paps, which are a range of nences, present a singular appear- has been found to have an elevation , but it is greatly exceeded in height iest, named Ben-an-Oir. Not one art of the island is capable of being

out 35 miles long, and of an average 12 miles. It is very rugged and is, like the other western isles. It out 11,000 people, resident in three h only one town, named Tobermory. several ruins of ancient castles in

Vast numbers of sheep and black ported from Mull.

out 54 miles in length, and, in some e 20 broad, but its mean breadth bounds, especially in the interior ks, mountains, and bogs. The in- e about 22,000 in number. A re- ave has been discovered in the n angle of this island, exhibiting ppearances and curious figures, like f Antiparos.

nd, to the westward of Skye, con- peninsulas, the northern of which ted Lewis, and the southern Harris. t is about 70 miles, from north to the breadth is 10 or 12, and in some he isles of North Uist, South Uist, ontinue this chain of islands to the les more, including about 16 miles The number of inhabitants, in the , may be computed at more than only town is Stornaway, in the of Lewis, a considerable and flou- e, with an excellent harbour. At f Classerness, or Calernish, in the art of the same peninsula, is what Gothic court of judicature; but it by others to be a Druidical temple, erved and perfect, though not of imensions, as that of Stonehenge.

Iyona, on the west of the isle of also Hui or Hy, and I Colm Kill, of Columba's church, was a sanc- . Columba, and other holy men of ile Ireland, England, and Scotland sed in barbarism. The church of hich is built in the form of a ca- eautiful Gothic fabric, surmounted ower, which is supported by four ned with figures in basso-relievo. he bodies of some Scottish, Irish, an kings, with Gaelic inscriptions. Columba, who lies buried here, is

The steeple is large, the cupola uare, the doors and windows are ved, and the altar is of the finest the fore court are two finely cut of them, called St. Martin's, is a single piece of red granite, 14 feet e island is about 3 miles long, and consists chiefly of moor and bog.

Staffa, situated ten miles to the north-east of Iona, is a small island, only one mile long and half a mile broad, and inhabited by a single family. It is, however, remarkable for consisting of one entire pile of basaltic pillars, arranged in natural colonnades, wonderfully magnificent. Sir Joseph Banks, in relating his voyage through the Hebrides, says, "We were struck with a scene of magnificence which exceeded our expectations, though founded, as we thought, upon the most sanguine foundations: the whole of that end of the island (Staffa) supported by ranges of natural pillars, mostly above 50 feet high, standing in natural colonnades, according as the bays or points of land formed themselves, upon a firm basis of solid unformed rock; above these, the stratum which reaches to the soil or surface of the island, varied in thickness as the island itself formed into hills or valleys; each hill, which hung over the columns below, forming an ample pediment; some of these, above 60 feet in thickness from the base to the point, formed, by the sloping of the hill on each side, almost in the shape of those used in architecture." The most elevated part of the island is 214 feet above the level of the sea.

The cave of Fingal, a vast and magnificent cavern in this island, 371 feet long, 53 broad, and 117 high, composed of such pillars, is thus described by Sir Joseph Banks: "We proceeded along the shore, treading upon another Giants' Causeway, every stone being regularly formed into a certain number of sides and angles; till, in a short time, we arrived at the mouth of the cave, the most magnificent, I suppose, that has ever been described by travellers. The mind can hardly form an idea more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off in order to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and, at the same time, vary the colour, with a great deal of elegance: and, to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without; so that the extremity is very plainly seen from without; and the air within, being agitated with the flux and reflux of the tide, is perfectly dry and wholesome, free entirely from the damp of vapours, with which natural caverns in general abound."

To the north-west of Mull are the islands of Tirey and Col; the former of which produces a beautiful marble of a rose colour. Tirey is level and fertile, and is 11 miles long and 2½ broad, with a population of about 4000; but Col is rocky, or rather one continued rock, covered with a thin stratum of earth. The latter island is about 14 miles long and 3 broad, and contains about 1300 inhabitants.

Hirta, or St. Kilda, is the most western island of the Hebrides, and is 3 miles long and 2 broad. The soil is fertile; but the arable land scarcely exceeds 80 acres, though by industry more might be added. The mountain or rock of *Congara*, in this island, is accounted the Tene-

riffe of the British islands, its height above the level of the sea being 1800 yards. The whole island is surrounded with the most tremendous rocks, and has only one landing-place; and even there it is impossible to land except in calm weather. About 35 families reside here in a small village on the eastern side of the island. These people display the most astonishing courage and dexterity in climbing the dreadful precipices in quest of sea-fowls and their eggs, which furnish them with food during a great part of the year. They fasten themselves in couples, one at each end of a cow-hide rope, and descend from the loftiest cliffs to the dizzy depth of 30 fathoms. The multitudes of the birds are prodigious, the rocks round the island being so covered with them that they appear like mountains covered with snow; yet they so entirely disappear in November, that from the middle of that month to the middle of February, not one is to be seen.

The people of the Hebrides are clothed and live like the Highlanders. They are similar in persons, constitutions, customs, and prejudices; but with this difference, that the more polished manners of the Lowlanders are rapidly gaining ground in the Highlands. Perhaps the descendants of the ancient Caledonians, in a few years, will be discernible only in the Hebrides.

These islands alone retain the ancient usages of the Celts, as described by the oldest and best authors, but with a strong tincture of the feudal constitution. Their shanachies, or story-tellers, supply the place of the ancient bards, so famous in history, and are the historians, or rather genealogists, as well as poets, of the nation and family. The chief was attended, when he appeared abroad, with his musician, who was generally a bagpiper, and dressed in the manner of the English minstrels of former times, but more elegantly. Notwithstanding the contempt into which that music has fallen, it is almost incredible with what care and attention it was cultivated among these islanders for many ages. They had regular colleges and professors, and the students took degrees according to their proficiency. Many of the Celtic rites, some of which were too barbarous to be retained, or even mentioned, are now abolished. The inhabitants, however, still preserve the most profound respect and affection for their several chieftains, notwithstanding all the pains that have been taken by the British legislature to break those connexions, which experience has shown to be so dangerous to the government. The common people are little better lodged than the Norwegians and Laplanders; but they certainly fare better; for they have oatmeal, plenty of fish and fowl, cheese, butter, milk, and whey; and also mutton, beef, venison, and the flesh of kids and goats. They indulge themselves, like their forefathers, in a romantic, poetical turn; and the agility of both sexes in the exercises of the field, and in dancing to their favourite music, is remarkable.

The inhabitants of the Hebrides, particularly of the isle of Skye, formerly pretended, at least many of them, to the power of foreknowing future events by what is termed the *second sight*. This gift, which in the Erse language is called *Taish*, is supposed to be a supernatural faculty of seeing visions of events before they happen. The adepts of the second sight pretend that they have certain revelations, or rather presentations either really or typically to their eyes, of certain events which are to happen in the compass of 24 or 48 hours. We do not, however, from the best information, observe that any two of these adepts agree as to the manner and form of the revelations, or that they have any rule for the interpretation of the typical appearances. The truth seems to be, that these islanders, by indulging themselves in lazy habits, acquire visionary ideas, and overheat their imaginations, till they are presented with phantasms, which they mistake for fatidical or prophetic manifestations. They instantly begin to prophecy; and it would be absurd to suppose, that, amidst many thousand predictions, some may not happen to be fulfilled; and these, being well attested, give a sanction to the whole.

Many learned men have been of opinion, that, the Hebrides being the most westerly islands where the Celts settled, their language must remain there in its greatest purity. This opinion, though plausible, has failed in experience. Many Celtic words, it is true, as well as customs, are there found; but the great intercourse which the islanders had with the Danes, Norwegians, and other northern people, whose language has no affinity with the Celtic, has rendered their dialect a compound; so that it approaches in no degree to the purity of the Celtic, commonly called Erse, which was spoken by their neighbours in Lochaber, and on the opposite coasts of Scotland, the undoubted descendants of the Celts, among whom their language remains more unmixed.

The religion professed in the Hebrides is chiefly Presbyterian, as established in the Church of Scotland; but there is still a considerable number of Roman Catholics.

The ORKNEY ISLANDS, anciently the Orcades, lie to the north of Dungsby Head, being separated from the most northern part of Scotland by a dangerous strait called the Pentland Frith, 20 miles long and 5½ wide at its eastern entrance. In this strait the tides and currents run with a frightful velocity. The islands are 67 in number, but only 27 are inhabited, the rest consisting of what are called holms and skerries; the former of which are islands entirely consigned to pasturage, and the latter barren rocks.

The largest island of the group lies in the centre of it, and is called the Mainland; it is also styled Pomona, but seemingly without any allusion to the heathen goddess of that name. Its length is about 30 miles, and its breadth in some places 15, in others 5 or 6, and in one place only 2, as it is of an extremely irregular figure.

It contains four excellent harbours, one of which is that of Kirkwall, the capital of the Orkneys. This town extends nearly a mile in length, but contains only about 330 houses. The cathedral is a fine Gothic building, dedicated to St. Magnus, but now converted into a parish church. Its roof is supported by 14 pillars on each side, and its steeple by 4 large pillars. The three gates of the church are chequered with red and white polished stone, embossed and elegantly flowered.

The other principal islands of this group are South Ronaldsha, Hoy, Sanda, Westra, and North Ronaldsha.

South Ronaldsha is one of the most fertile of the Orkneys: it is about 6 miles long, and from 2 to 5 broad. Hoy is about 9 miles in length and 6 in breadth, and is divided at high tides into two isles. In this island is a mountain called Wart Hill, of the height of 1620 feet; the summit of which, in the months of May, June, and July, shines and sparkles in an extraordinary manner when seen at a distance, though this brightness disappears on a nearer approach. The peasants on this account call it the "enchanted carbuncle." The cause of this phenomenon has been supposed to be the reflexion of the rays of the sun from some water; but no such water, when sought, has been discovered. In a dark valley of Hoy, is a kind of hermitage cut out of stone, called the dwarfe-stone, 36 feet long, 18 feet broad, and 9 feet thick; in which is a square hole, about 2 feet high, for an entrance, with a stone of the same size for a door. Within this entrance is the resemblance of a bed, with a pillow cut out of the stone, large enough for two men to lie on; at the other end is a couch, and in the middle a hearth, with a hole cut out above for a chimney. The isle of Sanda is 12 miles long, from 1 to 3 broad, and of an extremely irregular form. Westra is 8 miles long and 5 broad. North Ronaldsha is only about 2 miles in length and 1 in breadth.

The inhabitants of the Orkneys, who were near 29,000 in number in 1831, and have since considerably increased, consist of the mixed descendants of Norwegian colonists and Lowland Scots. They now speak the language of the latter, and are more civilized than their Highland neighbours. Kirkwall has a considerable trade, and possesses a great number of merchant vessels. The exports consist of beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, salted fish, and linen yarn; and the imports, of coal, wood, sugar, spirits, wines, tobacco, snuff, hardware, printed linens and cottons, &c. Kelp used formerly to be largely exported, but since it has been superseded by carbonate of soda made from salt, the export has dwindled to a mere trifle. This has turned out a benefit. Under the old system, the mass of the population were, in all but name, serfs attached to the soil, being bound to labour at kelp-making for the landlord, in exchange for a miserable cottage and little patch of land, and living from year to year without hope or prospect of bettering their condition. The failure of the market for kelp emancipated them, as, their labour ceasing to be valuable to the landlord, they were left at liberty to employ it in any occupation which they found most advantageous. The consequence has been a great extension of agriculture, and the rise of the herring fishery, which had been entirely neglected, into a branch of industry of great importance. The general soil of the country, though shallow, is far from being infertile. Cattle of a small species abound in some of the islands; seafowl and fish are still more numerous. The cod and herring fishery are now carried on to a great extent, and bring large sums of money into the islands. The trees are few and stunted; yet, in some of the morasses, trunks of old trees have been found, about the length of thirty feet. Iron is found in various parts; and it is probable that the discovery of other useful minerals would reward the activity of research.

Among the antiquities of the Orkneys may be mentioned the *tumuli* or funeral hillocks in Westra, the upright stones of Stennis, a camp in Rousa, and a number of Picts' houses, formed of large stones without cement, rising from a circular base into the shape of a truncated cone.

The Shetland Isles are situated about 20 leagues to the north-east of the Orkneys. Forty-six are reckoned, beside many holms and skerries, which swell the whole number to more than 100. The principal, called the Mainland, is about 60 miles in length, and varies from 3 to 10 miles in breadth; but it is so broken by creeks and inlets, that scarcely any part of it is distant more than two miles from the sea. These inlets form at least 20 harbours, 6 of which are very spacious and commodious. The town of Lerwick, the only town of these islands, stands on the eastern side of Mainland, opposite the harbour called Brassa Sound, which is capable of containing above 2000 ships commodiously and safely. This town contains a population of between 2000 and 3000. Skalloway, on the western side, which was once a town of some importance, is now a very inconsiderable village, though the ruins of a castle are still to be seen there; and it is the seat of a presbytery. The other islands of this group present nothing which merits particular notice. Yell, situate to the north-east of Mainland, is 20 miles long, and 5 or 6 miles broad. It contains 8 considerable harbours. Unst is 11 miles long, and 6 miles broad, and has two excellent harbours.

The coasts of all these islands are in general rugged and precipitous, presenting in many places scenes truly grand and magnificent; and their interior is a rugged and bleak scene of barren rocks, with scanty portions of cultivated ground. They are at present destitute of trees, though there is reason to believe that they were not in former times. The air is keen and salu-

brious and many of the natives live to a very great age.

From their northern situation, they enjoy, during two months of the middle of the summer, almost perpetual day—there being sufficient light at midnight, in the months of June and July, for any person to see to read, when the sky is clear. In the opposite season of the year the duration of the night is correspondent, the sun not being above the horizon more than five hours and twenty minutes in the month of December. Though there is little frost or snow, fogs, rain, storms, and a tempestuous sea, prevent the Shetlanders from having any communication, during six or seven months, either with the neighbouring islands or other countries. A remarkable instance of this is, that a Scottish fisherman was imprisoned in May, 1689, for stating that the prince and princess of Orange had been raised to the throne of England in the preceding November; and he would probably have been hanged, had not the news been confirmed by the arrival of a ship.

The number of inhabitants in the Shetland islands, in 1831, was 26,135, and it has since increased. The last separate census for Shetland has not yet been published; but it appears that the Orkneys and Shetland, which, in 1831, contained only 58,239 inhabitants, contained 60,007 in 1841. Their chief food consists of fish, and various kinds of sea-fowl which cover the rocks, and in taking which they display extraordinary address and courage. Agriculture here is in a very low state, oats and barley being the only grain sown. The cattle are rather larger than those in the Orkneys. These islands are famous for a very small breed of horses, which are extremely active, strong, and hardy, and are frequently employed to draw the carriages of the wealthy and curious of the capital, especially the ladies, on account of their diminutive size and beauty. The trade consists principally in the export of fish.

The natives of these islands differ little in their character and habits from the Lowland Scots, except that their manners are more simple, and their minds less cultivated. Their religion is the Protestant, according to the discipline of the kirk, and their civil institutions are nearly the same with those of the country to which they belong.

The islands both of Shetland and Orkney were, from the 9th century, subject to Norway, and were sold, in the 13th century, by Magnus of Norway, to Alexander, king of Scotland. They were afterwards claimed by, and became subject to, the crown of Denmark. Christian I., in the reign of James III., conveyed them in property to the crown of Scotland, as a marriage portion with his daughter Margaret; and all future pretensions were entirely ceded on the marriage of James VI. of Scotland with Anne of Denmark. They are so inconsiderable in a political point of view, that they are only allowed to depute one member to the parliament of the united kingdom.

IRELAND.

It appears that Ireland was known to the Greeks by the name of Juverna. The Romans called it Hibernia. In the middle ages it was frequently termed Scotia, which name was transferred to Scotland when the Scoti from Ireland settled in that country. Its native denomination is Erin, or the land of the West; from which, probably, the English name originated.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, N. E. to S. W.	306	between	51. 30. and 55. 20. N. lat.
Breadth, E. to W.	207.		5. 20. and 10. 15. W. long.

Ireland contains 30,370 square miles, with about 280 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries — Divisions.—By the boundaries of an island we must be understood to mean the different names which are given to the sea by which it is surrounded in different parts. With regard to its aquatic boundaries, Ireland has, to the north, west, and south, the Atlantic Ocean; and to the east St. George's Channel, *which separates* it from Wales, the Irish Sea, by which it is divided from Lancashire and Cumberland, and the North Channel, which separates it from Scotland. The distance from Dublin to Holyhead in North Wales is about 60 miles; but from Donaghadee to the Mull of Galloway in Scotland, it is only 20 miles. The country is divided into four provinces, Leinster, Ulster, Connaught, and Munster; in which are 32 counties. The first and the last are the most populous.

Face of the Country.—Ireland is in general a level country, particularly in the central part of it, the face of which is pleasingly diversified by nature with occasional hills and gentle undulations, and clothed by the mild temperature and humidity of the air with an unfading verdure. Yet a great part of the island, from the scarcity of trees, and the want of that improvement which it seemed to invite, presented only a naked aspect, before the late extraordinary progress of cultivation.

Mountains.—Although Ireland is far from being a mountainous country, several chains of lofty hills are found in different parts. In the county of Down are ridges, called the moun-

tains of Mourne and Iveagh, one of which (Mount Donard) has been calculated at a perpendicular height of 2800 feet. Mangerton, in Kerry, is about 2500 feet high, and Mac Gillicuddy's Reeks, in the same county, rise to an altitude of 3404 feet, and are the highest ground in Ireland. Nephin and Croagh Patrick in Mayo, are 880 yards high. The latter is in the form of an immense cone, and discernible at the distance of 50 miles.

Forests.—There were formerly extensive forests in the counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Antrim; and considerable woods in those of Wicklow, Wexford, Tipperary, and Cork. But these have now disappeared, or at least have been greatly diminished, partly by the extension of tillage, and partly by the consumption of them in fuel for domestic uses, and for the iron manufactories.

Bogs.—The bogs of Ireland, or, as they are called by the northern Irish, mosses, form a principal feature of this country. They differ from the English morasses in being rarely level, but rising into hills. In Donegal there is a bog which represents a perfect scenery of hill and dale. Many of them are very extensive; that of Allen, although it has been much diminished by reclaiming a great portion of it, still extends 50 miles in length, and is computed to contain 190,000 acres. There are many others of great extent, and smaller ones are scattered over the whole island. In the county of Cavan, for instance, 90 bogs are reckoned. Where they do not occupy too great a proportion of the land, they are very useful to the inhabitants, by the abundance of fuel which they furnish. The waters of these bogs, far from emitting putrid exhalations, like standing pools and marshes, are of an antiseptic and strongly astringent quality; as appears from their preserving for ages, and even adding to the durability of, the timber which is found buried beneath their surfaces, and from their converting into a kind of leather the skins of various animals which have had the misfortune of being lost in them. According to the report of a committee of inquiry, in 1814, the extent of peat soil in Ireland exceeds 2,830,000 acres, of which above 1,500,000 may be said to consist of flat red bog, convertible, with due care and attention, to the general purposes of agriculture, while the remainder forms the covering of mountains, of which a very large proportion might easily be improved for pasture, or still more beneficially applied to the objects of plantation.

Lakes.—There are in Ireland a great number of lakes, or, as they were formerly called, loughs, particularly in the provinces of Ulster and Connaught. The principal are that of Erne, in the county of Fermanagh, which is 40 English miles in length, and 12 in its greatest breadth, at its northern extremity; that of Corrib, in the shire of Galway, about 20 miles in length, and from 2 to 5 wide; and the great lake Neagh, in the province of Ulster, above 32 miles in length, and 16 in breadth, occupying an area of nearly 60,000 Irish, or above 90,000 English acres. It is now navigated by steam-boats. The water of the last-mentioned lake is said to have a petrifying quality. Some of the Irish lakes afford surpassingly beautiful and romantic prospects, particularly that of Killarney, in the county of Kerry. This lake, which may be divided into three, is surrounded with mountains, rocks, and precipices, the declivities of which are covered with woods, intermixed with evergreens, from near their tops to the lakes themselves; among which are a number of rivulets tumbling over the precipices, some from heights of little less than 300 feet. On the top of one of the surrounding mountains is a small round lake, about a quarter of a mile in diameter, called the Devil's Punch-bowl. From the surface of the lake to the top of the cavity, or brim of the bowl, may be about 300 yards; and, when viewed from the circular top, it has a most astonishing appearance. The depth of it is vastly great; but not unfathomable, as the natives pretend. The discharge of the superfluous waters of this bowl through a chasm into the middle lake, forms a fine cascade. The echoes among the hills surrounding the southern part of the lake, which is mostly enclosed, are equally delightful and astonishing. The proprietor, the earl of Kenmare, has placed some cannon in the most proper places, for the amusement of the visitants; and the discharge of these pieces is tremendous, almost resembling the rolling of a violent peal of thunder, which seems to traverse the surrounding scenery, and die away among the distant mountains. Here also musical instruments, especially the horn and trumpet, afford the most delightful entertainment, and raise a concert superior to that of a hundred performers. Among the vast and craggy heights that encompass the lake, is one stupendous and frightful rock, the front of which toward the water is a horrid precipice, called the Eagle's Nest, from the number of those birds which have their nests in that place.

Rivers.—The largest river in Ireland is the Shannon, which issues from Lough Allen, in the county of Leitrim, serves as a boundary between Connaught and the three other provinces, and, after a course of 190 miles, forming in its progress many beautiful lakes, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry Point and Loop Head, where it is almost nine miles broad. The navigation of this river was interrupted by a ridge of rocks spreading across it, south of Killaloe; but this inconvenience has been remedied by a short canal: communications have also been made with other rivers, and the work of improving the Shannon itself is carried on with vigour. The Bann flows into the ocean near Coleraine: the Boyne falls into St. George's Channel at Drogheda, as does the Liffey at the bay of Dublin, and is only remarkable for watering that capital, where it forms a spacious harbour. The Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir, the last of which is the second Irish river in point of magnitude, water the southern parts

of the country, and, after uniting their streams below Ross, enter the Channel by the haveu of Waterford.

Bays and Harbours.—The bays, havens, harbours, and creeks, which everywhere indent the coast, form the chief glory of Ireland, and render that country, beyond any other in Europe, best fitted for foreign commerce. Among the most considerable are those of Carrickfergus, Strangford, Carlingford, Dundalk, Dublin, Waterford, Dungarvon, Cork, Kinsale, Baltimore, Bantry, Dingle, Shannon Mouth, Galway, Sligo, Donegal, Lough Swilly, and Lough Foyle.

Canals and Railroads.—The improvements of inland navigation have not been neglected in Ireland. By the canal of Newry a communication is formed between the great lake Neagh and the bay of Carlingford; and by that of Lisburne a navigation is opened between the same lake and the bay of Carrickfergus. But the two largest canals in Ireland are those which are called the Grand and the Royal. Both of these proceed from the Liffey at Dublin, and join the Shannon, the former at Bannagher, whence it is continued to Ballinasloe, and the latter at Tarmonbarry. The length of the Grand Canal and its branches is 164 miles; that of the Royal, and its branches, is 99 miles. The Grand Canal has a communication with the Barrow at Athy. At present there is only one railroad, the Kingstown, of five miles in length, which is in operation, and part of another, the Ulster, to the extent of eight miles. Several, of great extent, are, however, about to be commenced.

Metals and Minerals.—Ireland contains mines of iron, copper, lead, silver, and gold. The last-named metal was discovered, in 1797, in the county of Wicklow; but the hopes of ample produce were not gratified, and the mine was soon left to itself. A mine, in the shire of Antrim, yields a pound of pure silver from thirty pounds of lead. There are also silver-mines, though not equally productive, in the shires of Sligo and Tipperary. There is a rich mine of copper at a place called Crone Bawn, in the county of Wicklow, and another at Redhills, in that of Kildare. The most productive metallic mines are those of lead and copper, of which many are successfully worked.

Some of the Irish marble-quarries, of which there are many, in various parts of the kingdom, contain a kind of porphyry, which is red, striped with white. Quarries of fine slate are found in most of the counties. Mines of coal are found in many parts of Ireland, particularly near Castlecomer in the county of Kilkenny; the coal from which, being of a hard sort, and proper for the forging of iron, is conveyed, even by land carriage, to very distant parts of the island.

Climate, Soil, and Agriculture.—The climate of Ireland differs not much from that of England, except that it is more moist. From the reports of various registers, it appears that *the number of days* on which rain had fallen in Ireland was much greater than in the same years in England. But, in many respects, the climate of Ireland is more agreeable than that of England, the summers being not so hot, and the winters less severe.

The moisture above alluded to, being peculiarly favourable to the growth of grass, has been urged as an argument why the inhabitants should confine their attention to the rearing of cattle, to the total desertion of tillage, and consequent injury to the growth of population; but the soil is so infinitely various, as to be capable of almost every species of cultivation suitable to such latitude, with a fertility equal to its variety. This is so conspicuous, that Mr. Young, comparing Ireland with England, attributes the superiority of natural fertility to the former. Agriculture, indeed, has not been properly encouraged, and the farmers are oppressed by the middle-men, who rent farms of the landlords, and let them out to the occupiers: yet, says the same writer, "in proportion to the extent of the two countries, Ireland is more cultivated than England, having much less waste land." He adds, "The circumstance that strikes me as the greatest singularity of Ireland, is the rockiness of the soil, which should seem at first sight against fertility; but the contrary is the fact. Stone is so general, that I have good reason to believe the whole island is one vast rock, of different strata and kinds, rising out of the sea. I have rarely heard of any great depths being sunk without meeting with it. In general it appears on the surface in every part of the kingdom; the flattest and most fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath, have it at no great depth, almost as much as the more barren ones. May we not recognise in this the hand of bounteous Providence, which has given, perhaps, the most stony soil in Europe to the moistest climate in it? If as much rain fell on the clays in England, (a soil very rarely met with in Ireland, and never without much stone,) as falls upon the rocks of her sister-island, those lands could not be cultivated. But the rocks here are clothed with verdure; those of limestone, with only a thin covering of mould, have the softest and most beautiful turf imaginable."

Vegetables.—The vegetable productions of Ireland are nearly the same as those of England. Few countries yield better grain than what is produced in the parts of the island where the culture of it receives due attention. Great quantities of hemp and flax are raised, especially in the northern counties, where the linen manufacture is principally carried on. Potatoes, as is well known, seem especially to suit the soil of the country, and are a particular object of cultivation in all parts of Ireland.

Animals.—Wolves were formerly found in Ireland, and were not exterminated till near the end of the 17th century. The Irish wolf-dogs, a species of large greyhounds, near four feet in height, are nearly extinct. In some parts of the country some herds of red-deer are

wild, particularly in the mount- t near the lake of Killarney. Whe- ' be attributed to the soil or the s certain that in Ireland there are es nor toads, nor any kind of ser- : magpie and the nightingale are ' that country; and it is said that ird, if brought over in a cage, soon es. Some other birds likewise, and s of fish, which abound in England, n in Ireland.

CURIOSITIES.—The greatest na- ity in Ireland is that immense pile olumns, called the Giants' Cause- county of Antrim, about eight miles ise; which is thus described by , bishop of Ossory. He says, that d the most westerly point at high e distance of 360 feet from the cliff; old, that at low water it extended er upon a descent, till it was lost

Upon measuring the eastern und it 540 feet from the cliff; and 1 more of it as of the other, where the east, and is, like that, lost in

seway is composed of pillars, all of pes, from three sides to eight. The it, where it joins the rock, termi- perpendicular cliff, formed by the s of the pillars, some of which are hes high. Each pillar consists of s or stones, lying one upon ano- inches to about 1 foot in thickness; s very surprising, some of these o convex, that their prominences uarters of spheres, round each of ledge, which holds them together eatest firmness, every stone being the other side, and fitting in the nner the convexity of the upper beneath it. The pillars are from n diameter, and generally consist oints, most of which separate very ne may walk along upon the tops s as far as to the edge of the water. is not the most singular part of dinary curiosity, the cliffs them- still more surprising. From the ch is of black stone, to the height feet, they are divided at equal dis- stripes of a reddish stone, that cement, about 4 inches in thick- his there is another stratum of the stone, with a stratum 5 inches ie red. Over this is another stra- thick, divided in the same manner; um of the red stone 20 feet deep, at a row of upright pillars; above lies another stratum of black high; and, above this again, ano- of upright pillars, rising in some tops of the cliffs, in others not so others again above it, where they ie Chimneys. The face of these about three English miles."

Ireland abounds in cataracts, caverns, and romantic prospects. The scenery of the lake of Killarney has been already described. In the side of the mountain of Kishecorran, in the county of Sligo, are six caverns, which extend to the distance of 80 or 90 feet. The sides are covered with a smooth white substance, like plaster. The largest has, at the entrance, a kind of hall of a circular form, about 30 feet in diameter, and as many in height. Near Cork there is a vast subterranean labyrinth, called the Oven, the extent of which has never been fully explored, though several bold investigators have advanced into it to the distance of a quarter of a mile or more. But the most remarkable cavern in Ireland is the cave of Dunmore, near Kilkenny. This has only been explored as far as a subterranean river, which runs through it about a quarter of a mile from the entrance, where it is a difficult descent of about 100 feet. One part of this cavern resembles a grand Gothic structure in ruins; the other has the appearance of a magnificent temple, from the ceiling of which depend stalactitic concretions, in the forms of inverted cones and pyramids, which, when strongly illuminated, shine with astonishing brilliance, and produce a most extraordinary effect.

The largest cataract in Ireland is that of Adragool, in Bantry Bay. On the top of a rocky mountain, which rises almost perpendicularly, is a lake of considerable size, from which issues a sheet of water at first 30 feet wide, which expands as it descends, and, dashing from rock to rock, forms a series of cataracts, till it is projected, in the form of an arch, over a lower hill into the sea. It is visible at the town of Bantry, at the distance of 14 miles.

POPULATION.—In 1672, there were, according to Sir William Petty, no more than 1,100,000 persons in the whole extent of Ireland, and in the reign of Queen Anne, there were at least 2,000,000. Since then, the population has been rapidly on the increase. In 1821, it was 6,801,827, and in 1831 it was 7,767,401. The census of 1841 has not yet been printed; but an estimate which was made in 1837, by the Irish Railway Commissioners, raises the number to 8,523,750.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.—It is justly observed by Dr. Leland, with regard to the manners of the ancient Irish, that, if we make our inquiries on this subject from English writers, we find their representations odious and disgusting; if from writers of their own race, they frequently break out into the most animated encomiums of their great ancestors. The one can scarcely allow them any virtue: the others, in their enthusiastic ardour, can scarcely discover the least imperfection in their laws, government, or manners. The historian of England sometimes regards them as the most detestable and contemptible of the human race; the antiquary of Ireland raises them to an illustrious eminence above all *other* European nations. Yet, when we exa-

mine their records, with regard to legendary tales or poetic fictions, we find them, even in their most brilliant periods, advanced only to an imperfect civilization; a state which exhibits the most striking instances both of the virtues and the vices of humanity.

With respect to the present descendants of the old Irish, or, as they are sneeringly termed by the Protestants, the *mere Irish*, they are generally represented as an ignorant, uncivilized, and blundering sort of people. Impatient of abuse and injury, they are implacable and violent in all their affections; but quick of apprehension, courteous to strangers, charitable, and patient of hardship. Though in these respects there is, perhaps, little difference between them and the more uninformed part of their neighbours, yet their state of barbarism may more easily be accounted for, from accidental than from natural causes. The far greatest part are Papists, and, in consequence of this, they have been shamefully oppressed for centuries, and have also laboured under many discouragements, which in their own country have prevented the exertion both of their mental and bodily faculties; but, when employed in the service of foreign princes, they have been distinguished by intrepidity, spirit, and fidelity. Many of their surnames have an *O*, or *Mac*, placed before them, which signify grandson and son. Formerly the *O* was used by their chiefs only, or such as piqued themselves on the antiquity of their families. Their favourite musical instrument is the harp; but, like their Caledonian brethren, they also make use of the bagpipe. Their tunes are generally of a melancholy strain; though some of their latest airs are lively, and, when sung by an Irishman, are extremely diverting. The old Irish is generally spoken in the interior parts of the kingdom, where some of the ancient uncouth customs still prevail, particularly their funeral howlings. The custom of placing a corpse before their doors, laid out upon a table, having a plate upon the body to excite the charity of passengers, is practised even in the environs of Dublin.

The common Irish, in their manner of living, seem to resemble the ancient Britons, as described by Roman authors. Mean huts, or cabins built of clay and straw, partitioned in the middle by a wall of the same materials, serve the grand purpose of accommodating the family, who live and sleep promiscuously, having their fires of turf in the middle of the floor, with an opening through the roof for a chimney; the other being occupied by a cow, or such pieces of furniture as are not in immediate use. Yet, notwithstanding this disadvantageous mode of living, there are few females who are more chaste and modest than the poorest Irish.

Their wealth consists of a cow, sometimes a horse, some poultry, and a spot for potatoes. Coarse bread, potatoes, eggs, milk, and sometimes fish, constitute their food; for, however abundantly the fields may be stocked with cattle, that animal food of which the higher and middle classes are so fond, is a rarity to the Hibernian poor. Yet their children, amidst scanty and wretched fare, are plump, robust, and hearty; and even the labourers, for whom better nourishment would seem to be necessary, are by no means deficient in personal strength.

The descendants of the English and Scots, since the conquest of Ireland by Henry II., though not the most numerous, form the most opulent part of the nation. Of this description are most of the nobility and gentry, and also the principal traders, who inhabit the eastern, northern, and southern coasts, where most of the trade of Ireland is carried on. It is remarkable that a great part of the north of Ireland, though the poorest soil, is, next to Dublin and its neighbourhood, the best cultivated and most flourishing part of the kingdom. Here a colony of Scots, in the reign of James I., and other Presbyterians who fled from persecution in that country in the succeeding reigns, planted themselves, and established that great staple of Irish wealth, the linen manufacture, which they have since brought to perfection.

The gentry, and the middle class, differ little in language, dress, manners, and customs, from those of the same rank in Great Britain, whom they imitate. Their hospitality is well known.

Cities, Chief Towns, and Edifices.—Dublin, the capital of Ireland, situated in the county of the same name, and province of Leinster, is, in magnitude and number of inhabitants, the second city in the British dominions. In 1831, the population, including the outports and suburbs beyond the canal, was 227,335, of which number the city contained 185,881. It is about 10 miles in circumference, being nearly 2½ miles in length, and as much in breadth. It stands about 7 miles from the sea, upon the river Liffey, which divides it almost into two equal parts, and is banked in, through the whole length of the city, on both sides, which form spacious and noble quays, where vessels below the first bridge load and unload before the merchants' doors and warehouses. To protect the harbour from the winds, a mole has been constructed, nearly 4 miles in length, with a lighthouse on its extremity, and another corresponding to it on the opposite promontory, called the Hill of Howth. A stranger, on entering the bay of Dublin, which is about 7 miles broad, and in stormy weather extremely dangerous, is agreeably surprised with the beautiful prospect on each side, and the distant view of the Wicklow mountains; but the city itself, from its low situation, makes no striking appearance. Many parts of it, however, are very fine; and, while the old streets are narrow and mean, the new streets are as elegant as those of Westminster. Every year improvements are made, by widen-

ing streets, and removing dilapidated buildings. Sackville-street, which is sometimes called the Mall, is particularly noble. The houses are elegant, lofty, and uniformly built, and a gravel walk runs through the whole at an equal distance from the sides.

The river Liffey, though navigable for considerable vessels as far as the custom-house, or centre of the city, is small, when compared with the Thames at London. It is crossed by six bridges, three of which are elegant, especially Sarah's Bridge, consisting of one arch, 105 feet in the span, or width across the stream, and 28 feet high.

Many of the public edifices of Dublin are very magnificent; among which may be enumerated the late parliament-house, (now a national bank,) the university, the courts of justice, the inns of court, the custom-house, and the royal exchange, an elegant structure of stone, with semi-columns of the Corinthian order, a cupola, and other ornaments. The castle, which is the residence of the viceroy, stands on a rising ground, on the south side of the river, near the centre of the city, and consists of two courts, one of which is of an oblong rectangular form, the other a less regularly shaped quadrilateral.

St. Stephen's Green is a very spacious and beautiful square, more than a mile in circuit, round which there is a gravel walk. Many of the houses in this square are very elegant; but a want of uniformity is observable. In this respect it is greatly exceeded by the new square near it, called Merrion Square; the houses of which, being lofty and uniform, and built with stone as high as the first floor, give the whole an air of magnificence, not perhaps exceeded by any place in England, except Bath.

The civil government of Dublin is by a lord mayor, &c., the same as in London. Every third year, the lord mayor, and the 24 companies, by virtue of an old charter, are obliged to perambulate the city and its liberties, which they call Riding the Franchises. On this occasion the citizens vie with each other in show and ostentation, which is sometimes productive of disagreeable consequences to many of their families. In Dublin there are 18 parishes, a cathedral, 18 parish churches, 8 chapels, 3 churches for French and 1 for Dutch Protestants, 7 Presbyterian meeting-houses, 2 for Methodists, several for Quakers, and numerous Roman Catholic chapels. There are also two theatres; a royal hospital, like that of Chelsea, for invalids; a lying-in-hospital, with gardens, built and laid out in the finest taste; an hospital for lunatics, founded by the famous Dean Swift, who died insane; and other hospitals for patients of every description.

Dublin appears to have felt the consequences of the Union. The removal of its parliament has not only diminished its dignity, but has increased the number of emigrating nobility and gentry, and protracted the period of their absence. Yet, as it boasts of a splendid court, still possesses the great tribunals, and exhibits other marks of honour and respectability, while the flow of its commerce is quickened by an infusion of British capital, the inhabitants ought not to complain loudly of the particular inconveniences of a measure which has been salutary in its general effects.

Cork is the second city in Ireland, for magnitude and population. It lies 160 miles south-west of Dublin, in the county of Cork, and province of Munster, and in 1831 contained 100,658 inhabitants. Its haven is deep, and well sheltered from all winds; but only vessels of 200 tons can come up to the city, which stands about seven miles up the river Lee. Its trade is very considerable; and there is, perhaps, a greater quantity of beef, tallow, and butter, shipped off here, than in all the other ports of Ireland taken together. Hence, there is a great resort of ships to this port, particularly of those bound from Great Britain to the West Indies, which put in here to victual and complete their lading. A considerable traffic is carried on with Bristol, and steam-boats pass regularly between the two cities. Some spacious and well-built streets have been added to the town; and the public buildings, if they are not all handsome or elegant, are large and commodious. In the number of its benevolent institutions, Cork has few rivals.

Limerick, capital of the county of the same name, in the province of Munster, ranks third among the commercial towns of Ireland. It is 119 miles from Dublin, and, in 1831, contained 59,045 inhabitants. It is divided into three parts, Englishtown, Irishtown, and Newtown Pery, and was formerly a strongly fortified place. It is seated on the Shannon, nearly 100 miles from the mouth of the river. Of the bridges which connect the severed parts of the city, Wellesley Bridge, a recent erection, is remarkable for the beauty of its architecture. Manufactures and trade are in a flourishing condition. Here are linen, woollen, cotton, paper, and glove manufactories, breweries, distilleries, salt-works, and tanneries. Limerick exports immense quantities of bacon, pork, beef, butter, wheat, oats, rapeseed, and linen cloth and yarn. The customs' duties collected at Limerick, in 1840, amounted to £169,493.

Waterford, which is also the capital of a county, and situated in the province of Munster, is the rival of Limerick in commercial prosperity. It is situated on the northern bank of the Suir, and vessels of 500 tons burden can lie in deep water at the quay. The town has several handsome buildings, among which are the cathedral, the bishop's palace, and the Roman Catholic cathedral. Beef, butter, grain, hides, tallow, and pork, are the principal articles of export. The quay, which is nearly a mile long, is often seen crowded with live stock, which is about to be embarked; 5000 hogs are weekly slaughtered in the neighbourhood; and about 100,000 casks of butter are every year ex-

ported. The customs' duty collected at Waterford, in 1840, was £196,388. In 1831, the population was 28,670.

The great emporium of commerce in the north of Ireland is Belfast, which is situated in the county of Antrim, and province of Ulster, and, in 1831, had a population of 37,277 persons. It stands at the end of the Lagan river, and has many handsome streets, squares, and public buildings. Its exports consist of grain, provisions, linens, cottons, and wool. The amount of customs' duty paid in 1840, which was £365,023, will give some idea of the magnitude of its commerce.

Derry, or Londonderry, in the county of the same name, and province of Ulster, celebrated for its gallant resistance to the army of James II., stands on the river Foyle, and, in 1831, had a population of 11,000 inhabitants. Its imports are chiefly West Indian and American produce; and its exports consist of linen, yarn, hides, cattle, butter, and various agricultural productions. In 1840 the customs' duties amounted to £103,900.

Commerce and Manufactures.—The exports of Ireland are linen, lawn and cambric, corn, horses and black cattle, salted provisions, hides, tanned leather, calf skins dried, horns of oxen and cows, ox hair, horse hair, lead, copper ore, dried fish, otter skins, goat skins, and some other commodities. The Irish have carried their inland manufactures, even those of luxury, to a considerable height; and their viceroys and their courts have lately encouraged them by their examples, and, while they are in that government, make use of no other.

Government and Laws.—Before the Union, Ireland was governed by its own parliament, consisting of a house of commons, composed of 300 members, and a house of peers, while the king was represented by a lord-lieutenant, or viceroy; but, by the articles of Union, which took place in 1801, the two islands have become one realm, by the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The office of lord-lieutenant is still continued. Of the peers of Ireland, at the time of the Union, four spiritual lords, by rotation of sessions, and 28 temporal peers for life, sit and vote in the House of Lords; and 105 commoners, 2 for each county of Ireland, 2 for the city of Dublin, 2 for the University, 2 for the city of Cork, 2 for Belfast, 2 for Limerick, 2 for Waterford city, 2 for Galway, and 1 for each of the 27 most considerable cities, towns, and boroughs, form the number of representatives of Ireland in the united legislature. At the time of the Union the number of Irish members was only 100; 5 members were added by the reform bill.

The laws of Ireland differ very little from those of England; for, after the conquest of Ireland, the laws of England were received by the Irish nation, assembled at the council of Lismore; and, by subsequent particular acts *made in* Ireland, the statutes in force in *England have* been adopted, and decisions in common law have been taken i so that the laws of the two count the same.

For the regular distribution of are in Ireland four terms in ever decision of causes; and four cour the Chancery, King's Bench, Cc and Exchequer. The high sl several counties were formerly c people, but are now nominated b

Revenue and Debt.—The re in a great measure combined with Britain; but it was settled at th Union, that, while Britain shou fifteen parts toward the general e the United Kingdom, Ireland sho two parts. The deficiency of the before the Union, led to an acc debt: but the amount is small, c the general debt of the empire, s subjected to the operation of sinking fund.

Knighthood.—The order of St sists of the sovereign and thirt companions. Their ribbon is of l their badge is three crowns unit with the motto round, *Quis se* fastened by an Irish harp to tl perial.

Religion.—The established re land is the same with that of Eng the bulk of the people, however, l valent. The Irish Papists still nominal bishops and dignitaries, v the voluntary contributions of th

From a return made, in 1834, by sioners of Public Instruction, it there were then in Ireland 6,431,(852,676 members of the Establi 642,356 Presbyterians, 21,808 oth dissenters, and 6254 whose religi be ascertained. The proportion to the whole mass of Protestan 4½ to 1. A great majority of th inhabit the northern counties: t are scanty in the southern.

Great efforts have been made, e days of James I., in erecting fre civilizing and converting the Iri Protestantism. The institution c porated Society for promoting testant Working-schools, has be successful, as have been many ir the same kind, in introducing knowledge among the Irish.

Before the change took place, ir Irish ecclesiastical establishment, 4 archbishoprics, and 18 bishopric bishoprics were Armagh, Dublin, the bishopric of Emly annexed, an that of Ardagh. The bishoprics v Meath, Kildare, Kilmore, Clogh and Kilmacdugh, Cork and Ross, Achonry, Elphin, Ossory, Waterf more, Dromore, Down and Conno Leighlin, Raphoe, Limerick, Ardfe

Derry, and Killaloe and Kilfanora. f 3 and 4 William IV. it was di- on the demise of the present see of Dromore should be united d Connor, Clogher to Armagh, Derry, Elphin to Ardagh and Kil- rt to Killaloe, Killala to Tuam, ublin, Cork to Cloyne, Waterford d Ossory to Ferns; and also that of Tuam should be united to that and Cashel to Dublin; so that Tuam and Cashel should only be A considerable diminution was the revenues of the richest sees. se unions have been since effected. here are 2 archbishoprics and 14

n Catholic establishment consists hoprics, and 23 bishoprics; the d dioceses of which have for the same limits as formerly belonged e Established Church.

terians are divided into two sects. ost numerous of these is in con- he Ulster synod, which agrees in d doctrine with the Church of e other agrees with the synod of the Remonstrant synod, among rian opinions are prevalent. The y has a synod of its own.

of the Established Church derive from church lands and tithes; resbyterian Church from parochial l an annual government grant, *rium donum;* the Roman Catholic aintained entirely by dues which he people.

E.—Learning seems to have been Ireland at a very early period. It when St. Patrick landed in Ireland, any holy and learned Christian hose votaries were pious and obe- den observes, that "the Irish St. Patrick profited so notably in that, in the succeeding age, Ire- ned *Sanctorum Patria.* Its monks celled in learning and piety, that hole flocks of most learned men of Europe, who were the founders asteries." We have also the testi- e, that, about the middle of the many nobles, and other orders of xons, retired from their own coun- and, either for instruction, or for ity of living in monasteries of pline; and that the Scots (as he rish) maintained them, taught nished them with books, without : "a most honourable testimony," ttleton, "not only to the learning, to the hospitality and bounty of

times, the Irish have also distin- selves in the republic of letters. Usher does honour *to literature Swift, who was a native of Ireland,* has perhaps never been excelled in the walks of wit, humour, and satire. The sprightliness of Farquhar's wit is well known to all lovers of the drama; and, among the men of distinguished genius whom Ireland has produced, we may also mention Sir Richard Steele, Bishop Berkeley, Parnell, Sterne, and Goldsmith. To these we may add Burke, an admirable orator and a masterly writer, and Sheridan, whose eloquence was exceeded only by his ability in dramatic composition. In later times, Moore, Banim, Miss Edgeworth, and a multitude of other writers, have nobly upheld the literary fame of their native land.

Collegiate Foundations, and Literary Societies.—Ireland contains only one university, which is denominated Trinity College. It consists of two quadrangles, in the whole of which are 33 buildings of 8 rooms each. It was founded and endowed by Queen Elizabeth; but the original foundation consisted only of a provost, 3 fellows, and 3 scholars; which has from time to time been augmented to 22 fellows, 70 scholars, and 30 inferior students. The whole number of students, including those who pay for their education, may be calculated at 2000. There are 13 professors of various sciences. Trinity College has a power of conferring the degrees of bachelor, master, and doctor, in all the arts or faculties.

With a liberal spirit of toleration, and from a wish to prevent the emigration of the Catholics to the continent, for the purpose of receiving instruction, the Royal College of St. Patrick was erected at Maynooth, in 1795, by order of the Irish parliament: and it continues to flourish under the patronage of the imperial legislature, being supported by annual grants. It consists of two departments, lay and ecclesiastical, and the course of study comprehends ancient and modern languages, logic, mathematics, and divinity. It has 11 professors, 3 lecturers, and about 400 students. The building consists of a centre and wings, extending to a length of 400 feet.

An Irish Academy was incorporated in 1786, not only (like the Royal Society of London) for the advancement of philosophy and science, but also for the study of antiquities and the promotion of elegant literature. Many of its published papers are interesting and valuable. Public lectures are delivered here, in geology, mineralogy, chemistry, natural philosophy, and botany. Dublin has also a Royal Hibernian Academy, for the encouragement of painting and sculpture; a Royal College of Surgeons; and various literary institutions. Its charitable establishments are exceedingly numerous.

Language.—The Irish language is a dialect of the ancient Celtic. Its usage occasions among the common people, who speak both that and the English, a peculiar tone in speaking, which is general among the vulgar, and prevails even among persons of a higher class, who do not understand Irish.

The Lord's Prayer in Irish is as follows:—

"Ar nothairne ata ar neamh, nasmhthar hairm; tigeadh do riogachd; deuntar do thoil, ar an ttalamh mar ata ar neamh; tabhair dhuirn a niu ar naran lethamhail; agus maithdhuirn ar bhfiacra amail mar maithmidrne mar bhfeitheamhnuibb fein; agus na leig sinn a cathughadk, achd saor sinn o olc: oir is leat fein an rioghachd, agus an cumhachd, agus an ghloir gufforuige. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—Among the principal antiquities of Ireland are the round towers, which are tall hollow pillars of stone and lime, of a nearly cylindrical form, but narrowing upward, with a conical roof. Fifty of these towers, from 50 to 150 feet high, and from 8 to 12 feet in diameter, are still standing in different parts of Ireland. Antiquaries do not agree with respect to their origin and use; some supposing that they were built by the Danes and Norwegians in their piratical incursions, who made use of them as spy-towers, light-houses, or beacons; and others, that they served as belfries to the monasteries; which, it is said, is agreeable to the import of their Irish name, *cloghad*. From their resemblance to the Picts' houses in the Orkney and Shetland islands, the former opinion is the more probable.

In Ireland likewise are found cairns, carnedhs, or piles of loose stones heaped up on the tops of hills, for the celebration of some pagan rites; circles of stones; barrows or artificial hillocks; cromlyeeaghs, or large flat stones raised from the ground, horizontal or inclined, intended probably for the purposes of superstition; and we may add, that the ruins of stately castles, erected in the 12th and 13th centuries by the Anglo-Norman colonists, are found in almost every part of the country.

HISTORY.—The history of Ireland has been carried back to a very remote antiquity, and may, with greater justice than that of almost any other country, be distinguished into the legendary and authentic. In the reign of Edward II. an Ulster prince boasted to the pope of an uninterrupted succession of 197 kings of Ireland, to the year 1170! Even the more moderate Irish antiquaries carry their history up to 500 years before the Christian era, at which time they assert that a colony of Phœnicians, immediately from Spain, settled in Ireland, and introduced the Phœnician language and letters into this country; and that, although it might have been peopled still earlier from Gaul or Britain, Heber, Heremon, and Ith, the sons of Milesius, gave a race of kings to the Irish, distinguished by the name of Gadelians, and Skuits, or Scots. But, as our limits will not permit us to enlarge on the dark and contested parts of the Irish history, we shall only observe that, about the middle of the 5th century, the celebrated St. Patrick was employed in the propagation of Christianity in Ireland, though that country had been long before visited by Christian missionaries, by whose means it had *made a considerable* progress among the rude *inhabitants. After* this period, Ireland was occasionally invaded by the Saxon kings of England; and, in the years 795 and 798, the Danes and Norwegians, or, as they were called, Easterlings, invaded the coast of Ireland, and were the first who erected stone edifices in that kingdom. The natives defended themselves bravely against the Easterlings, who built Dublin, Waterford, Limerick, Wexford, and Cork, but resided chiefly at Dublin, or in its neighbourhood, which, by the old Irish, was called Fingal, or the Land of Strangers. The people, about the year 962, seem to have called to their assistance the Anglo-Saxon king Edgar, who had then a considerable maritime power; and this might have given occasion for his clergy to call him king of a great part of Ireland. It is certain that Dublin was about that time a flourishing city, and that the Irish gave the Easterlings several defeats, though the latter were supported by their countrymen from the continent, the Isle of Man, and the Hebrides.

In the 12th century, Henry II., of England, formed a design of annexing Ireland to his dominions. He is said to have been induced to this by the provocation he had received from some of the Irish chieftains, who had afforded considerable assistance to his enemies. His design was patronized by the pope, and a fair pretext for attacking Ireland was offered in the year 1168. Dermot Mac-Murchad, king of Leinster, an oppressive tyrant, quarrelled with all his neighbours, and carried off the wife of a petty prince, O'Rourk. A confederacy being formed against him, under Roderic O'Connor (who, it seems, was the paramount king of Ireland,) he was driven from his country, and took refuge in the court of Henry, who promised to restore him, if he would take an oath of fidelity to the crown of England, for himself and all the petty princes depending on him, who were very numerous. Henry, who was then in France, recommended Dermot's cause to the English barons, particularly to Richard Strongbow, earl of Pembroke, Robert Fitz-Stephen, and Maurice Fitzgerald. Those noblemen undertook the enterprise, upon the same motives and principles which actuated the Norman and Breton lords, in the expedition to England under William I.; and Strongbow was to marry Dermot's daughter. In 1169, the adventurers reduced the towns of Wexford and Waterford; and the next year, Strongbow arriving with a considerable reinforcement, his marriage with the fair Eva was celebrated.

The descendants of the Danes continued to possess Dublin, which, after some ineffectual opposition made by Roderic, was taken and plundered by the English. On the death of Dermot, Henry became jealous of Strongbow, seized his estates in England and Wales, and recalled his subjects from Ireland. The Irish about the same time, to the amount of 50,000, besieged Dublin under their principal king: but, though all Strongbow's Irish friends and

allies had now left him, and the city was reduced to extremity, he forced the enemy to raise the siege, after a great diminution of their number; and, returning to England, he appeased Henry by swearing fealty to him and his heirs, and resigning into his hands all the towns and forts which he held in Ireland.

In 1171, Henry, attended by 400 knights, 4000 veteran soldiers, and the flower of his nobility, landed near Waterford: and not only all the petty princes of Ireland, except the king of Ulster, but even the chief potentate, submitted to the English monarch, who pretended that O'Connor's submission included that of Ulster, and that consequently he was the sovereign of Ireland. He kept a magnificent court, and held a parliament at Dublin, where he distributed the manors of Ireland among the English nobility, and settled a civil administration. Thus the conquest of Ireland was apparently effected by the English, almost with as much ease as that of Mexico by the Spaniards, and for much the same reasons—the rude and unarmed state of the natives, and the dissensions that prevailed among their princes or leaders. But the conquest was, in fact, merely nominal.

Henry gave the title of Lord of Ireland to his son John, who, in 1185, went over to that country; but the prince and his giddy Norman courtiers made a very ill use of their power, and rendered themselves odious to the Irish, who were otherwise not hostilely disposed toward the English. Richard I. was too much occupied with the crusade to pay any great regard to the affairs of Ireland; but King John, after his accession, made amends for his former behaviour toward the Irish. He prosecuted his father's plan of introducing into Ireland the English laws and officers, and he erected those parts of the provinces of Leinster and Munster, which were within the English pale, into 12 counties. We find, however, that the descendants of the ancient princes, in other parts, gratified him with no more than a nominal subjection. They governed by their old Brehon laws, and exercised all acts of sovereignty within their own states. The English power was, in reality, confined within narrow bounds. The part over which it ruled was known by the name of the Pale.

The unsettled reign of Henry III., his wars and captivity, detracted from the high opinion which the Irish had formed of the English government; but they seem to have continued quiet under his son Edward I. Gaveston, the favourite of Edward II., acquired great credit while he acted as lord-lieutenant of Ireland; but the successes of the Scottish king, Robert le Brus, had almost proved fatal to the English interest in Ireland, and suggested to the Irish the idea of transferring their allegiance from the kings of England, to King Robert's brother Edward. That prince accordingly invaded Ireland, where he gave repeated defeats to the English governors *and armies: and he was* actually crowned king, at Dundalk; but he seems to have been violent in the exercise of his sovereignty, and he was at last defeated and slain. After this, Edward II. ruled Ireland with great moderation, and enacted judicious laws for the benefit of that country.

During the minority of Edward III. commotions were renewed in Ireland, and not suppressed without great loss and disgrace on the side of the English. In 1333 a rebellion broke out, in which the English inhabitants had no inconsiderable share. A succession of vigorous, brave governors, at last quieted the insurgents; and, about the year 1361, Edward's son, Lionel, (ancestor of the House of York,) having married the heiress of Ulster, was sent over to govern Ireland, and, if possible, to reduce its inhabitants to an entire conformity with the laws of England. He rendered himself highly popular by his administration; but he did not accomplish his grand object.

In 1394, Richard II., finding that the execution of his despotic schemes in England must be abortive without farther support, passed over to Ireland, with an army of 34,000 men, well armed and appointed. As he made no use of force, the Irish looked upon his presence to be a high compliment to their nation, and admired the magnificence of his court. The king, on the other hand, courted them by all the arts he could employ, and bestowed the honour of knighthood on their chiefs. In short, he behaved so as entirely to win their affections. But in 1399, after having acted in a very despotic manner in England, he undertook a fresh expedition to Ireland, to revenge the death of his lord-lieutenant, the earl of March, who had been killed by the wild Irish. His army struck the natives with consternation, and they threw themselves upon his mercy.

The Irish, after Richard's death, still retained a warm affection for the House of York, and, when that family asserted its claim to the crown, they embraced its cause. Edward IV. made the earl of Desmond lord-lieutenant of Ireland, for his services against the Ormond party and other adherents of the House of Lancaster, and he was the first Irish chieftain who obtained this honour. Even the accession of Henry VII. to the crown of England did not reconcile the Irish to his title as duke of Lancaster: they therefore readily joined Lambert Simnel, the impostor; but they were defeated in their attempt to invade England. This made them unwilling at first to join Perkin Warbeck, notwithstanding his plausible pretence of being the young duke of York. He was, however, at last recognised as king by the Irish; and, in our history of England, the reader may learn the event of his pretensions. Henry behaved with moderation toward his favourers, and was content with requiring the Irish nobles to take a fresh oath of allegiance to his government. This lenity had the desired effect during the administration of the two

earls of Kildare, the carl of Surrey, and the earl of Ormond. Henry VIII. governed Ireland by supporting its chiefs against each other; and, when the emperor Charles V. endeavoured to gain them to his interest, the king appointed his natural son, the duke of Richmond, lord-lieutenant. This did not prevent the Irish from breaking out into a rebellion in 1540, under Fitz-Gerald, who had been lord-deputy, and was won over by the emperor, but was at last put to death by the king's order.

About the year 1542, James V., king of Scotland, formed some pretensions to the crown of Ireland, and was favoured by a strong party among the Irish themselves. It is difficult to say, had he lived, what the consequence of his claim might have been. Henry, understanding that the Irish had a mean opinion of his dignity, as his predecessors had hitherto assumed no higher title than that of lords of Ireland, declared himself king of that country; and his new dignity made a great impression upon the natives, who thought that allegiance was not due to a mere lord. It produced a more ready submission of the people; and even O'Neil, who pretended to be successor to the last paramount king of Ireland, swore allegiance to Henry, who created him earl of Tyrone.

In the reign of Edward VI., the pope and the emperor kept up an interest in Ireland, and the latter even sent troops into that country to oppose the government; but the views of those bigots were frustrated by the spirit of the lord-deputy, and that religious reformation which the young king patronized took place in the English part of Ireland with little or no opposition. The Irish seem to have been very quiet under the government of Mary; but they proved thorns in the side of Elizabeth. The perpetual disputes she had with the Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, gave her great uneasiness; and the pope, and the emperor's son Philip of Spain, always found new resources against her in Ireland. The Spaniards gained possession of Kinsale; and the rebellions of Tyrone, who baffled and outwitted her favourite general the earl of Essex, are well known in English history.

The lord-deputy, Mountjoy, who succeeded Essex, was the first Englishman who gave a mortal blow to the practices of the Spaniards in Ireland, by defeating them and the Irish before Kinsale, and bringing Tyrone prisoner to England, where he was pardoned by Queen Elizabeth. The lenity shown to such an offender, is a proof of the queen's dread of the popish interest in Ireland. James I. confirmed the possessions of the Irish; but such was the influence of the pope and the Spaniards, that the earls of Tyrone and Tyrconnel, and their party, planned a new rebellion, and attempted to seize the castle of Dublin; but, their plot being discovered, the chiefs fled to the continent. They were not idle abroad; for in 1608 they instigated a young chieftain, named *O'Dogherty, to a fresh* rebellion, by promising him speedy supplies of men and money from Spain. He was killed in the contest, and his chief adherents were put to death. The attainders of the Irish rebels, which passed in the reigns of Elizabeth and James, vested in the crown 511,455 acres, in the counties of Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Cavan, and Armagh; and enabled the king to make that Protestant plantation in the north of Ireland, by which the most rebellious province of the kingdom was converted to habits of order and of tranquil industry.

Those prodigious attainders, even supposing them to be just and necessary, operated fatally for the English in the reign of Charles I. The Irish Catholics in general were influenced by their priests to hope not only to repossess the lands of their forefathers, but to restore the popish religion in Ireland. They are said therefore to have entered into a conspiracy for massacring all the English Protestants in that kingdom; but the fact of such a conspiracy is doubtful. They were encouraged in their design of throwing off the yoke, by the unhappy dissensions that broke out between the king and the parliaments of England and Scotland. The discovery of their scheme, by the ruling power at Dublin, prevented that city from falling into their hands. They, however, partly executed, in 1641, their alleged scheme of massacre; but authors differ as to the number of persons who were murdered; the amount has been exaggerated by warm Protestant writers, some of whom have extended the calculation to 150,000: authors less inflamed with zeal have estimated the amount of the sufferers at 40,000; other accounts speak of 10,000 or 12,000; and some have greatly diminished that number. There is, indeed, reason to believe, that the loss sustained by the Protestants has been enormously and wickedly exaggerated, for factious purposes. From that time to the death of Charles, Ireland was in a state of disorder and commotion. When Cromwell was sent by the parliament to subdue the royal party in that kingdom, he met with speedy and complete success, and, in the course of the campaign, he retaliated upon the Catholics (but in a most unjustifiable and atrocious manner, at Drogheda) the cruelties which they had inflicted upon the Protestants. So severely did they suffer, that they were quiet during the reign of Charles II. His popish successor, and brother, James II., even after the Revolution took place, found an asylum in Ireland; and was encouraged to hope, that, by the assistance of the natives, he might remount his throne; but he was deceived, and his own weakness of mind co-operated to his disappointment. He was driven out of Ireland by his son-in-law, after the battle of the Boyne, the only evident victory that King William ever gained in person; a victory, however, on which depended the safety of the Protestant religion, and the liberties of the British empire. Had James been victorious, he probably would have been

and, being irritated by opposition, a every restraint, he would have en all rights, civil and religious, and most arbitrary designs. The army consisted of 36,000 men; that of r 33,000, but advantageously posted. rue, fought at the head of an un- abble; and his French auxiliaries , behaving like heroes. It must be d, however, that he left both the kingdom too soon for a brave man. t of Ireland was completed by the Limerick. A favourable capitula- ated, but was speedily violated. tures that fell to the crown, on ie Irish rebellions and the Revolu- ost incredible; and, if the acts of which gave them away had been rced, Ireland would have been al- y peopled with British inhabitants. l reasons occurred for not driving despair. The friends of the Revo- he Protestant religion were suffi- fied out of the forfeited estates. the Roman Catholics might have abroad; and it was thought proper balance should be preserved be- tholic and the Protestant interests. fore deemed prudent to relax the ernment, and not to put the for- igorously into execution. But this nly apparent. As soon as it was . resistance was impossible, a suc- nal laws was enacted, of the most nd galling nature, by which the ere placed in a worse condition the serfs of feudal times. Their l their civil rights were equally der foot.

suffered likewise by the unjust posed by the parliament of Eng- heir trade. These restraints had nd, without benefiting Great Bri- Irish had been prohibited from ng their own wool, in order to roollen manufacture of England; ence of which was, that the Irish uggled over into France, and the at country were thereby enabled our woollen manufacture, and to a part of that trade. An embargo n laid on the exportation of pro- Ireland, which had been extremely that kingdom. The distresses of anufacturers, as well as those of in, had likewise been much in- he consequences of the American circumstances occasioned great in Ireland, and attempts were relief of the inhabitants of that the British parliament, but for ithout success; for a partiality to England prevented justice from Ireland. But several incidents, ed afterwards, at length operated vour of that *kingdom. When a* large body of the king's troops had been withdrawn from Ireland, in order to be employed in the American war, a considerable number of Irish gentlemen, farmers, traders, and other persons, armed and formed themselves into volunteer companies for the defence of Ireland against invasion. By degrees these associations became numerous and well-disciplined; and it was soon discovered, that they were inclined to maintain their rights at home, as well as to resist foreign enemies. The Irish now began to assume a higher tone than that to which they had before been accustomed; and their remonstrances met with unusual attention, both from their own parliament and from that of Great Britain. The latter, in 1779, voted an address, recommending to the king's most serious consideration the distressed and impoverished state of the loyal and well-deserving people of Ireland, and desiring him to give orders for a communication of such particulars relative to the trade and manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland, as might enable the national wisdom to pursue effectual measures for promoting the wealth, commerce, and interest, of his majesty's subjects in both kingdoms. To this address the king returned a favourable answer; and, in the same year, both houses of the Irish parliament also voted addresses, in which they declared, that nothing but the grant of a free trade could save the kingdom from ruin. Being disposed to doubt the patriotism of the members, the people of Dublin, assembling before the parliament-house, endeavoured, by clamours and menaces, to compel all who entered to swear that they would support the interest of their country by voting for a short money-bill; and they demolished the house of the attorney-general. The tumult at length subsided: and two money-bills for six months only were sent over to England, where they passed the great seal, and were immediately returned, without any dissatisfaction at the limited grant.

In the mean time, the members of the opposition in the British parliament strongly represented the necessity of an immediate attention to the complaints of the people of Ireland, and of a compliance with their wishes. The arguments on this side of the question were also enforced by the accounts which stated, that the volunteer associations in that kingdom amounted to 40,000 men, unpaid, self-appointed, and independent, well armed and accoutred, daily improving in discipline, and increasing in number. The ministry appeared for some time to be undetermined what part they should act in this important business; but the remembrance of the fatal effects of rigorous measures respecting America, and the critical situation of Great Britain, induced the first lord of the treasury to bring in such bills as were calculated to afford effectual commercial relief to the people of Ireland.

The freedom of trade, thus conceded, gave *great joy* to the Irish, who were encouraged to

aim also at important constitutional reformations; and, in various counties and cities, the right of the British parliament to make laws, which should bind Ireland, was denied in public resolutions. By degrees the spirit which had been manifested by the leaders of the Irish parliament seemed to subside; and a remarkable instance of this was, their agreeing to a perpetual mutiny bill, for the regulation of the Irish army, though that of England had always been passed, with a true constitutional caution, only from year to year. This was much exclaimed against by some of the Irish patriots; and it is indeed not easy to clear their parliament from the charge of inconsistency: but this bill was afterwards repealed. The reviving zeal of the leading members at length proved completely successful; and, in 1782, the two houses were fully emancipated from the jurisdiction of the British parliament.

In the following year, the government, nobility, and people of Ireland, vied with each other in giving an asylum to many families of the Genevese who were banished from their city, and to others who voluntarily exiled themselves for the cause of liberty, not willing to submit to an aristocracy of their own citizens, supported by the swords of France and Sardinia. A large tract of land in the county of Waterford was allotted for their reception, a town was marked out, and a sum of money granted for erecting the necessary buildings. These preparations for their accommodation were, however, rendered ultimately useless by some misunderstanding which arose between the parties.

In 1788, the lords and commons of Ireland addressed the prince of Wales, requesting him to assume the government of that kingdom during his majesty's indisposition, under the style and title of Prince Regent of Ireland; and to exercise and administer, according to the laws and constitution of the realm, all the royal authorities, jurisdictions, and prerogatives. The lord-lieutenant having declined presenting the address, as contrary to his oath and the laws, the two houses appointed delegates, who delivered it to his royal highness. His majesty having recovered from his severe indisposition, the prince returned an answer fraught with the warmest sentiments of regard for the kingdom, and of gratitude to the parliament for that offer, which was thus rendered nugatory.

The parliament of Ireland afterwards extended some indulgence to the Roman Catholics of that kingdom, by establishing the legality of intermarriage between them and the Protestants, by admitting them to the profession of the law and the benefit of education, and by removing all obstructions upon their industry in trade and manufactures; and, in 1793, a bill passed the legislature, by which the Catholics, being freeholders, were permitted to become *parliamentary electors*. They were not fully satisfied with these concessions, but wished for a repeal of all remaining disqualifications; and when, in the beginning of the year 1795, Earl Fitzwilliam was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland, they considered the disputed points as conceded by the ministry. But when a bill had been introduced for their gratification, the great power and influence of the Beresfords, a family distinguished by inordinate ambition and rapacity, occasioned the recall of the popular viceroy, who was succeeded by Earl Camden; and thus, to gratify a few insatiable and worthless individuals, the happiness and safety of Ireland were exposed to destruction. The whole system of administration was now changed; all ideas of concession on the part of the government were abandoned, and coercive measures alone employed to silence all complaints. Of this harsh and unyielding system, the factious and disaffected took advantage to promote their views and increase the number of their adherents.

About the beginning of the year 1791, a society was instituted under the appellation of United Irishmen, the ostensible principles of which were parliamentary reform, and what they termed Catholic emancipation, or a restoring of the Catholics to all the privileges of Irish subjects. This society is said to have owed its origin to Theobald Wolfe Tone; and its constitution evinced much ability and political knowledge. The principal article of the confederation expressed, that "the society was constituted for the purpose of forwarding a brotherhood of affection, a community of rights, and a union of power, among Irishmen of every persuasion; and thereby to obtain a complete reform in the legislature, founded on the principles of civil, political, and religious liberty." For several years, from the secrecy and circumspection with which its affairs were conducted, it attracted little of the attention of government. But the violence of party disputes which followed the recall of Earl Fitzwilliam considerably increased the number of its adherents, and added to them several persons of abilities and influence; particularly Arthur O'Connor, Dr. Mac-Nevin, Counsellor Emmet, and Oliver Bond, an opulent citizen of Dublin. From the confession of these very persons, it appears that, when they joined this society, the views of its leader were no longer confined to parliamentary or constitutional relief of any kind; since, in 1796, through the medium of Mr. Tone, a regular communication was opened between the French directory and the United Irishmen; and, in the summer of 1796, Lord Edward Fitzgerald proceeded to Switzerland, and had an interview near the French frontier with General Hoche, when it is believed the whole plan of an invasion was finally adjusted. An attempt to carry it into execution was made in the following winter, (1796,) when the French fleet took the opportunity, afforded by a thick fog, to elude the vigilance of Admiral Colpoys, by whom it had been

for several months blocked up in Brest, and set sail for Ireland. But the fleet was dispersed by violent storms; a part of it, however, consisting of eight two-deckers, and nine other vessels, anchored in Bantry Bay. The absence of their general, as well as the violence of the weather, preventing any attempt to effect a landing, they quitted the coast in despair. A considerable degree of alarm was excited in Ireland by the appearance of this armament; but the people in general evinced the most determined loyalty, and manifested the greatest readiness to meet and resist the enemy, if a descent should be attempted.

The failure of the expedition under Hoche, did not, however, discourage the members of the Irish Union; they, on the contrary, endeavoured more firmly to cement their alliance with France, and established a regular communication and correspondence with that country. New arrangements were made for an invasion; and Dr. Mac-Nevin, about this time, transmitted to the French government a memorial, in which he stated that 150,000 United Irishmen were enrolled and organized in the province of Ulster. During the summer of 1797, great preparations were therefore made for a second attempt, both at Brest and in the Texel; it having been determined that the Dutch should supply a fleet and land-force to co-operate in this design. But the plan was rendered abortive by the memorable victory of Lord Duncan over the Dutch fleet.

The most active and vigorous measures were now adopted by the government. A very considerable addition was made to the military force of the kingdom; a bill was enacted, prohibiting seditious meetings; the *habeas corpus* act was suspended; whole counties were proclaimed out of the king's peace, and seizures made of great quantities of concealed arms. In the enforcement of these measures, innumerable acts of rigour, and even of the most brutal and ferocious cruelty, appear to have been committed by the agents of the government; but it should be at the same time remembered, that acts of atrocious barbarity were likewise committed by the rebels.

The measures of rigour (for nothing can justify cruelty) were in some degree justified by a complete discovery of the traitorous designs and proceedings of the society. A person of the name of Reynolds, hoping to profit by a disclosure of the conspiracy, communicated such information as led, in March, 1798, to the apprehension of many of the most active malecontents. New directors were instantly chosen, and most anxious consultations were holden by the alarmed conspirators. Finding that their renewed schemes were imparted to the viceroy by another informer, they resolved to hazard an insurrection, while they yet possessed the means of action. To check their views upon the metropolis, the guards of the castle, and of all the principal objects of attack, were trebled, and the *whole city was in fact* converted into a garrison. The infatuated multitude, however, implicitly obedient to the directions of their leaders, rose in various parts of the country; and about 15,000 appeared, ill-armed indeed and wretchedly accoutred, in the neighbourhood of Wexford. They made themselves masters of that town, where they liberated from prison Mr. Beauchamp Bagenal Hervey, who was afterwards nominated to the chief command of their army. Under him they attacked the towns of New Ross, but were repulsed with great slaughter: they were likewise repelled in assaults upon other places. The royal forces, however, suffered a check on the 4th of June, when, a strong post of the rebels being attacked by Colonel Walpole, he was unfortunately killed in the beginning of the action, and his corps, being in a situation in which it was unable to act, was forced to retire to Arklow. Encouraged by this success, the rebel army, on the 9th, presented itself before Arklow, where General Needham commanded a considerable body of the king's troops; but the position which he had taken, and the dispositions he made, were such that they were defeated with great loss.

On the 21st of June, General Lake made his grand attack on the strong position of the rebels on Vinegar Hill, near Enniscorthy, having gradually collected troops from every part till he had almost surrounded them. They fought with an appearance of spirit, but at length fled with precipitation, leaving a great number of killed and wounded. Immediately after this action, a large body of the king's forces advanced to Wexford, which General Moore entered so opportunely as to prevent the town from being laid in ashes. The insurgents, before they retired, offered to treat; but General Lake refused to sign any terms with armed rebels, though to the deluded multitude he promised pardon, on condition of instant submission. Hervey had quitted the army soon after the battle of New Ross; but, being discovered and taken with some others in a cave, he was tried by a court-martial, and hanged on the bridge of Wexford.

In the beginning of June, alarming commotions likewise took place in the north of Ireland, and the insurrection soon became almost general in the counties of Down and Antrim; but on the 12th the rebels received a total defeat at Ballinahinch. They fought with great obstinacy; and their leader Monro was made prisoner, to whom no mercy was shown.

The British ministry, in the mean time, though not dissatisfied with the conduct of Lord Camden, resolved to give Ireland a military lord-lieutenant; and when the Marquis Cornwallis had assumed the reins of government his conduct was temperate and judicious. He sent a message to the House of Commons, intimating that he had received his majesty's commands to acquaint them, "that he had signified *his gracious* intention of granting a general *pardon* for all offences committed on or before

a certain day, upon such conditions, and with such exceptions, as might be compatible with the general safety: but these offers of mercy to the repentant were not to preclude measures of vigour against the obstinate."

A special commission was now opened in Dublin for the trial of the principal delinquents, several of whom were punished with death. Among them Bond was tried, convicted, and condemned; but the court consented to pardon him, and to desist from any farther prosecution of the other leaders of the conspiracy, who on their parts engaged to make a full confession of all the proceedings and plans of the society; after which they were permitted to transport themselves to any country not at war with his majesty. Bond survived his pardon only a few days; and O'Connor, Mac-Nevin, and the rest, after having been a considerable time confined in Ireland, were removed to prisons in Scotland; whence, after the conclusion of peace in 1802, they were permitted to transport themselves to France.

After the failure of the expedition under Hoche, France, fortunately for Great Britain, made no attempt to assist the Irish insurgents till it was too late; and the aid then sent was very feeble, and inadequate to the end proposed. Some frigates and transports from France appeared in Killala Bay, and landed about 1000 men, with a quantity of arms and ammunition. Few insurgents joined the invaders; but the French general, Humbert, by his conduct proved himself an officer of ability, and worthy of command where there was a fairer prospect of success. He advanced without loss of time to Castlebar, where Lake was collecting his forces; attacked, and compelled him to retreat; after which he advanced toward Tuam; but, on the 7th of September, the Marquis Cornwallis came up with the French in the vicinity of Castlebar, when they retired; and the next morning, after a slight resistance, they surrendered at discretion. The rebels who had joined them were dispersed, and a great number of them killed or taken.

Every estimate of the number of those who lost their lives in this deplorable contest must be vague and uncertain. Some have stated it at 30,000, while others have swelled it to 100,000 —of whom they say nine tenths were of the insurgents; the loss of the royalists being about 10,000 men. Slaughter and desolation at length procured a kind of peace; but the great problem was to discover by what means the flames of discord might be prevented from bursting out afresh. As the most effectual preventive of a repetition of these calamities, government recommended a legislative union of the two kingdoms. A proposition for such a union was submitted to the two parliaments on the same day (January 22, 1799;) and, in the British legislature, the address, which was considered as an approbation of the measure, passed without a division. A similar address was carried *in the Irish House of Lords* by a majority of 33, but rejected in the other House by a majority of 2, which the next day increased to 6 against the measure: it was therefore laid aside for that time. Government, however, by no means totally abandoned it; for, in the beginning of the next session, the proposition was again submitted to the parliament of Ireland. The address in the House of Lords passed without a debate; and, after an animated discussion in the Lower House, which lasted till the noon of the following day, it was approved by a majority of 42. The act of union afterward passed through the two parliaments; and the incorporation took place at the commencement of the year 1801.

It cannot be denied that unity in government has many advantages, and is indeed essentially necessary; and that a firm consolidation of the three kingdoms, with an impartial and equal distribution of protection and rights, fairly granted and faithfully maintained, must tend to infuse new life into every part of the united nation, while it adds to the prosperity, the wealth, and the power of the whole. But it was not alone to produce this unity that the union was planned. It was designed to lead to the emancipation of the Irish Catholics. As the Catholics would then be reduced to a minority, it was thought that concessions might safely be made to them. But this conciliatory scheme was frustrated by prejudice and bigotry.

For some years after the union, a spirit of disaffection continued to manifest itself among the lower orders in many parts of Ireland. The agents of the leaders in the last rebellion renewed their attempts to excite an insurrection similar to the former; but, fearing that their designs were discovered, in consequence of the explosion of a quantity of gunpowder in a house which they had hired for a *depôt*, they were induced to rise before their plans were matured. On the 23rd of July, 1803, great numbers of persons of the lower classes suddenly flocked to Dublin from different parts of the country, and a riotous mob assembled with a view of surprising the castle. Meeting with Lord Kilwarden, the chief justice of Ireland, who, as attorney-general, had conducted the prosecutions, after the last rebellion, they forced him and his nephew out of his carriage, and barbarously murdered them with their pikes. The delay which the perpetration of this atrocious act occasioned, afforded time for some troops to assemble, and the insurgents were attacked and dispersed. Many were apprehended and tried, and several suffered death, for this feeble and rash attempt at rebellion. Among those who were not spared was Emmet (son of the counsellor,) the director and leader of the misguided multitude.

Since that time, no open insurrections have occurred in Ireland; but commotions have occasionally arisen, and many acts of brutal violence have been committed in different parts, from the discontent of the inferior people, arising from agrarian extortion, the pressure of

the struggles of religious faction. the Catholic disabilities, which er the head of "England," has, much to conciliate the Irish tly, a very considerable change e in the habits of numbers of who, by the exhortations of a have been induced to abjure the us liquors. A senseless cry for the union, which is kept up by Mr. O'Connell, is now almost the sole cause of agitation in Ireland. Yet even that cry would probably have been raised in vain, had not the people been irritated by Lord Stanley pertinaciously striving to obtain an act, ostensibly for the purpose of registering voters, but which was believed to be intended to diminish the number of them, and would undoubtedly have produced that effect.

FRANCE.

its name from the Franks, or rman nation, who, having con- ils, the ancient inhabitants, took the north-eastern parts of the

NT AND SITUATION.

Degrees.

between { 42½. 51. N. lat. 5. W. and 8. E. long.

revolution, France contained miles, with 161 inhabitants to is now reduced nearly to the ons; but, from the subsequent opulation, there are now about uare mile.

s.—It is bounded by the English the Netherlands on the north; zerland, and Germany, from the h it is separated by the Rhine, by the Mediterranean and the untains, which divide it from south; and by the Bay of Biscay By the treaty of the year 1815, concluded between the allied powers and Louis XVIII., the line of boundary was traced along the Netherlands, so as to leave Philippeville and Marienbourg, with the whole duchy of Bouillon, without the French frontier; then passing by the Saar, it left out Saar-Louis; proceeding by the Lauter, it allowed Weissenbourg to the French. It followed the course of the Rhine to the neighbourhood of Basle; turned off to the south-west toward the district of Mount Jura; and left the Pays de Gex to the Helvetic state, to be united with the canton of Geneva. Thence, to the Mediterranean, the limits were precisely the same as in the year 1790.

Divisions.—The ancient provinces of France were divided by the first revolutionary assembly into 83 departments, which were increased by new acquisitions to 108. In consequence of the subtraction of 22 after the pacification of Paris, 86 now form the aggregate number. Both the former and the latter divisions of the realm are given in the following list:—

ient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
ı Flanders . .	Nord	Douai
. . . . .	Pas de Calais . . .	Arras
r	Somme	Amiens
	Lower Seine . . .	Rouen
	Calvados	Caen
ndy	Manche	Coutances
	Orne	Alençon
	Eure	Evreux
	Seine	Paris { N. L. 48. 50. E. L. 2. 25.
France . . .	Seine and Oise . . .	Versailles
	Oise	Beauvais
	Aisne	Laon
	Seine and Marne . .	Melun
	Marne	Chalons sur Marne
ıagne	Ardennes	Sedan
	Aube	Troyes
	Upper Marne . . .	Chaumont
	Meuse	Bar sur Ornain
ae	Moselle	Metz
	Meurthe	Nanci
	Vosges	Epinal
. . . . .	Lower Rhine . . .	Strasbourg
	Upper Rhine . . .	Colmar

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Bretagne	Isle and Vilaine	Rennes
	Lower Loire	Nantes
	Côtes du Nord	St. Brieux
	Finisterre	Quimper
	Morbihan	Vannes
Maine and Perche	Sarthe	Le Mans
	Mayenne	Laval
Anjou	Mayenne and Loire	Angers
Touraine	Indre and Loire	Tours
Orleannois	Loiret	Orleans
	Eure and Loire	Chartres
	Loire and Cher	Blois
Berri	Cher	Bourges
	Indre	Chateauroux
Nivernois	Nièvre	Nevers
Bourbonnois	Allier	Moulins
Burgundy	Yonne	Auxerre
	Côte d'Or	Dijon
	Saône and Loire	Macon
Franche-Comté	Upper Saône	Vesoul
	Doubs	Besançon
	Jura	Lons le Saulnier
	Ain	Bourg
Poitou	Vienne	Poitiers
	Deux Sèvres	Niort
	Vendée	Fontenay le Comte
Saintonge and Aunis	Lower Charente	Saintes
Angoumois	Charente	Angouleme
Marche	Creuse	Gueret
Limousin	Upper Vienne	Limoges
	Correze	Tulles
Auvergne	Puy de Dôme	Clermont
	Cantal	St. Flour
Lyonnois	Rhône	Lyon
	Loire	Montbrison
Dauphiné	Isere	Grenoble
	Drôme	Valence
	Upper Alps	Gap
Guienne	Gironde	Bourdeaux
Perigord	Dordogne	Perigueux
	Lot and Garonne	Agen
Quercy	Lot	Cahors
	Tarn and Garonne	Montauban
Rouergue and Marche	Aveyron	Rhodez
Gascony	Landes	Mont de Marsan
	Gers	Auch
	Arriège	Foix
	Upper Pyrenees	Tarbes
Bearn	Lower Pyrenees	Pau
Roussillon	Eastern Pyrences	Perpignan
Languedoc	Upper Garonne	Toulouse
	Tarn	Albi
	Aude	Carcassonne
	Herault	Montpelier
	Gard	Nismes
Cevennes	Lozère	Mende
	Ardèche	Privas
	Upper Loire	Le Puy
Provence	Mouths of the Rhone	Aix
	Lower Alps	Digne
	Var	Toulon
Corsica	Corsica	Ajaccio
Territory of Avignon and County of Venaissin	Vaucluse	Avignon

rtment forms three, four, or five
led arrondissements. These are
to cantons, which are composed of
nber of communes. A commune
a single town, and sometimes
of several villages, possessing
municipality. All the consider-
e divided into several communes.
of each department is a prefect,
ed by a council, and possesses a
e authority. There are also a de-
uncil, and a district and commu-
to perform various public duties.

THE COUNTRY.—A considerable
e is a plain country; but its ap-
ry various in different parts, and
s are finely diversified with hills
he departments of Upper Vienne
and others in the south, afford
ld beautiful landscapes; while
ld provinces of Bretagne, Anjou,
esent extensive wastes of heath,
ost the appearance of deserts.

I.—The chief mountains in France
s, are the Alps, which form its
the side of Italy; the Pyrenees,
t from Spain; the Vosges, which
department of that name from
per Saone and Upper Rhine;
which divides France from Swit-
the Cevennes in the south, a
comprehends the highest moun-
ice. The mountains in the de-
Puy de Dôme and Cantal (the
ice of Auvergne) are remarkable
anic nature. The whole of the
udded with extinct volcanoes,
me remote period, beyond the
ory, have evidently been in tre-
on.

Since the Revolution the forests
e been much diminished. Many
in the possession of the nobles
ical communities, and were con-
e revolutionary governments. On
ey passed into the hands of indi-
cut down the timber, and par-
e land into small farms. The
sts of France do not now occupy
out 17,000,000 of acres, of which
an 1,000,000 is covered with full
trees. The six best wooded
f France are Côte d'Or, Corsica,
, Vosges, the Nièvre, and the
are, however, extensive woods
rs; such as those of Orleans and
. The Breton departments are
ily wooded. In the department
there are extensive pine forests.
ndy country, the shepherd pea-
tly move about upon lofty stilts,
mselves by a long stick behind
p. Not more than one-seventh
ich forests is the property of the
a regular public establishment
ement of the *forests; they are* divided into 32 districts, each of which has a conservator, who has under him horse and foot guards and inspectors.

LAKES.—The lakes of France are not numerous. The most considerable is the Lac de Grand Lieu, in the department of the Lower Loire. It is two leagues and a half long, and two leagues wide: it is formed by the waters of the Boulogne, Ognon, and other small rivers, and communicates with the Loire by the river Achenau. In the maritime departments of the south-west and south-east, there are also pieces of water of considerable magnitude, and, in the departments of the Ain and the Meurthe there are many lakes of small dimensions.

RIVERS.—The principal rivers in France are the Loire, the Rhone, the Garonne, and the Seine. The Loire takes its course north and north-west, being, with all its windings from its source to the sea, supposed to run about 500 miles. The Rhone flows on the south-west to Lyons, and then runs to the south till it falls into the Mediterranean. The Garonne rises in the Pyrenean mountains, takes its course first north-east, and has a communication with the Mediterranean, by means of a canal: it afterwards turns to the north-west, and proceeds to the Bay of Biscay; in the lower part of its course it bears the name of the Gironde. This name it receives on its junction with the Dordogne. The Seine, rising in the Côte d'Or, runs to the north-west, visiting Troyes, Paris, and Rouen, in its way, and falls into the English Channel at Havre-de-Grace; having been joined in its course by the Marne, the Oise, the Aisne, and other streams. To these we may add the Saone, which falls into the Rhone at Lyons; the Charente, which rises in the department of Upper Vienne, and discharges itself into the Bay of Biscay at Rochefort; the Rhine, which, having its source in Switzerland, is the eastern boundary between France and Germany, and receives the Moselle and the Saar in its progress; the Somme, which rises in the department of Aisne, and, passing by Peronne and Amiens, falls into the English Channel below Abbeville; the Var, which runs to the southward from the Alps, dividing France from Italy, and falling into the Mediterranean, west of Nice; the Adour, which rises near the Pyrenees, and, running from east to west by Tarbes and Dax, flows into the Bay of Biscay below Bayonne; the Isere and the Doubs, which fall into the Rhone; and the Meuse, which flows into the Netherlands.

CANALS.—The canals existing, or in progress, in France, are about 86 in number, the whole length of which is 946 leagues; many of these are, however, far from being completed. Ninety others are projected; but it is probable that few of them will be executed. The first canal formed in France was that of Briare, which is about 25 leagues long, unites the Loire and the Seine, and was opened *in 1642.* The canal of Languedoc, one of the

greatest public works of Louis XIV., is 50 leagues long, joins the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, has 72 bridges and 55 aqueducts, and is supplied with water by an immense reservoir, a league square, and 100 feet deep. It was finished in 1681, and fourteen years were spent in the construction of it. The canal of the centre, from the Saone to the Loire, has a length of 25 leagues; the canal from the Rhone to the Rhine will, when finished, have about 70 leagues; the canal of Burgundy, which has a tunnel extending nearly two miles, and which will unite the Mediterranean and the Channel, has a course of 50 leagues. The canal of St. Quentin, which joins the Scheldt and the Oise, commences at Cambray, and proceeds to Chouny, where it unites with the canal of the Somme, which ends at St. Valery. In one part it passes through a tunnel of extraordinary length. Several of the projected canals are meant to be carried through a great extent of country.

Railroads.—There are, as yet, but few railroads in France, though many, and of great extent, have been projected. The only works of the kind which have been executed are the railroads from Paris to St. Germain; St. Etienne to Lyons; St. Etienne to the Loire; and Andreziaux to Roannes. The warlike mania, by which the French were infected in 1840, was fatal to many useful projects.

Mineral Waters and Remarkable Springs.—There are in France about 240 mineral springs of various kinds; hot and cold ferruginous, hot and cold sulphureous, hot and cold gaseous, and hot and cold saline. Of these, 151 can furnish accommodations for sick visitors, 79 are visited by persons from distant places, and 10 by the inhabitants of the vicinity. It is calculated that £300,000 is annually spent at these springs, by those who frequent them.

The waters of Barege, which lie near the borders of Spain, under the Pyrenean mountains, have been preferred to all others in France, for the recovery of health; but probably the cures said to have been performed by them may be more reasonably attributed to their accidental success with some great persons, and the salubrity of the air and soil, than to the virtues of the waters. The waters of Sultzbach, in the department of the Upper Rhine, are said to cure paralysis, weak nerves, and the stone. At Bagneres, not far from Barege, are celebrated mineral waters and baths, to which people resort, as to the English baths, in the spring and autumn. Forges, in the department of the Lower Seine, is celebrated for its mineral waters; and those of St. Amand cure the gravel and obstructions.

Mines and Minerals.—"With respect to mineral substances, France," says a recent French geographer, "is, perhaps, of all countries of the same extent in Europe, that which has been the most parsimoniously gifted. The *precious metals* are of rare occurrence. The small quantity of gold which is colle French territory is found in the Arr Herault, Gard, and Cese rivers; b insignificant portions, that the g can hardly contrive to live by th The last mine of argentiferous lead, worked in the Vosges, was given up account of the scantiness of its pro of Allemont, in the Isere, is not riche copper is not so rare, the quantit supplied by the mines of the Lowe of Chessy, &c. &c. are far from beir our consumption. Lastly, the only which we have, at Poullauen, in Saint Julien, in the department of and Vienne, in the Isere, are capable ing but a trifling part of what we re the other hand, iron is abundant, es the Upper Marne, the Meuse, and the Coal, which is excellent in the depart Loire, and in the departments on t frontier, is, unfortunately, too une tributed between our provinces, to a being turned effectually to account sent state of the roads. The Frenc contain magnificent marbles, com those of Carrara, and which are equ of being employed in sculpture. In t bourhood is also found alabaster of quality. The Lower Pyrenees give the Puy de Dôme has antimony. sulphur at the foot of the Pyrenees Jura. Manganese is said to be so al the vast mine of Romanèche (Saone that all Europe might be supplied mineral for ages. In the basin of quarries of mill-stones are worked wi The flints, with which the soil of Cl Picardy, and the Orleannois is cover come, in consequence of their good important object of exportation; the of gun-flint maker, which gives empl a great number of workmen, consist of cutting this silex into a proper means of the hand and iron tools. of the Loire and Garonne contain the of porcelain clay. Salt, especially saline springs, does not abound i for which reason sea-salt is most u is acrid and of a greyish hue. T ment of Meurthe possesses, howev of sal gem, the transparency and forms of which are remarkably This mine of rock-salt was discover its extent is estimated at 30 square le its thickness at nearly 180 yards. It be capable of furnishing annually quintals during a period of 96,000 ye

Climate, Soil, and Agriculture particularly in the interior parts of th is in general mild and wholesome; authors think that it is not so salut pretended, and that the French hav successful in giving false prepossess vour of their own country. It must, owned, that their weather is more

led than in England. In the northern pro-
es, however, the winters are more intensely
, and the inhabitants not so well supplied
firing, which in France is chiefly of wood,
gh coal has been lately brought more into
than it ever was before our time. The
hern departments are subject to a serious
yance. This is a drying and stormy wind,
d the mistral, which blows from the north-
h-east, principally in spring, and is equally
ous to man and to vegetation. The soil is
llent, and produces corn, wine, oil, and
ost every luxury of life. Some of the fruits
a higher flavour than those of England;
the pasturage and tillage are not com-
ble to ours.

SORTABLES.—Oak, elm, ash, and other trees,
mon in England, are found in France:
ch also abounds with esculent roots, all
ls of salads, and excellent fruits, particularly
ies, figs, prunes, chestnuts, apples in the
hern provinces, and capers in the southern.
roduces hemp, flax, manna, saffron, tobacco,
many drugs. Silk is so abundantly pro-
ed, beside what is imported, as to afford a
rishing trade. The French wines are so
l known that they need only to be men-
ed. It is sufficient to observe, that, though
y differ very sensibly in their taste and pro-
ties, all of them are excellent, particularly
se of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux,
tac, Hermitage, and Frontiniac: and there
few constitutions, be they ever so valetu-
ary, to which some one or other sort is not
apted. We may add, that the French brandy
better than any other production of vinous
rit. Olive oil is made in large quantities,
rticularly in the provinces nearest to the
diterranean; but the consumption is so great
t much is imported from Italy: the inferior
t supplies the soap manufactories of Mar-
lles. Languedoc produces the herb called
il, which, when burned, makes excellent
rilla. Among the important articles of cul-
tion in France, must be mentioned one of
mparatively recent introduction, that of the
ttoot, which is used in the manufacture of
per. The departments in which it is most
tivated are those of the Nord, Pas de Calais,
e, and Somme. In the extraction of sugar
m the root, not less than 130,000 persons were
ployed in 1835, and the quantity produced
s nearly 80,000,000 of pounds. The French
re formerly famous for horticulture; but
y are at present inferior to the English in
management of their gardens.

France contains few animals, either wild or
me, that are not to be found in England,
cept wolves and wild boars. The horses,
ck cattle, and sheep, are far inferior to the
glish; nor is the wool of their sheep so fine;
t the hair and skin of the chamois, or moun-
n-goat, are more valuable than those of the
glish goats. We know of no difference be-
een the marine productions of France and
se of England, but that the *former country* is not so well served, even on the sea-coast, with salt-water fish.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—The natural curiosities of France consist chiefly in subterraneous caverns and remarkable springs. Near Salins, in the department of Jura, are several remarkable caves, the length of which, taken together, is about 400 feet, and the breadth 60 feet. The descent is by 40 stone steps, and 20 of wood. At the bottom, by the aid of lighted torches, may be seen six springs of salt water, and two of fresh, gushing out and running with great rapidity. The streams are kept separate by proper trenches, which conduct them into other vaults, supported by large pillars; wherein are placed reservoirs for the reception of the salt water, which is afterwards conveyed to the top by proper engines: it is then put into pans, and great quantities of salt are extracted from it. At Baulme, in the department of Douhs, is a cavern above 300 feet under ground, full of icicles; and at the bottom is a little river, of which it has been frequently said that it flows in the winter, and is frozen in the summer; but this assertion is not true. In a calcareous hill near Arci, in the department of the Yonne, are some curious caves, one of which is divided into many chambers, containing great quantities of stalactites in the most fantastic forms. Some of the caves in the volcanic rocks of the Puy de Dôme and Cantal are also remarkable.

A remarkable spring is that of Vaucluse, which, instead of rising with gentle murmurs and with fluid transparency, is at once a turbulent and foaming stream, issuing under a rock, which is 300 feet high, and forcing its way down a deep descent among dark moss covered with blocks of stone. A still more remarkable spring is that of Fonte Estorbe, in the department of the Aude. It rises in a natural grotto, and is usually so copious as to form of itself the chief part of the river Lers. The stream flows from the grotto with a very rapid current, with a width of 18 or 20 feet, and a depth of a foot and several inches. But in summer and autumn, and whenever there has been a long drought, it becomes intermittent. The intermission occurs twice in twenty-four hours, at equal intervals. When the time for its flowing returns, a great noise is heard on the side of the cavern from which the waters spring, and they gush out so copiously, that their effect in swelling the river Lers may be perceived five or six miles down the stream.

Among the natural curiosities of this country may likewise be reckoned the plain of Crau, in Provence, which is perhaps the most singular stony desert in Europe. It is about five leagues in diameter, and contains between 20 and 25 square leagues, or about 150,000 English miles. It is entirely composed of round gravel; some of the stones are as large as the head of a man.

POPULATION.—The population of France, before the Revolution, was estimated at about *26,000,000*; in 1836, it was 33,540,908.

National Character, Manners, and Customs.—The French, in their persons, are not so tall as their neighbours; but they are well proportioned and active, and more free than most other nations from bodily deformities. The ladies are celebrated more for their sprightly wit than their personal charms: yet many have very pleasing features and interesting countenances. The female peasants, in general, are remarkably deficient in beauty, and are best described by being contrasted with women of the same rank in England. The upper classes accomplish themselves with the exercises of dancing, fencing, and riding, in the practice of which they excel all their neighbours in skill and gracefulness. They are fond of hunting; and the gentry, before the Revolution, had left off their heavy jack-boots, the huge war-saddle, and monstrous curb-bridle, in that exercise, and accommodated themselves to the English manners.

The genius and manners of the French are well known, and have been the subject of many able pens. A national vanity is their predominant characteristic; and they are perhaps the only people ever heard of, who have derived great utility from a national weakness. It supports them under misfortunes, and impels them to actions to which true courage incites other nations. This character is so conspicuous both in the higher and middling ranks, as to produce excellent officers; and it also appears in the common soldiers of France, who, it must be confessed, in the late war against the allied powers, exhibited prodigies of valour.

The French affect freedom and wit; but fashionable dresses and diversions engross too much of their conversation. Their diversions are much the same with those of the English; but their gallantry is of a different complexion. Their attention to the fair degenerates into gross foppery in the men, and in the ladies it is kept up by admitting indecent freedoms; but the seeming levities of both sexes are not so frequently attended with criminality as persons unaccustomed to their manners would be induced to expect. Perhaps, indeed, there are more instances of a violation of the conjugal vow in France than in other countries; but appearances of grossness and indelicate familiarity must not always be construed into guilt.

That politeness which pervaded every class before the Revolution, suffered a severe shock from the ebullition of those fierce and licentious passions which were brought into action by the convulsions of the state. The ordinary manners assumed a strong tincture of rudeness, sometimes approaching to brutality; and, though this coarseness subsided on the return of interior tranquillity, the former refinement is very far indeed from having been fully restored. To keep on the hat at table, and that, too, in the presence of females, is common in France. Perhaps the resentment and ill-will with which the French were inspired against *the English, for* promoting every measure which led to their humiliation and disgrace, obstructed the display of that politeness which our countrymen were previously so ready to acknowledge. When this quality, however, flourished in full luxuriance, it was far from being indicative of cordiality or friendship. A Frenchman would lavish compliments, and repeat his offers of service, without affixing any serious meaning to the terms which he employed. This practice seemed to have a good effect, in making persons pleased with themselves; but no man of penetration could be duped by such insincerity. It is not unworthy of remark, that this external polish prevailed in France, more than in any other European country, above 750 years ago, when William the Norman sailed from its coast upon his expedition to our island.

This polish, as we learn from experience, is not incompatible with the most unfeeling barbarity. The massacre of St. Bartholomew will not be forgotten by the readers of history: and the still more horrible enormities, deliberately perpetrated, and coolly vindicated, in the progress of the Revolution, seem to indicate a callosity of disposition. This censure may appear harsh, but there is obviously a strong foundation for it. Gaiety went hand in hand with cruelty; and he who had stained himself with the blood of his fellow-creatures, would repair from the scene of guilt to the theatre, and enjoy the prevailing mirth, as if he had felt no compunction, or had been the most innocent of mankind.

Another proof of the want of moral feeling may be drawn from that fondness for military glory which has for ages prevailed in France, and which, in spite of all the misery it has caused, seems to prevail as strongly as ever. To gratify this vicious fondness, a Frenchman would not hesitate to sacrifice the whole human race. Such a passion is necessarily inconsistent with humanity and with the refined feelings of the soul; and the licentiousness of the warlike character has a tendency to subvert or impair domestic habits and private virtues. The idleness which it introduces also prompts to the practice of gaming, which is diffused by the force of example among other classes of the community, and is productive of serious mischief. This habit spreads even among the women; and its effects are not altogether favourable to their chastity or their morals.

In French society, the females make a more prominent figure than in other communities. Being remarkably free from diffidence or reserve, they take the lead in conversation, discuss every subject with an air of authority, and settle even the most important political questions with the same ease with which they expatiate upon points of dress and external decoration. They are more active and assiduous in the management of ordinary trade than their husbands, who, acquainted with the superior influence of the fair in recommending the produce of the shop, or in procuring a good

ndifferent article, variously amuse
i the meantime.

as of dress, in France, are ex-
ble. The women have great taste
hat kind; but they do not always
ith effect, because a fondness for
sometimes militate against deco-
ce. In the earlier years of the
he men affected to disregard dress,
to be proud of that slovenly ap-
ch, in their opinion, suited repub-
ss; but their fondness for finery
umed its sway, though the ridicu-
tastic foppery of a *petit-maître* of
l is now rarely witnessed.

whole, the French may be cha-
a gay, lively, volatile people, more
r sentiment and passion than by
ent; impelled by the ideas of the
iout regard to the probable result
xion; destitute of fixed principles
ad virtue; floating between super-
nfidelity; and exhibiting, amidst
iperate habits in ordinary life, a
vehemence at which phlegmatic
surprised and disgusted.

'RS.—The French capital is highly
rticular notice. When Gaul was
oman government, Lutetia stood
e same spot where Paris is now
e modern name was given to it by
ecause it was the chief town of
Gallic nation. It was the royal
; and, though it was not inhabited
me, he attended to its augmenta-
ovement. It was nearly destroyed
ans; but it was quickly rebuilt,
lly acquired sufficient strength to
d baffle a long siege from those
n. In the Seine are two small
l St. Louis and Notre-Dame: on
od the ancient city. The present
is, along the river, is almost 4½
eadth is between 3 and 4 miles
r southern wall to that of the
y of the streets are narrow, dark,
l, even amidst the recent improve-
f them have pavement for the
on of foot passengers, who are
osed to the constant danger of
y from the negligence of unfeel-
, and of the furious drivers of
abriolets. The houses in general
tone, are very high, and have a
r on each floor. Instead of pre-
front to the street, many of them
he side of a large wing; and a
ens into a spacious court, sur-
buildings. In some parts of the
is attract by elegant fronts and a
y of commodities; but, in most
they have a very unpromising
ar different from the inviting
hops in the British metropolis.
generally crowded, particularly
o as to suggest ideas of *wealth* and grandeur; though, in reality, there is more show than substance. The glittering carriages that dazzle the eyes of strangers are mostly common fiacres, hired by the numerous foreigners who visit that city; and, in truth, a great part of the trade of Paris arises from the constant succession of visitants who arrive daily from every nation and quarter of the globe. For this attractive influence, the people are indebted to the reputation of their language, their public buildings, their libraries, and collections of paintings, that are gratuitously open to the public; the cheapness of provisions, the excellence of the wine, and the general purity of the air and climate of France. With all these advantages, Paris, in general, will not bear a comparison with London, in the more essential circumstances of a thriving foreign and domestic trade, the cleanness of the streets, the neatness of the houses, (especially within,) or the plenty and goodness of water. With respect to water, however, Paris, since the formation of the canal of the Ourcq, has been better supplied than it was in former times. In the houses the floors are chiefly of brick, and have no other kind of cleaning than that of being sprinkled with water, and swept once in a day. These floors, the stone stairs, the want of wainscoting in the rooms, and the thick party-walls of stone, are, however, good preservatives against fire, which seldom does any damage in this city. Instead of wainscoting, the walls are covered with tapestry or damask. The beds in general are very good, and well ornamented with testers and curtains.

Squares, which are the chief ornaments of cities, abound in Paris; above seventy are reckoned, many of which, however, have no attractions. The most striking are the Royal Square or Place, those of Victory, the Throne, the Carousal, Concord, and Vendôme. The bridges are numerous, but not particularly remarkable for beauty or grandeur; but that of Neuilly, at some distance from the city, is one of the finest in Europe. The Seine is bordered by spacious quays, which are planted with trees. The gates of St. Denys and St. Martin are elegant triumphal arches, which do honour to the age of Louis XIV.; and some of the barriers, situated at the avenues of the suburbs, are handsome and stately. But the most splendid of all the arches is the Arc de l'Etoile, which has no rival, ancient or modern. It is insulated, richly adorned with sculpture, and has an elevation of 162 feet. Eight such buildings as Temple Bar would stand, four upon four, within the vast opening of its main arch.

The public structures in Paris are abundant and magnificent. The monarch principally resides at the Tuilleries, a palace which Catharine de Medicis left unfinished, and which was completed by Louis XIV. The front consists of four handsome pavilions, besides a large one in the centre: these are connected by four ranges of building; but there is an obvious *want of uniformity*, as the five orders of archi-

tecture are incoherently mingled. The grand entrance to this edifice was adorned by Napoleon with a beautiful triumphal arch, which Louis XVIII. suffered to remain, though the statue of the emperor, which appeared in a car over the centre, was removed. The Luxembourg palace surpasses the Tuilleries in magnificence, and the bold style of its architecture is accompanied with elegance and regularity. It is now the place of meeting for the peers, who represent the whole body of French nobility, while the commons meet in the Palais Bourbon. The modern front of the latter is a fine piece of architecture. The most ancient royal palace is the Louvre, which, however, is no longer a royal residence; but the beautiful and splendid additions to it are not of an earlier date than the reign of Louis XIV. It is joined to the Tuilleries by a gallery which is 1400 feet in length. In the Louvre is kept the Royal Museum, which, notwithstanding the removal of the rich spoils of Italy and Germany, still exhibits many admirable works of art. Eight of its rooms are dedicated to a museum of Egyptian antiquities. The Palais Royal, which passed from the crown to the Orleans family, is in the form of a parallelogram, consisting of the most elegant modern architecture. It was consigned to the purposes of trade, amusement, and debauchery, by the duke of Orleans of infamous memory. The Exchange and the Mint are noble modern edifices. Paris has two columns, one, in Vendôme Square, commemorative of the battle of Austerlitz; the other, in Revolution Square, in honour of those who fell in the three days of July, 1830.

Among the religious edifices, the cathedral (or church of Notre-Dame) is pre-eminently distinguished. It is referred by some antiquaries to the 11th century, by others to the 12th. It is supported by 120 columns, which form a double colonnade, extending from one extremity of the fabric to the other. In the eastern front are three portals, profusely and curiously ornamented. Over this part are two towers, rather stately than elegant. Forty-five chapels are included in the spacious church: the choir, which has been modernized, is superb, and adorned with the attractive beauties of painting and sculpture. The abbey-church of St. Germain des Près exhibits the remains of ancient magnificence. That of St. Etienne du Mont, though irregularly built, is greatly admired. Some of the modern churches are constructed in a style of elegant simplicity. The Pantheon, or church of St. Genevieve, is a magnificent structure, which may be considered as the Parisian St. Paul's. It is, however, inferior in magnitude to the British cathedral. Equal to the Pantheon, in most points, and perhaps superior to it in some, is the new church of Madeleine, which is 338 feet long by 138 feet wide, surrounded by 52 columns, each 62 feet high, and adorned *with masterly sculptures.* During the republican government, many of the c used for profane or secular p some were restored by Napoleon mer use, when he affected a sea and others were reopened on the Bourbon family.

There are 17 hospitals and l asylums, at Paris; and some pressed monasteries are rendere to these beneficent purposes. cient establishment for the cu disease, is the Hotel Dieu, whi period, was under the most neg proper management, but is n with the most attentive care. building is appropriated to the infirm or disabled soldiers: it Hotel of Invalids, or of Mars, a cellent accommodation for its mates. In the hospital of Pity, of soldiers, who have fallen in their country, are maintained The Foundling Hospital is un regulations, and the facility of i infant within its walls, without its mother's shame, may be m contrast to the difficulty expe similar institution near London be of opinion that this facility t rage vicious propensities; but it rates to the prevention of infa institutions for the blind, and fo dumb, ought not to pass without establishments are so ably man inmates are not only enabled t fort, but are rendered useful to various works and manufacture are taught to execute. In eac ment there is an Office of C relieves the destitute at their ow From 60,000 to 70,000 persons ar lieved by these institutions.

It is a curious fact, that a cor tion of Paris is suspended over of the southern quarters, in wh churches of St. Genevieve and S observatory, and the Luxembo built over the excavations whe was quarried for the building These underground vacuities f labyrinth, in which persons h and into which houses have at In a part of this labyrinth, ca combs, are deposited the bone brought from the disused buryi the heart of the capital. Most teries are now without the wa remarkable of them is that of Pe

With regard to the populatio may observe, that it declined, been expected, during the m period of the Revolution; but i to be progressive. In 1836, it 909,126 persons.

The palace of Versailles, thoug and adorned with all that art ca

nhabitants. Trianon, St. Ger-
e, Meudon, and other royal
id out with taste and judgment;
ecuiliar beauties for the enter-
amusement of the court, and the
f popular and foreign curiosity.
favourite residence of Napoleon,
. by Louis XVI., who manifested
e selection of this romantic spot.
is handsome, the apartments are
orated, and the gardens are
ed. The chateau of Marli was
idst the revolutionary convul-
park and gardens are still visited

ry so rich and so extensive as
cantily provided with large cities
t does not contain more than 42
have above 20,000 inhabitants;
ritain alone has nearly twice that
ns, the city which ranks next to
itude and population, is situated
ice of the Rhone and the Saone,
ring through the city, with well-
of stone on each bank. It con-
ndsome squares, particularly La
ne of the most magnificent in
sides of which were erected by
ho also built the best bridge
n exhibits. The cathedral, dedi-
John, is a fine building in the
and the archbishop's palace is
not elegant. The town-hall,
lt between 1646 and 1655, is the
of the kind in France. Lyons
tutions, and a population of 146,239 souls.

Toulon, in the department of the Var, at once a fortress, naval arsenal, and commercial place, owes its present greatness to Henry IV. and Louis XIV., the former of whom constructed the old port, the latter, the new one. The two ports communicate with each other by means of a canal, and both of them with the outer harbour, which is one of the safest in the Mediterranean. The arsenal is lavishly furnished with everything that is requisite for fitting out a squadron: there are spacious workshops for every department of shipbuilding; and a rope-walk of 320 fathoms in length, with three arched walks. Toulon has 35,322 inhabitants.

Commencing our course in the Bay of Biscay, and proceeding along the western coast of France, we pass Bayonne, a fortress and commercial town, situated on the Nive and Adour, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, and ascend the river Gironde, till we reach Bourdeaux, in the department of the same name as the river. Bourdeaux, situated on the Garonne, is one of the most industrious and commercial cities in France, and has a population of 99,900 souls. Its port is extensive and excellent. The modern portion of the city is elegant, and has many noble buildings. Among the principal edifices of this place are the Gothic cathedral, the beautiful theatre, the exchange, the archiepiscopal palace, and the bridge, of 17 arches, a modern construction, and one of the finest in Europe. There are some manufactories at Bourdeaux, but it derives its wealth and importance mainly from its commerce,

under the disadvantage of not being able to admit vessels of more than 200 tons; those of larger size are unloaded at Painbœuf, lower down the river. Nantes, with a population of 75,895 souls, is generally well built, and has handsome quays, and many elegant public edifices, among which may be mentioned the cathedral, exchange, palace of the prefect, and theatre. It has also schools of anatomy and surgery, drawing, commerce, and navigation, a museum of antiquities, a cabinet of natural history, a botanical garden, a library, and an observatory.

Between the Loire and Cape Finisterre we pass L'Orient, in the department of Morbihan, which was built in 1720, to serve as an entrepôt for the French East India Company, and which, though its importance is much diminished, has still a considerable traffic, and a population of 18,375 inhabitants.

At length we reach Brest, which is situated in the department of Finisterre, at the north-west extremity of France. This port, which is one of the finest in France, or, indeed, in Europe, and can contain 500 ships of the line, owes its origin as a naval arsenal to Cardinal Richelieu. The town and its approaches are so well fortified, that they may be regarded as almost impregnable. Immense docks, rope-walks, magazines, masting-houses, and founderies announce the object and importance of this national establishment. The town is divided into upper and lower; the former is built on the slope of a hill, and has no beauty to boast of; the streets being narrow, and the houses mean. The other part is of much better appearance. The communication between the two portions of the town is by flights of steps, which are exceedingly dangerous in the winter. In some places the fifth story of one house is on a level with the garden of another. Brest has 29,773 inhabitants.

Along the north, or Channel coast, we meet with no port of consequence till we come to Cherbourg, in the department of the Manche. The harbour here, which will contain 50 sail of the line, is an artificial one, intended to counteract our establishment at Portsmouth, and is formed by an immense dike, 1933 fathoms in length, the openings in which are defended by strong bomb-proof forts. The formation of it was commenced by Louis XVI. Cherbourg has extensive docks, magazines, and nearly 20,000 inhabitants.

Arriving at the mouth of the Seine, we find the port of Havre de Grace, through which is carried on the commerce of Paris, and a large portion of the kingdom, with the rest of the world. More than 3000 vessels enter it yearly; its import duties are more than £1,000,000 sterling per annum, and its export duties £1,205,000. It has three basins, in which 500 vessels can remain afloat. Steam-boats sail regularly from it to England, Portugal, Germany, and America. The town, part of which is well built, contains *a population of 30,000.*

Rouen, on the Seine, formerly the capital of the duchy of Normandy, is still the see of an archbishop, and contains 92,000 inhabitants. Its cathedral, erected by William the Conqueror, is a magnificent structure, in the finest Gothic style; but the greatest part of the town is ill-built, and the streets are not only narrow and crooked, but filthy also. It was formerly connected with one of its suburbs by a remarkable bridge, which rose and fell with the tide, being composed of boats lashed together. By elevating a draw-bridge in the centre, one or more boats were made to slip out, so that vessels might pass with ease, and the boats be quickly replaced; but it is now removed, and a stone bridge has been erected at a little distance. This town flourishes in point of trade; for many colonial and foreign products and commodities, procured from Havre de Grace, are sent by the citizens over the neighbouring departments, and their woollen, linen, and other manufactures also afford the means of great commercial profit.

From the mouth of the Seine no port occurs till we reach Boulogne, in the department of the Pas de Calais. In spite of all the improvements made by Napoleon, it is difficult of access, and, being only a tide harbour, the vessels are aground at low water. It is one of the principal points of communication between England and France, (Calais is the other,) is divided into the upper and lower town, and contains several public establishments, and 25,733 inhabitants. Its prosperity mainly depends on the influx of English visitors.

Dunkirk, the last of the French ports, takes its name from the *dunes* (sand hills) on the coast. It has a tolerably good port, is connected with France and Flanders by canals, has a considerable commerce, is strongly fortified, and contains 23,808 inhabitants.

We will now take a cursory view of the principal cities of the interior—those which contain a population of from 20,000 to 80,000 persons—beginning with the highest numbers. Toulouse, which has 77,372 inhabitants, is situated in the department of the Upper Garonne, has several public buildings and literary and scientific establishments, has a considerable trade in Spanish wool, and manufactories of scythes and files.—Lisle, in the department of the North, inhabited by 78,005 persons, is a fortress of the first rank, well built, and has fabrics of cotton and woollen cloths, thread, and lace, and a great number of oil mills.—Strasburgh, another formidable fortress, the bulwark of France, on the side of Alsace, has 57,785 inhabitants, numerous manufactories, an extensive commerce, and various literary and scientific establishments. Its magnificent Gothic cathedral has a spire 474 feet high, which is an architectural wonder. "The stone work of this steeple is so completely open, and the pillars which support it are so wide apart, and cut so thin, that they more nearly resemble a collection of bars of iron and wood; so that, at such a height, one might

me's self suspended in a cage over
if the foot were to slip, the body
dip through the open fret-work."
it is, and though it has stood for
, the carved ornaments are unim-
e fabric appears as firm as when it
ed.—Amiens, in the department
, formerly the capital of Picardy,
re quantities of velvets, woollens,
46,129 inhabitants. Its Gothic
one of the finest in France.—
e department of the Gard, is very
ias many antiquities, which are
der the head of "Antiquities." It
5 inhabitants, and manufacturing
a, in wool, cotton, shawls, and
t, a fortress of the first rank, in
nt of the Moselle, is an indus-
mmercial place, with 42,793 in-
eautiful cathedral, and many fine
gs and institutions.—Caen, in the
f Calvados, has a population of
, and a cathedral with two lofty
iany public establishments and
ies. It carries on a considerable
t. Etienne, which has been called
Birmingham, is situated in the
f the Loire, and owes its pros-
neighbouring coal mines. The
here and in the vicinity amount
f £3,000,000 sterling yearly, and
0,000 workmen employed. The
41,534 persons.—Orleans, with a
40,272, and a considerable traffic
idy, vinegar, cotton, thread, and
e chief place of the department
It has various public edifices,
urkable of which is its unfinished,
cathedral.—Reims, the city in
e kings of France have been
an extensive commerce in wines
:uffs. The exterior of its Gothic
adorned with more than 4000
ures, and its portal, which is a
of architecture, has more than
in the department of the Marne,
inhabitants.—Angers, formerly
Anjou, has a cathedral, various
id a population of 35,901 persons.
in the department of Maine and
s in its vicinity immense slate
h employ 3000 men.—Rennes,
Britanny, is in the department
l Vilaine, and has 35,552 inha-
half of it (the lower town) is
oomy; the other half is elegant.
fine buildings, and various lite-
rific establishments. Thread,
leather, are its chief manufac-
:llier, in the department of the
a population of 35,506 persons,
ible commerce in muslins, cot-
:sences, and chemical products,
een celebrated for its medical
many public institutions, and
dings.—Clermont Ferrand has 32,437 inhabitants, and is situated on the summit of a hill in the department of Puy de Dôme. It is one of the most picturesque-looking cities in France at a distance, but has little to recommend it in its interior. Its most remarkable object is the petrifying spring of St. Alyre.—Avignon, once the residence of the pope, is beautifully situated on the Rhone, in the department of Vaucluse, and has 31,786 inhabitants. Its principal edifices are the cathedral, the ancient papal palace, and the invalid bospital, and it has an agricultural society, a public library, and other institutions. Silks are the chief article of manufacture.—Nancy, in the department of the Meurthe, with 31,445 inhabitants, is one of the handsomest cities in France; for being so it is indebted to Stanislaus, the king of Poland, while he held the duchy of Lorraine. It has a theatre, scientific and literary societies, and a considerable commerce in a variety of articles.—Besançon, the ancient capital of Franche Comté, stands on the Doubs, in the department which is named from the river. It is a strong fortress, possesses several remains of antiquity, a public library, &c. &c., various manufactures, especially of clockwork, and has 29,718 inhabitants.—Limoges, a central point for the commerce of the southern departments, has manufactories of china, worsted, and woollens, some remarkable buildings, and useful societies, and 29,706 inhabitants, and is in the department of the Upper Vienne.—Grenoble, a strong fortress, in the department of the Isere, has 28,969 inhabitants. Its commerce is trifling, and chiefly in gloves and liqueurs.—Le Mans, which contains 23,164 inhabitants, is situated in the department of the Sarthe. In wax candles and poultry it carries on a considerable trade. Its cathedral displays a singular mixture of Gothic and Roman architecture.—Tours is beautifully situated on the Loire, in the department of the Indre and Loire, and has 26,669 inhabitants, a large part of whom are actively employed in the silk manufacture. The cathedral, the bridge, and the archiepiscopal palace, are its principal edifices. The surrounding country is called "the garden of France."—Troyes, a large but ill-built city, formerly the capital of Champagne, has 25,563 inhabitants, and is in the department of the Aube. It is industrious and commercial. Its fine Gothic cathedral is its most remarkable structure.—Bourges, inhabited by 25,324 persons, is in the department of the Cher. It is old and ill-built, and has few public edifices, except its cathedral and town-hall, the latter of which was the residence of the celebrated Jacques Cœur.—Dijon, one of the most elegant cities in France, is in the department of the Côte d'Or, and was the capital of Burgundy. It has many noble edifices, and scientific and literary societies, and 24,817 inhabitants.—Aix, once the capital of Provence, is in the department of the Mouths of the Rhone, and has 24,460 inhabitants. It has many public edifices worthy of notice, and

is celebrated for its hot baths.—Montauban, a very commercial city, with 23,865 inhabitants, and several woollen and silk manufactories, is in the department of the Tarn and Garonne, and has many elegant structures.—Arras, a strong fortress, in the department of the North, has 23,485 inhabitants, several manufacturing establishments of cotton, cambric, lace, and sugar, and was formerly the capital of Artois.—Poitiers, in the department of the Vienne, was the capital of Poitou, and has many Roman remains. It has 22,000 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable commerce in various articles. Its chief buildings are the cathedral, and the churches of Notre Dame and St. John.—St. Quentin, a large manufacturing town on the Somme, in the department of the Aisne, has 20,570 inhabitants. Cambric, shawls, lace, &c. are its principal productions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.—Next to Henry IV., justly styled the Great, the famous Colbert, minister to Louis XIV., may be called the father of the French commerce and manufactures. Under him there was a great appearance that France would make as illustrious a figure, in a trading capacity, as she did then in a warlike character; but the truth is, the French do not naturally possess that unflinching perseverance which is necessary for commerce and colonization, though no people, in theory, understand them better. France, however, by her situation, by the turn of her inhabitants for certain manufactures, and the happiness of her soil, must always possess great inland and neighbouring trade.

The silk manufacture was introduced into France so late as the reign of Henry IV.; and, in the time of his grandson, Louis XIV., Tours alone employed 8000 looms and 800 mills. Lyons then employed 18,000 looms; but, after the impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes, the expulsion of the Protestants, and the ruinous wars maintained by France, they decreased to 4000; and its silk manufacture is now rivalled by that of England, where the French Protestants took refuge, and were happily encouraged. The French manufactures declined during the war; but they are now fast reviving, and the woollen cloths and stuffs are said to be little inferior to those of England, and have greatly injured them in some of the continental markets, assisted by the clandestine importation of English and Irish wool, and workmen from this country. The cotton, iron, and sugar manufactories have also increased to a large amount. The principal exports of France are wines, brandy, lace, stuffs, silks, paper, china, fashionable articles, furniture, glass, jewellery, and books. The imports are the precious metals, lead, tin, and copper, raw silk, wool, dyeing woods, cattle, horses, and colonial productions. In 1833 (the last year of which an account has been made up) the commercial navy of France employed 15,025 vessels, measuring in the whole 647,107 tons, and navigated by nearly 60,000 seamen. The imports were between £27,000,000 and £28,000,000 sterling, and the imports more than £30,000,000.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.—In early times, feudalism prevailed in France; and, for many centuries, the aristocratic spirit of that system kept the people in a dependant state. Even after the increasing vigour of the court had humbled the nobility, though the middle and lower classes profited by the occasional meetings of the states-general, they were little better than slaves. The royal despotism was at its height in the reign of Louis XIV., by whom all ranks were equally oppressed. When the states-general ceased to be convoked, the parliaments of the different provinces, which were originally instituted only for legal and judicial purposes, began to assume the character of guardians of liberty, and sometimes ventured to oppose, but with little effect, the arbitrary edicts of the court. These parliaments were suppressed at the Revolution, when all parts of the old government seemed to be equally obnoxious to the innovating politicians of the day.

The French, by the Revolution, obtained a new constitution, founded upon the principle that all men are free and equal in their rights. After the death of Louis XVI., a republican code was framed and adopted, which, in 1795, was succeeded by another. By this innovation the government was vested in a directory of 5 members, and in a legislative body composed of a council of elders (250 members) and a council of 500. In 1799 this constitution was likewise overthrown, and a new form of government was erected, consisting of a conservative senate of 80 members, a tribunate of 100, a legislative body of 300, and 3 consuls, nominated for 10 years. In 1802, Bonaparte was declared first consul for life; and he affected to act under the forms of this code, after he had assumed the title of emperor. On his abdication, in 1814, the senate ordered a new constitution to be prepared, on the basis of a limited monarchy; but Louis XVIII. made material alterations in it. It was decreed that a chamber of peers should be selected for life by the king, and an assembly should be chosen by the people, which should be renewed in 5 years; that the two assemblies should never be prevented from having one session in a year; and that no law should pass, nor any tax be imposed, without the assent of both; but that the king alone should propose the subjects of legislation. To secure the maturity of wisdom, it was required that every deputy should have completed his 40th year; and, to prevent the choice of indigent members, all candidates were expected to pay above £40 per annum in direct taxes. The elections, as settled by this code, were not so numerous or so free as the people wished; for only 262 deputies were to be chosen; and electoral colleges, that is, bodies of men formed from the mass of the freeholders, by the crown, were authorized to conduct the process The ministers of state were declared

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e codes, which were drawn up under the auspices of Napoleon, form the law of France. In each canton there is a justice of peace, who decides upon matters of minor importance; and in each arrondissement, or district, there is a tribunal, which has a jurisdiction in civil and police matters. Twenty-six royal courts examine into appeals from the judgments of the inferior courts within their limits. If, on the hearing of the appeal, the facts should assume a more serious aspect, the case is transferred to the assize court, which is composed of members of the royal court, and a jury of 12 persons chosen by lot. Mercantile transactions come under the cognizance of tribunals of commerce; and, in some manufacturing and maritime places, there are tribunals, which summarily settle disputes between masters and men, and between sailors and their employers and captains. In each military division, and principal seaport, there are likewise military and naval councils, for the trial of soldiers and sailors. Their sentence may be modified by a council of revision. Above all the courts and councils is the court of cassation, which sits at Paris, and is composed of the most eminent lawyers. It does not enter into the details of the affair which is brought before it; but merely investigates whether, in the case which it has to consider, the tribunal appealed from has violated or misapplied the law. If that has been done, the sentence is annulled, and the cause is sent back for a rehearing.

Revenue.—The revenue, in the year 1788, was £20,500,000 sterling; and the ordinary expenditure exceeded the revenue by £5,500,000.

The extraordinary expenses of the war carried on by the republic, were principally defrayed by the seizure of church lands, confiscations, requisitions and contributions, imposed on the conquered countries. In 1799, the receipts were computed at 476,000,000 francs, or £19,040,000 sterling, and the expenses at 726,000,000 francs, or £29,040,000 sterling. This was an alarming deficiency; but, as the war was not then closed, it was not very difficult to supply the demand, particularly as the practice of borrowing was also a part of the French system of finance.

In 1816, the supplies requisite for the public service were estimated at 800,000,000 of francs, or £32,000,000 sterling, including the interest due to the national creditors. In 1733, the public debt had declined to about £85,000,000 sterling, from a much larger sum; but, in 1784, it had so far increased as to demand £8,933,000 for the mere interest. After the storms of the Revolution, and the occasional dread of a national bankruptcy, or of the application of a sponge to the whole debt, it amounted, in 1814, (according to the Baron Bignon,) to 2,919,000,000 francs, or £116,760,000 sterling. In 1820, the public expenditure exceeded £21,300,000, and the interest of the debt was about £9,500,000 sterling; and in 1841 the expenditure had risen to more than £58,000,000, and the interest of the debt to £14,111,000, while the revenue was

less than £47,000,000. Between 1834 and 1842, the expenditure exceeded the revenue by more than £36,000,000; seven-eighths of which sum was in the last three years.

ARMY AND NAVY.—In the reign of Louis XIV. the magnitude of the army proved very oppressive to the people; and, under his grandson, even the peace establishment was augmented to nearly 200,000 men. In 1792, before the war arose with Austria, the force was estimated at 152,000. When hostilities became more general, it is supposed that France had, beyond and within her frontiers, at least 650,000 men in arms. When Louis XVIII. was placed on the throne by the allied princes, they insisted on a reduction of the army to a low standard; yet, in 1821, it exceeded the amount of 140,500. In 1841 it was swelled to the enormous number of 426,000 men; but it has since been reduced about one-fifth.

Before the commencement of the 17th century, the French government had no standing maritime force, being in the habit of purchasing or hiring ships from the merchants. Louis XIII. was so far sensible of this deficiency and inconvenience, that he created a small navy; and his son paid great attention to that branch of national defence, making gradual additions to his fleet, until it amounted to 100 sail of the line; but it was greatly diminished in the battle of La Hogue, and in other engagements with the English. In 1799, the republican navy consisted of 40 ships of the line and 50 frigates; but, in the war which then prevailed, it suffered severely from the superiority of the British marine. During the short peace which ensued, it had not time for revival; and the imperial navy, under Napoleon, received a dreadful shock in the battle of Trafalgar. Farther losses reduced it to so low an ebb, that, at the return of peace, it did not far exceed the amount of 40 ships, frigates included. In 1820, it consisted of 76 vessels, including brigs. In 1841 it had increased to 15 sail of the line, 22 frigates, 75 corvettes, and 30 steam vessels; and there were on the stocks (some of them nearly completed) 25 line-of-battle ships, 28 frigates, 93 corvettes, and 10 steamers.

TITLES, &c.—The first national assembly after the Revolution abolished all nobility, hereditary distinctions, difference of orders, titles, and prerogatives. Even the appellation of Monsieur was disused, and that of Citizen substituted for it. When Napoleon, however, had assumed the sovereignty, the latter term was laid aside. He took the title of his Imperial Majesty, and his brothers were styled their Imperial Highnesses. He appointed marshals of the empire, grand dignitaries, an arch-elector, arch-chancellor, &c. He likewise instituted what was called a Legion of Honour, the commanders and members of which were nominated by himself. This was intended as an introduction to orders of nobility and hereditary distinctions, which he revived in the sequel.

Under the French monarchy, various orders of knighthood were instituted, some of which were revived after the return of the Bourbons. One is the order of the Holy Ghost, which was established in 1579 by Henry III. A necessary preparative for this order is that of St. Michael. The badge is a golden cross, with the representation of a dove and of the arch-angel. Louis XIV. founded the knighthood of St. Louis for military merit; but, as he confined it to Catholics, his successor gratified Protestant officers with a similar decoration. The badge is a cross of eight points, with a sword on one side, and a chaplet of laurel on the reverse. In 1815, the Bourbons established, while they were at Ghent, the order of Fidelity, which was to be bestowed only on those who had left the country with them, after the return of Napoleon from Elba. The Revolution of 1830, however, abolished all the existing orders, except that of the Legion of Honour, and established a new decoration, that of the Cross of July, which was given to those who had distinguished themselves in the three days' struggle against Charles the Tenth. In 1831, the hereditary peerage was abolished. The number of peers is unlimited, and the power of creating them is vested in the monarch. The princes of the blood are peers by right of birth. Instead of the title of dauphin, as was formerly the case, the heir to the crown bears the title of Duke of Orleans.

RELIGION.—The constitutional laws, framed by the first national assembly, enacted that no man should be molested for his opinions, or interrupted in the exercise of his religion. The territorial possessions of the Gallican church were claimed as national property, and disposed of through the medium of paper currency, for the creditors of the state; and the clergy were made dependant on pensionary establishments, paid out of the national treasury. By a subsequent constitution, it was declared that there was no predominant religion in France, and that none should be patronized or paid by the state; but that all sects and modes of worship should enjoy equal toleration. But, when the administration was vested in Bonaparte, he concluded, in 1801, a concordat or convention with the pope, by which the Catholic faith was declared to be the religion of the great majority of the French citizens, and the government engaged to make a suitable provision for the bishops and ministers. The Protestant religion was also tolerated, and the maintenance of the ministers, when necessary, provided for in like manner by the state.

Before the Revolution there were in France 19 archbishoprics, and 118 bishoprics: by the concordat, only 10 archbishops and 50 bishops were allowed for the whole kingdom; and, to the former, 15,000 francs were assigned as an annual income, while the latter were obliged to be content with 10,000. Louis XVIII., not fully approving this settlement, increased the number of prelates, and made some additions to the clerical funds. France has now 14 arch-

and 66 bishoprics. The Catholic France has six theological faculties, Rouen, Bordeaux, Lyon, Aix, and The seminaries for studying divinity ons, and there are about 13,000 stu- e first class of them. There are about Protestants in France, who study at , Geneva, and Strasburgh.

URE AND THE ARTS.—The French, ier nations of Europe, were for many mmersed in barbarism. The first ey began to acquire, was not of that improves the understanding, cor- aste, or regulates the affections. It in a subtile and quibbling logic, more calculated to pervert than to e faculties. But the study of the Roman writers, which first arose in ed itself among the French, and gave to their literary pursuits. This, with agement which the polite and learned gave to all men of merit, was highly to French literature. During the at prince, many natives of France stinguished themselves by their mong whom were Budæus, Clement er du Chatel, Rabelais, and Peter The names of Henry and Robert e also mentioned by every real h respect. It was not, however, till entury, that the French began to elegance in their own language. mie Françoise was formed for this nd though its labours, considered as re not so successful as might have ted, great service was done to litera- ae particular academicians. In fact, partnerships are seldom very suc- f this we have a remarkable example ent case. The academy published r for improving the French language, universally censured; Furetière, a demician, published another, that niversal approbation.

V. is styled the Augustus of France. tion he gave to literature, and the e bestowed on learned men, both at abroad, which, by calculation, did to above £12,000 per annum, gained lory than all the military enterprises h he expended so many millions. d men, who appeared in France eign, are too numerous to be readily

The tragic poets, Racine and Cor- erwedly obtained a very high re- the former was distinguished for wing the passions; the second, for d both for the strength and justness inting, the elegance of their taste, trict adherence to the rules of the olière would have exhausted the comedy, were they not everywhere le, and particularly in France. In tire and criticism, Boileau, who was ator of the ancients, possessed un- rit. Bossuet, Bourdaloue, Flechier, and Massillon, carried the eloquence of the pulpit to a height which our divines have been unable to reach. In the historical department, De Thou is entitled to the highest praise; and who is ignorant of Pascal, or of the archbishop of Cambray? Few men have done more service to religion, either by their writings or their lives. As for Montesquieu, he is the legislator of nations: his works are read in every country and language; and, wherever they are read, they enlighten and invigorate the human mind.

In the belles-lettres, the lighter kind of poetry, lively essays, and miscellaneous works, no nation ever produced more agreeable writers; among whom we may place Montaigne, d'Argens, Voltaire, and Rousseau, as the most considerable. In epistolary composition the French are also distinguished; and, if any of our writers have attained the elegance of Madame de Sevigné, few have acquired the graceful ease with which it is accompanied. Many French novels, and sentimental tales, have excited attention and interest. Without referring to those of a distant period, we may observe, that the productions of Marmontel, Madame de Stael, and Mademoiselle Cottin, are lively and interesting. De Lille is an ingenious and pleasing poet; and the comic drama is indebted for some lively pieces to the talent of Beaumarchais. Recently, Casimir Delavigne, de la Martine, Victor Hugo, Beranger, and many others, have displayed no mean poetical talents. But neither in our own time, nor at any former period, has France produced an epic poem that can be compared with "Paradise Lost," or a genius of the same extensive and universal kind with Shakspeare, equally fitted for the gay and the serious, the humorous and the sublime. As historians, Thierry, Barante, Guisot, Michelet, Thiers, and Mignet, are entitled to hold a distinguished place.

Before the immortal Newton appeared in England, Des Cartes was the greatest philosopher in modern times. He was the first who applied algebra to the solution of geometrical problems; which naturally prepared the way for the analytical discoveries of Newton. Many eminent mathematicians subsequently flourished, particularly Clairault, Bezout, and d'Alembert; the last of whom, to the precision of a geometrician, united the talents of a fine writer. Laplace, Lalande, and a host of eminent men, might be added to the list.

Scientific men have been very numerous in France since the middle of the last century; and persons of this description, notwithstanding the volatility of the French character, have been remarkably assiduous, patient, and persevering. Their discoveries in chemistry are particularly important; and they have illustrated almost every branch of philosophy. Buffon would deserve to be reckoned among men of science, if he had not been still more remarkable for his eloquence than for his philosophy. He is to be regarded as a philosophical painter of nature; and, under this view,

his "Natural History" is the first work of its kind.

As painters, Poussin, Le Brun, and above all, Le Sueur, did honour to the age of Louis XIV. Since their time the French have had none who can be compared with them in the more noble kind of painting, unless we consider David as their rival. Sculpture is in general better understood in France than in many other countries of Europe. Engraving, an art allied to the former, has also been practised by the French with a great degree of excellence. Yet, such liberal patronage has been afforded to English artists, that they now surpass even their ingenious neighbours.

The treatises of the French on ship-building stand unrivalled, and, accordingly, their vessels have long been celebrated for their admirable construction. No genius has hitherto equalled Vauban in the theory or practice of fortification; but Cormontaigne, and Montalembert have gone near to rival him. The French were long our superiors in architecture; but we now are their equals in that art.

Universities, Public Colleges, and Academies.—Before the year 1789, there were in France twenty-eight universities or public colleges, which were suspended during the tempestuous period of the Revolution. Many of the number, after the storm had in some measure subsided, were re-organized as superior schools; particularly those of Angers, Bourdeaux, Caen, Montpellier, Orleans, Rheims, &c. The university of Paris, which was founded in the reign of Louis VII., was suppressed in 1792; but it has since been re-established, under the title of the Royal University of France, and invested with a controlling authority over the task of education in all parts of the kingdom. It consists of six-and-twenty universitary academies, established at Aix, Amiens, Angers, Besançon, Bourdeaux, Bourges, Caen, Cahors, Clermont, Dijon, Douai, Grenoble, Limoges, Lyon, Metz, Montpellier, Nancy, Nimes, Orleans, Paris, Pau, Poitiers, Rennes, Rouen, Strasburg, and Toulouse. Each academy is superintended by a rector and two inspectors, and comprehends several faculties, and has the control over the royal colleges, (of which there are forty,) private establishments, and primary schools. The combined rectors, inspectors-general, deans of faculties, professors of those faculties, and of the royal colleges, form the university, of which the minister of public instruction is the grand master. Paris has five of the royal colleges, those of Henry IV., Louis le Grand, St. Louis, Bourbon, and Charlemagne. The Polytechnic School, at Paris, enjoys a high reputation.

The following literary establishments were supported out of the national treasury: the Freneb Academy, the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, the Academy of Sciences, and the Academy of the Fine Arts.

In lieu of these four academies, the republican rulers of the state organized the National *Institute; a society* which Louis XVIII. thought proper to continue, because he considered it as useful and honourable to the nation. Each member is entitled to a salary of 1500 francs; and prizes are annually distributed among those proficients in science who make discoveries, those *literati* who produce any valuable work on a given subject, and those artists who exhibit excellent specimens of their genius and taste. To this institution, which is now denominated the Royal Academy, belong the most ingenious and celebrated men in France; and honorary members from Great Britain, Germany, and other countries, are occasionally added to the illustrious assemblage.

Under the republic, primary, central, and special schools were formed; a primary school for each canton; a central school for each department; and special schools for the higher sciences, such as astronomy, and for those arts which require a particular education for the public service, such as medicine and surgery. This system has been preserved, with some modifications.

Language.—The French language is chiefly composed of words radically Latin, with many German derivatives introduced by the Franks. It is now rather on the decay; its corner-stones, fixed under Louis XIV., are, as it were, loosened; and, in the present mode of writing and expressing themselves, the French too often disregard that purity of expression which alone can render a language classical and permanent. The encouragement given by that monarch to every proposal that tended to the refinement and perfection of the French language, was a prudent and politic scheme. He succeeded so far as to render it the most general of all the living tongues; a circumstance that tended equally to his greatness and his glory; for his court and nation thereby became the school of arts, sciences, and politeness.

As to the properties of the language, they are greatly inferior to the English; but it is well adapted to subjects void of elevation or passion, to dalliance, compliments, and common conversation.

Besides the French language, other dialects are in use in various parts of France. In Britanny, a Celtic dialect, analogous to Welsh, is spoken; the inhabitants of the provinces near the Pyrenees speak the Basque language, which has no resemblance to any other; the Gascons, the Languedocians, and the Provençals, have each their peculiar idiom; in Alsace and great part of Lorraine, the German language predominates.

The Lord's Prayer in French, is as follows:—

"Nôtre Père, qui es aux cieux, ton nom soit sanctifié; ton regne vienne; ta volonté soit faite en la terre comme au ciel; donne nous aujourd'hui nôtre pain quotidien; et pardonne nous nos offenses, comme nous pardonnons à ceux qui nous ont offensés; et ne nous induí point en tentation, mais nous delivre du mal:

est le regne, la puissance, et la gloire, es des siècles. Amen."

UITIES.—Few countries can boast of luable remains of antiquity than Some of the French antiquities be- the time of the Celts; and, conse- compared with them, those of Rome rn. Many of the Celtic remains are nd in the western departments. At s a druidical temple, resembling that henge, and consisting of more than ite pillars, forming eleven ranks. Near here are also an obelisk and two crom- ıe of which is of large dimensions. fabillon has given us a most curious of the sepulchres of the French kings, d so far back as Pharamond; some of hen broken open, were found to con- ments and jewels of value. At Rheims, ther parts of France, are to be seen l arches; but the most perfect and one is at Orange, erected on account ctory obtained over the Cimbri and by Marius and Catulus. At the same the remains of a theatre; but time erated all its ornaments, though its ent and dimensions may still be traced. al had been reduced to a province, the took delight in adorning it with mag- ·difices, both civil and sacred, some of re more entire than those of Italy The ruins of an amphitheatre are to at Chalons, and likewise at Vienne. more particularly, exhibits valuable of ancient architecture. The famous Gard was raised in the Augustan age, oman colony of Nismes, to convey a etween two mountains for the use of : it consists of three bridges, or tiers s, one above another; the height is and the length extends to 723 feet. her ruins are found at Nismes. The the temple of Diana, the amphitheatre a thought to be the finest and most any in Europe,) and the house erected mperor Hadrian, called the Maison The architecture and sculpture of this are so beautiful, as to enchant even ignorant. "We do not," it is said, a more perfect monument of Roman , combined with exquisite taste. This le edifice has six columns in front, en on its sides. They are of the n order; the capitals are decorated e leaves, in which great beauty is dis- s well as in the ornaments of the en- . The profiles are perfect, and the of the pediment forms a very rich The length of this edifice is 72 feet, th 36 feet, and the height in propor- ıe portico is ascended by 12 steps; nly entrance is by a gate under the he richness of which coincides with h excites our admiration in the whole ' At Paris, in the Rue de la Harpe, en the remains of the Thermæ, sup- posed to have been built by Julian the Apostate, about the year 356, upon the same model as the baths of Diocletian. The remains of this ancient edifice are many arches, and within them a large saloon. It is fabricated of a kind of mastic, the composition of which is not now known, intermixed with small square pieces of freestone and bricks. But the most extraordinary artificial curiosity is the subterraneous cavern at Paris. For the first building of that city, it was necessary to get the stone in the environs. As the town was enlarged, the streets and suburbs extended to and were built on the ancient quarries from which the stone had been taken; and hence proceed the caverns or frightful cavities which are found under the houses in several quarters of the city. Eight persons some years since perished in one of them, a gulf of 150 feet deep, which induced the police and government to cause a number of buildings to be propped up by pillars; but, as the lofty buildings, towers, and steeples, seem to tell the eye that what is seen in the air is wanting under the feet, so it would not require a very violent shock to throw back the stones to the places from which they were raised.

At Arles in Provence is an obelisk of oriental granite, 52 feet high; the diameter at the base is 7 feet; and the whole is composed of only one stone. Roman temples and aqueducts are frequent in France. The most remarkable are in Burgundy and Guienne: the passage cut through the middle of a rock near Briançon, in Dauphiné, is supposed to be a Roman work, if not of greater antiquity. The round buckler of massy silver, taken out of the Rhone in 1665, being 20 inches in diameter and weighing 21 lbs., containing the story of Scipio's continence, is thought, but seemingly without sufficient authority, to be coeval with that great general.

HISTORY.—This country, which was by the Romans called Trans-Alpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cis-Alpine Gaul, on the Italian side of the Alps, was probably peopled from Italy. Like other European territories, it soon became a desirable object to the ambitious Romans; and, after a brave resistance, was annexed to the empire by the arms of Julius Cæsar, in the 51st year before the birth of Christ. Gaul continued in the possession of the Romans till the downfall of their empire in the 5th century; when it became a prey to the Goths, the Burgundians, and the Franks, who subdued but did not extirpate the ancient natives. The Franks themselves, who gave it the name of France, or Frankenland, were a collection of several nations inhabiting Germany; and particularly the Salii, who lived on the banks of the river Saal, and who cultivated the principles of jurisprudence better than their neighbours. The Salii had a rule, which was subsequently applied by the Franks to the royal succession, excluding all females from the inheritance of

sovereignty: it is well known by the name of the Salic Law.

The Franks and Burgundians, after establishing their power, and reducing the natives to a state of slavery, distributed the lands among their principal leaders; and succeeding kings found it necessary to confirm their privileges, allowing them to exercise sovereign authority in their respective governments, until they at length assumed independence, only acknowledging the king as their head. This gave rise to the numerous principalities which formerly existed in France, and to the several parliaments; for every province became, in its policy and government, an epitome of the whole kingdom: and no laws were made, or taxes raised, without the concurrence of the grand council, consisting of the clergy and nobility.

Thus, as in other European nations, after the dissolution of the Roman empire, the first government in France seems to have been a mixed monarchy, the royal power being extremely circumscribed and limited by the feudal barons.

Among the Franks, the first Christian monarch was Clovis, who began his reign in 481, and was baptized, and introduced Christianity, in 496. His mind had been affected by the pathetic account which he received from missionaries of the death of Christ; and, insensible of the beneficial consequences of the mysterious sacrifice, he exclaimed, with religious fervour, "Had I been present with my valiant Franks, I would have revenged his injuries!" But, though he publicly professed to acknowledge the truth of the Gospel, its divine precepts were little respected either by him or his subjects.

From this period the French history is well known, and is frequently important; and we find the nation generally engaged in domestic broils or foreign wars. Some of its princes, in the 8th century, found cruel enemies in the Saracens, who overran Italy and Spain, and retaliated the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. In 800, Charlemagne, king of France, the glory of those dark ages, became master of Germany, Spain, and part of Italy, and was crowned king of the Romans by the pope. He divided his empire, by will, among his sons; a measure which proved injurious to the power and prosperity of his family. Soon after this, the Normans, a fierce, warlike people from Scandinavia, ravaged the kingdom of France, and, about the year 900, obliged the French to cede Normandy and Bretagne to Rollo, their leader, who married the king's daughter, and was persuaded to profess himself a Christian. This laid the foundation of the Norman power in France, which afterwards gave a king to England, in the person of William duke of Normandy. The success of that prince over *Harold* proved unfortunate to France, as it *engaged the nation in* almost perpetual wars with England, for which it was not an equal match, notwithstanding its numbers.

The rage for crusading, which broke out at this time, was of infinite service to the French crown, in two respects: in the first place, it carried off many thousands of its turbulent subjects, and their leaders, who were almost independent of the king; in the next, the king succeeded to the estates of many of the nobility, who died abroad without heirs.

Passing over the dark ages of the crusades, the expedition to the Holy Land, and wars with England, we shall proceed to that period when the French began to extend their influence over Europe, in the reign of Francis I. This prince, though he was brave to excess in his own person, and had defeated the Swiss, who till then were deemed invincible, was an unfortunate warrior. He had great abilities and great defects. He was a candidate for the imperial throne of Germany, but was disappointed in his hopes by the rivalry of Charles V. of Austria. In 1520, Francis having invited Henry VIII. of England to an interview, the two kings met in an open plain, near Calais: where they and their attendants displayed their magnificence, with such emulation and profuse expense, as gave it the name of the Field of the Cloth of Gold. Feats of chivalry, and entertainments of gallantry, with such exercises and pastimes as were in that age reckoned manly or elegant, rather than serious business, occupied both courts during eighteen days. Francis made some successful expeditions against Spain, but suffered his mother, of whom he was very fond, to abuse his power; by which he disobliged the constable of Bourbon, the greatest of his subjects, who joined in a confederacy against him with the emperor and Henry VIII. In his adventurous expedition into Italy, he was made prisoner at the battle of Pavia, in 1525, and obliged to agree to dishonourable terms (which he never meant to perform) to regain his liberty. His non-performance of those conditions occasioned another war between him and the emperor; and the rivalry of these princes tended to cherish the warlike spirit of the age, but not without the infliction of serious mischief upon society.

Notwithstanding his misfortunes and the turmoils of his reign, France was, at the time of his death, in a flourishing condition. In 1547, he was succeeded by his son Henry II., who, upon the whole, was an excellent and fortunate prince. This monarch continued the war with the emperor of Germany, to great advantage for his own dominions; and he was so well served by the duke of Guise, that, though he lost the battle of St. Quentin against the Spaniards and the English, he retook Calais from the latter, who have never since possessed any part of France. He married his son the dauphin to Mary of Scotland, in the hope of uniting that kingdom to his crown; but in this respect he was unsuccessful. He was mainten-

tionally killed, in 1559, at a tilting-match, by the count of Montgomery.

He was succeeded by his son, Francis II., a weak, sickly, inactive prince, whose power was engrossed by a prince of the House of Guise, uncle to the beautiful queen of Scotland. This arbitrary assumption of power so disgusted Antony, king of Navarre, the head of the Bourbon family, that he joined some of the most powerful nobles of the realm in a strong opposition to the court; but, the queen-mother (the famous Catharine of Medicis) being obliged to take part with the Guises, the confederacy, which had adopted the Protestant cause, was nearly dissolved, when the sudden death of Francis happened, in 1560, at the age of 16 years.

This event took place while the prince of Condé, brother to the king of Navarre, was under sentence of death for a conspiracy against the court; but the queen-mother saved him, to balance the interest of the Guises; so that the sole direction of affairs fell into her hands, during the minority of her son Charles IX. Her regency was a series of dissimulation, treachery, and murder. The duke of Guise, who was the scourge of the Protestants, was assassinated by one Poltrot, at the siege of Orleans; and the murderer was unjustly thought to have been instigated by Coligni, admiral of France, who was then at the head of the Protestant party. Three civil wars succeeded. At length the court pretended to grant the Huguenots a very advantageous peace; and a match was concluded between Henry, the young king of Navarre, a Protestant, and the French king's sister. The Protestant leaders were invited to celebrate the nuptials at Paris, with the infernal view of murdering them all, if possible, in one night. The project proved too successful, though it was not completely executed, on St. Bartholomew's day, 1572. The king himself assisted in the massacre, in which Coligni fell. The signal of slaughter was to be made by striking the great bell of the palace. At that dreadful knell, the work of death began, and humanity recoils from the horrors of the fatal night of St. Bartholomew; yet the reader may expect, amidst the general carnage, that some few moments should be devoted to the fate of Coligni. He had long retired to rest, when he was aroused by the noise of the assassins, who had surrounded his house. A German, named Besme, entered his chamber; and the admiral, suspecting his intentions, prepared to meet death with that fortitude which had ever distinguished him. Incapable of resistance, from the wounds he had received in a late attempt to assassinate him, he had scarcely, with an undismayed countenance, uttered these words, "Young man, respect these grey hairs, nor stain them with blood," when Besme plunged his sword into his bosom, and, with his barbarous associates, threw the body into the court. The young duke of Guise contemplated it in silence; but Henry, count d'Angoulême, natural brother to Charles, spurned it with his foot, exclaiming, "Courage, my friends! we have begun well; let us finish in the same manner." It is said about 30,000 Protestants were then murdered at Paris, and in other parts of France; and this brought on a fourth civil war. Though a fresh peace was concluded in 1573 with the Protestants, yet another war broke out in the next year, when the blood-stained Charles died without heirs.

His third brother, the duke of Anjou, had some time before been chosen king of Poland. From that country he with some difficulty escaped to France, where he took quiet possession of the throne, by the name of Henry III.

Religion at that time supplied to the reformed nobles of France the feudal power which they had lost. The heads of the Protestants could raise armies of Huguenots. The governors of provinces behaved in them as if they had been independent; and the parties were so equally balanced, that the name of the king alone turned the scale. A Holy League was formed for the defence of the Catholic religion, at the head of which was the duke of Guise. The Protestants, under the prince of Condé and the duke of Alençon, called the German princes to their assistance; and a sixth civil war broke out in 1577, in which the king of Spain took the part of the league, chiefly because the duke of Alençon had declared himself lord of the Netherlands. The war was finished within the year, by another pretended peace.

The king, from his accession, had plunged himself into a course of infamous debauchery and religious extravagance. He was entirely governed by his profligate favourites; but he possessed natural good sense. He began to suspect that the proscription of the Protestants, and the exclusion of the king of Navarre from the succession, on account of his religion, were connected with an intention of placing the duke of Guise, the idol of the Catholics, on the throne, to which he had some distant pretensions. Amidst this collision of interests, intestine broils were renewed in 1579; and the flame again burst forth in 1585, to the disadvantage of the Protestants, through the abilities of the duke of Guise. The king thought him now so dangerous, that, when he and his brother had been invited to court, in 1588, they were by his majesty's orders, and almost under his eyes, basely assassinated. The leaguers, upon this, declared that Henry had forfeited his crown, and was an enemy to religion. This obliged him to throw himself into the arms of the Protestants; but, while he was besieging Paris, where the leaguers had their greatest force, he was in his turn assassinated by one Clement, a young enthusiastic monk, in 1589. With this prince ended the line of Valois.

The readers of history are well acquainted with the difficulties, on account of his religion, which Henry of Navarre, head of the House of Bourbon, and next heir by the Salic law, had to encounter before he mounted the throne.

The leaguers were headed by the duke of Mayenne, brother to the late duke of Guise; and they drew from his cell the decrepit cardinal of Bourbon, uncle of the king of Navarre, to proclaim him king of France. Their party being strongly supported by the power of Spain and Rome, all the glorious actions performed by Henry, his courage and magnanimity, seemed only to make him more illustriously unfortunate; for he and his little court were sometimes without the common necessaries of life. He was, however, personally beloved; and no objection was urged against him, but that of religion. The leaguers, on the other hand, were divided among themselves; and the French in general were jealous of the Spaniards. Henry, after experiencing a variety of good and bad fortune, resolved to declare himself a Roman Catholic. This was called a measure of prudence, if not of necessity, as the king of Spain had offered his daughter Isabella Clara Eugenia to be queen of France, and would have married her to the young duke of Guise.

In 1593, Henry went publicly to mass, as a mark of his conversion. This concession wrought wonders in his favour; and, when he had with great difficulty obtained absolution from the pope, and bought the allegiance of the hostile generals and governors of provinces and fortresses, all France submitted to his authority, and he had only the crown of Spain to contend with. In 1598, he published the famous edict of Nantes, which secured to his old friends, the Protestants, the free exercise of their religion; and, in the next year, the treaty of Vervins was concluded with Spain. Henry afterward chastised the duke of Savoy, who had taken advantage of the late troubles in his kingdom; and applied himself with great attention and success (assisted by the great Sully) to every branch of government. Having re-established the tranquillity, and in a great measure secured the happiness of his people, he formed connexions with the neighbouring powers, for reducing the ambition of the House of Austria; for which purpose, it is said, he had formed great schemes, and collected a formidable army. Others say, (for his object does not clearly appear,) that he intended to form Christendom into a great republic, of which France was to be the head, and to drive the Turks out of Europe; while some, and apparently on good grounds, attribute his preparations to a more ignoble motive, that of a criminal passion for a favourite princess, whose husband had carried her for protection into the Austrian dominions. Whatever may be in these conjectures, it is certain, that, while he was making preparations for the coronation of his queen, Mary of Medicis, and was ready to enter upon his grand expedition, he was assassinated in his coach, in 1610, by one Ravaillac.

Louis XIII., son to Henry IV., was only nine *years of age at the* time of his father's death. As he grew up, he discarded his mother and her favourites, and chose for his minister the famous Cardinal Richelieu, who, by his resolute and bloody measures, put a period to the remaining liberties of France, and to the religious establishment of the Protestants in that kingdom, by taking from them Rochelle; though Charles I. of England, who had married the French king's sister, made some weak efforts, by his fleet and army, to prevent it. This put an end to the civil wars on account of religion in France. Historians say, that in these wars above 1,000,000 of men lost their lives; that 150,000,000 livres were spent in carrying them on; and that 9 cities, 400 villages, 2000 churches, 2000 monasteries, and 10,000 houses, were destroyed during their continuance. That dreadful havoc and enormous outrages were perpetrated, we have no reason to doubt; but these calculations are generally the offspring of mere conjecture, and teem with exaggeration.

Though he was bigoted to popery, Richelieu, by a masterly train of politics, supported the Protestants of Germany, and Gustavus Adolphus, against the House of Austria. After quelling the rebellions and conspiracies which had been formed against him in France, he died some months before Louis, who, in 1643, left his son to inherit the throne.

During the minority of Louis XIV. the kingdom, under the administration of his mother, Anne of Austria, was convulsed by the factious of the great, and the divisions between the court and parliament, for the most trifling causes, and upon the most despicable principles. The prince of Condé flamed like a blazing star; sometimes a patriot, sometimes a courtier, and at other times a rebel. He was opposed by the celebrated Turenne, who from a Protestant had become a Papist. But the queen-mother having made choice of Cardinal Mazarin for her first minister, he found means to turn the arms even of Cromwell against the Spaniards, and to divide the domestic enemies of the court so effectually among themselves, that, when Louis assumed the government, he found himself the most absolute monarch that had ever filled the throne of France. He had the good fortune, on the death of Mazarin, to put the internal administration into the hands of Colbert, who formed new systems for the commerce and manufactures of France, in which he was exceedingly successful.

To write the history of this reign, would be to write that of all Europe. Ignorance and ambition were the only enemies of Louis: through the former, he was blind to every patriotic duty of a king, and promoted the interests of his subjects only that they might the better answer the purposes of his greatness; by the latter he embroiled himself with all his neighbours, and wantonly rendered Germany a dismal scene of devastation. By his impolitic and unjust revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685, and his persecution of the Protestants, he obliged them to take shelter in England, Holland, and

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e was so blinded by flattery, that he
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ıs for his own convenience, and at
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' it had been splendid. His reign,
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t eight years as regent, and the
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oung king nominated his preceptor,
Cardinal Fleury, to be the chief di-
e national concerns. Though the
his minister was entirely pacific,
ation of affairs in Europe, on the
king of Poland in 1734, embroiled
the House of Austria. The inten-
is was to replace his father-in-law,
on the throne of Poland. In this
rough the interposition of the Rus-
Austrians; but Stanislaus enjoyed
king, and the revenues of Lorraine,
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Great Britain, which was terminated
y of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748.

debauched and dissolute king was
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the realm, his life was threatened
of a fanatic malcontent, named Da-
wounded him with a penknife, as
paring to enter his coach. The
sin had mingled with the crowd of
ut was instantly betrayed by his
ountenance. He declared that it
intention to kill the king; but that
ıat to wound him, that God might
eart, and incline him to restore the
of his dominions by re-establishing
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him to the desperate attempt. He
was conducted to the common place of execution, amidst a vast concourse of the populace; stripped, and fastened to the scaffold by iron gyves; then his right hand was burned in liquid flaming sulphur; his thighs, legs, and arms, were torn with red-hot pincers; boiling oil, melted lead, resin, and sulphur, were poured into the wounds; and, to complete the horrid catastrophe, he was torn to pieces by horses.

The Jesuits, having rendered themselves universally odious by their share in the conspiracy against the king of Portugal, fell in France under the lash of the civil power, for some fraudulent mercantile transactions. They refused to discharge the debts of one of their body, who had become bankrupt for a large sum, and who was supposed to act for the benefit of the whole society. The parliaments eagerly seized an opportunity of humbling their spiritual enemies. The Jesuits, in various provinces, were cited before those high tribunals in 1761, and ordered to do justice to their creditors. They seemed to acquiesce in the decision, but delayed payment under various pretences. New suits were commenced against them in 1762, on account of the pernicious tendency of their writings. In the course of these proceedings, which the king endeavoured in vain to prevent, they were compelled to produce their Institute, or the rules of their order, hitherto studiously concealed. That mysterious volume, which was found to contain maxims subversive of all civil government, and even of the fundamental principles of morals, completed their ruin. All their colleges were seized, all their effects confiscated; and the king, ashamed or afraid to protect them, not only resigned them to their fate, but banished them, and abolished their order in France.

Elated by this victory over ecclesiastical tyranny, the French parliaments attempted to set bounds to the absolute power of the crown, and seemed determined to confine it within the limits of law. Not satisfied with refusing, as usual, to register certain oppressive edicts, or with remonstrating against them, they ordered criminal prosecutions to be commenced against the governors of several provinces, acting in the king's name, who had enforced the registration of those edicts. The magnanimity of these assemblies had awakened new ideas in the bosoms of the French; they were taught by the late remonstrances to consider their inherent rights; and this flame, in the succeeding reign, burst forth with accumulated force.

As to the war with Great Britain, which was ended by the peace of Fontainebleau, in 1763, its chief incidents, so humiliating to France, have been already mentioned in the history of England, and therefore need not be recapitulated here.

Corsica, a small island in the Mediterranean, had long resisted with manly firmness the tyranny of the Genoese, who claimed the *sovereignty over* it by right of conquest. Unable

to support those pretensions, Genoa transferred them to France, on condition that Louis should put her in full possession of the adjacent island of Capraia, which the Corsicans had lately invaded and reduced. The king, to secure the prize at which he aimed, sent a considerable army to Corsica, while the natives, whose free suffrages had summoned Paoli, one of their chiefs, to the supreme government of the island, were intent upon a spirited defence. A brisk war was now carried on in the mountainous parts of the island; and it was not till after the French had severely experienced, in two campaigns, the enthusiastic courage which animates the champions of freedom, that they overwhelmed, by their superior numbers, this unfortunate people; nor had Louis much reason to triumph in the acquisition of a rugged and unproductive island, which he had purchased with the lives of several thousands of his bravest troops.

Louis XVI., who had already married the daughter of Maria Theresa, succeeded his grandfather in 1774. He reinstated the different parliaments which the late king had suppressed, and testified, in other respects, a regard for the wishes and interests of his people. Finding the finances deranged, he gave the direction of that department to M. Necker, a Swiss Protestant, and a friend of liberty. If this minister had swayed the cabinet with regard to foreign politics, the court, in all probability, would not have interfered in the contest between Great Britain and her American colonies. Louis, who was a man of honour and moderation, was not inclined to violate the treaty of peace; but the prime minister, Maurepas, and the queen's party, would not suffer such an opportunity of injuring a rival nation to elude their grasp. As we have already recorded the chief incidents of the war which then arose, we shall merely observe, in this place, that, when the independence of the American states had been acknowledged, the success of their struggle for freedom invigorated that desire of shaking off the yoke of despotism, which the French had lately imbibed under the auspices of the parliamentary leaders. For some years, the growing spirit served only to enliven conversation; but, when the finances were involved in great disorder by the heavy charges of the war and the extravagance of the court, the politicians assumed a higher tone, and ventured to propose a reform of the administration. M. de Calonne, the new financial minister, being unable to remedy the disorder, advised the king to call an assembly of notables, or respectable and distinguished persons, for the purpose of deliberation. When this meeting took place in 1787, the minister recommended a territorial impost, in the nature of the English land-tax, from which no rank or order of men should be exempted, and an inquiry into the possessions of the ecclesiastics. The various branches of internal taxation were also to undergo a strict examination; and a considerable resource was presented in mortgaging the demesne lands of the crown.

The grand and essential object of reform was to equalize the public burdens, and, by rendering the taxes general, to diminish the load which pressed on the lower and most useful classes of the people. The ancient nobility and the clergy had ever been free from all public assessments; the crowds of new noblesse, who had purchased their patents, were by that shameful custom exempted from contributing proportionally to the expenses of the state: the magistrates likewise throughout the kingdom enjoyed their share of exemptions; so that the weight of the taxes fell almost entirely on those who were least able to bear them. Thus the nobility, clergy, and magistracy, were united against the minister; and their intrigues raised against him so loud a clamour, that, finding it impossible to stem the torrent, he not only resigned his post, but retired to England from the storm of persecution.

The notables proceeded in their inquiries: and it was now suggested that an assembly of the states should be called, which had not met since the year 1614. This proposal was far from being agreeable to the court; and, as the notables refused to give their sanction to any new taxes, they were dismissed by the king, who, having ordained some stamp-duties, directed the parliament of Paris to register the edict. When the magistrates protested against it, he banished them to Troyes; for even this mild prince could not consent to surrender, without a struggle, that authority which had been so long exercised by his predecessors. He imprisoned several members for having spoken freely at a royal session, and made such arrangements as diminished the dignity and authority of the parliamentary bodies. These and other arbitrary proceedings excited strong and general disgust.

No alternative remained now to Louis, but to plunge his country into all the calamities of civil war, or to comply with the wishes of his people, and re-establish the states-general. In the first case, he must have expected to encounter the majority of the people, animated by the exhortations and examples of their magistrates: the peers of the realm had expressed the strongest disapprobation of his measures, nor could he depend upon the support even of the princes of his blood; but what afforded most serious matter of alarm was the spirit lately displayed among the soldiery, who, during some disturbances in the provinces, had reluctantly been brought to draw their swords against their countrymen; and many of those officers, who had recently served in America, publicly proclaimed their abhorrence of despotism.

It was under these impressions that an *edict* was published, which fixed the meeting of the states-general at Versailles, for the 1st of May, 1789. At the same time every step was taken to secure the favourable opinion of the public. New arrangements were made in the adminis-

ation; and Necker, whom the confidence of e people had long followed, was again introced into the management of the finances; e torture, which by a former edict had been stricted in part, was entirely abolished; every rson accused was allowed to enjoy the assistce of counsel, and permitted to avail himself any point of law; and it was decreed, that, future, sentence of death should not be passed any person, unless he should be pronounced ilty by a majority of three judges.

The eyes of all Europe were now turned on e states-general. But the minds of the French d long been agitated by various rumours; e unanimity that had been expected was exguished by the jarring pretensions of each der of the states; and their mutual jealousies re attributed by the suspicions of the people the intrigues of the courtiers, who were supsed already to repent of the hasty assent at had been extorted. A dearth that perded the kingdom increased the general gloom d discontent; and the people seemed ripe r revolt. Equally impatient of the obstacles hich he encountered, the sovereign also could t conceal his chagrin; the influence of the een in the cabinet was again established, and s attended by the removal of Necker. This ep, which evinced a total change of resolus, and which, from the popularity of the inister, was likely to produce a violent fermentation, was followed by some movements hich seemed to indicate hostile intentions. e states-general were surrounded by detachents of the guards, who waited only the orders the court to proceed to extremities against e obnoxious representatives of the nation.

Had these manifestations of vigour been sustined by instantly attacking and entering ris, it is not to be doubted that the capital uld for the moment have been reduced to obeence without much difficulty. But the delay hich succeeded gave the inhabitants time to cover from their first emotions of surprise d apprehension. They saw the timidity and ibecility of the government, which, having anded the charge, dared not advance to the tack. They profited by this want of exertion, d took up arms against their rulers. Joined the French guards, who, from a long resiance in the capital, had been peculiarly exsed to seduction, and who at this decisive oment abandoned their sovereign, the Paians broke through every obstacle by which ey had hitherto been restrained. The supies of arms and ammunition which had been ovided for their subjugation, were turned ainst the crown; and the Hôtel des Invalides, e great repository of military stores, surdered, after a faint resistance. The Bastile s the next object of attack; and that awful gime of despotism, of which the name alone fused terror, was entered, on the 14th of July, 9, by the victorious assailants, who put the vernor to death, on pretence of his having ed upon the people, after he had *displayed a* flag of truce. Very few prisoners were found in the fortress; but, to prevent it from being again used for the purpose of confinement or intimidation, and to intimate an abhorrence of the cruelties which had been perpetrated in former reigns within its walls, it was eagerly and totally demolished.

With the Bastile expired that despotism which long prescription and military strength seemed to have rendered sacred and unassailable. The king was confounded at the shock; he dismissed the troops which he had collected, and declared his readiness to concur with the national assembly (for the commons had already usurped the undivided authority of the three orders) in every measure which might gratify his people. Necker was reinstated in his ministerial functions; and the assembly undertook the work of reform, with greater zeal and precipitancy than judgment. The titles and privileges of the higher orders were abolished; the parliaments were suppressed; monasteries were dissolved, and the possessions of the church seized for other uses. The first anniversary of the Revolution was celebrated by a grand confederation; and, on that occasion, an altar was erected in the Champ de Mars; at which, after the solemnization of mass, the king, the national representatives, the army, and the people, took an oath for the observance of that constitution which was then in progress. Before it was completed, the king, finding himself a prisoner of state, suspected and watched by the democratic leaders, endeavoured to escape to the frontiers, that he might have greater liberty of action, under the protection of troops that were not infected with the prevailing spirit; but he was unfortunately discovered, and compelled to return to the scene of his degradation. His two brothers, however, made their escape; and many of the nobility and clergy were also glad to effect a retreat, as various commotions, in which they were exposed to peculiar danger, had already occurred.

The new constitution, which, under the form of monarchy, tended to the establishment of democracy, was presented to the king in September, 1791. He declared, in writing, his acceptance of it; and, appearing before the assembly, solemnly consecrated the assent which he had given, and concluded with an oath, "to be faithful to the nation and to the law, and to employ the powers vested in him for the maintenance of the constitution, and the due execution of the laws." Soon after this, the second national representative body assembled.

The protection found in Germany by the emigrants, excited France to vigorous resolutions; and a manifesto, addressed to all states and nations, made its appearance. The forcible measures pursued, had the effect of intimidating the German princes; and the emigrants were constrained to an ignominious dispersion from the frontiers. In the mean time, the *emperor Leopold*, more eminent for the mild

virtues of peace than for the exertions of war, seemed to be undetermined how to act. He had acknowledged the national flag; he had declared that he regarded the king of the French as absolutely free; while the league of Pilnitz, (which, as was avowed by the court of Vienna, was not only intended to secure Germany from such a revolution as France had experienced, but even to extinguish the dreaded source,) and the protection afforded to the emigrants, were infallible proofs that he could not be regarded as a friend. His sudden death, in 1792, excited great consternation among the aristocratic party, and afforded joy and exultation to the supporters of the constitution. Another event, no less unexpected, happened in the violent death of the Swedish monarch: and the superstitious vulgar imagined that they beheld the peculiar protection of Heaven, in the removal of the two chief foes of France in so short a time.

In the progress of the negotiations between the national assembly and the court of Vienna, Francis, the young king of Hungary, (who was soon after chosen emperor,) encouraged by the spirit of the Prussian court, began to manifest greater enmity, and to use more decisive language; and he at length required that satisfaction should be given to the German princes, proprietors in Alsace; that Avignon, which had been usurped by France, should be restored to the pope; and that the government of France should be so constituted, as to free all other powers from apprehensions of molestation and disturbance. These demands produced a declaration of war against him.

The first movements of the French were stained with defeat, and with the murder of Theobald Dillon, their leader, who fell a victim to the suspicious and savage ferocity of some of his soldiers. The court of Vienna explained the cause of the war, and retorted on the French nation some of the heavy charges contained in its hostile declaration. The Prussian monarch also issued a concise exposition of the reasons which determined him to take up arms against France. He pleaded his alliance with the emperor, and honestly avowed that it was his intention to repress the licentiousness of France, which might afford a dangerous example to neighbouring countries. At the same time the duke of Brunswick, commander of the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, published, at Coblentz, a declaration to the inhabitants of France, conceived in the most haughty and presumptuous terms: he declared his intention of putting a stop to the anarchy which prevailed in France, and of restoring the king to his power; and yet he afterwards said, that his design was not to interfere in the internal government. This imprudent manifesto excited general indignation in France.

When the war broke out, the party of Brissot prevailed in the assembly, and that factious leader, being intent on the formation of a re*public, devised* an atrocious scheme, calculated for the ruin of the king. The former assembly had been removed to Paris, with a view of securing the ready assistance of the populace, in any contest which might arise with the court; and the directors of the present legislature resolved to take advantage of that circumstance, by instigating the rabble to an attack of the palace, with a view of representing the mere operations of defence, on the part of the king, as acts of sanguinary despotism. Many lives were lost on both sides; but the chief havoc was made among the Swiss guards, few of whom escaped. Another outrage was soon after perpetrated; for a great number of unfortunate royalists, who had been sent to different prisons without having committed any offence, were murdered by the emissaries of Robespierre and Danton, the flagitious leaders of a disorganizing society, called, from the monastic hall in which its meetings were holden, the Jacobin Club.

A convention was now called, as a substitute for the legislative assembly; and its first act was the subversion of the monarchy. A republic was ordered to commence from the 21st of September, 1792; and it was resolved that a process should be instituted against Louis, as a tyrant, and a treacherous promoter of foreign hostilities.

In the mean time, the combined troops met with great difficulties in their progress, and found that the conquest of France was a more arduous task than they had fondly imagined. Want of provisions, the prevalence of disease, and the danger of being surrounded, induced the duke of Brunswick, after insignificant instances of success, to retreat from France.

As the king of Sardinia was known to be friendly to the anti-Gallican confederacy, the invasion of Savoy was ordered, and the expedition proved rapidly successful. The imprudence of the convention, in decreeing the incorporation of that duchy with France, excited wonder. After frequent declarations that the French would enter into no war with a view to conquest, their conduct in this respect was absurd and impolitic. It subjected them to the merited reproach, that, under the pretence of liberty, they maintained the destructive maxims of their ancient government, and that their wishes to increase their territory, perhaps to subjugate Europe, remained the same. Admiral Truguet, commanding a squadron in the Mediterranean, captured Nice, Villa-Franca, and the fortress of Montalban, belonging to the king of Sardinia.

The conquest of Savoy was regarded as a trifle; but, when Custine began his acquisitions in Germany, every eye was turned to the rapidity and importance of his progress, till diverted by the wonders which Dumouries achieved. Spire yielded to the French arms, and the conquest of Worms followed: ample supplies of provisions and ammunition were found in those cities. Custine, pursuing his course along the Rhine, next captured Mentz, and afterwards

He was eager to proceed to Cob- t noted seat of the counter-revo- but the Prussians and Austrians a renewal of hostilities by garrison- own, and encamping in the adjacent

quest of the Austrian Netherlands : next grand object. Dumouriez had to pass his Christmas at Brussels; vas regarded as an idle vaunt, proved st; for that city was in his hands on of November. That able general, tered the Netherlands with 40,000 vith a formidable train of artillery, ive days in repeated engagements ustrian army, which, however, did not 00. At length, on the 6th of Novem- le was fought at Gemappe, which de- ute of the Netherlands. The contest eneral: all the points of the enemy's l lines were attacked at once; all of the French were in action, and ery individual fought personally. bstinate conflict, the Austrians re- e utmost disorder.

ez immediately advanced, and took of Mons, where the French were brethren. Tournay surrendered to ent, and Dumouriez advanced to here, after an engagement between l the Austrian rear, he was received nations. Ghent, Charleroi, Antwerp, nd all the towns of the Austrian ls, except Luxembourg, followed the the capital.

ged by this success, the convention d a decree which attracted the atten- ry nation in Europe. It is in the terms: "The national convention fraternity and assistance to all those o wish to procure liberty; and the ower will send orders to the generals stance to such people, and to defend o have suffered, or are suffering, in f liberty." This decree, and others ir tendency, obviously instituted a rusade against all the powers of

r had Antwerp yielded to the French in order to conciliate the Belgians, g of the navigation of the Scheldt the treaty of Munster, in 1648) was nd ordered, although that stipula- en confirmed to the Dutch in suc- aties, guarantied both by the courts s and London. The Dutch regarded e as injurious to their trade: Ant- apprehended, might prove a dan- l to Amsterdam. The infraction of ent was one of the reasons which e parliament of Great Britain to unwarrantable pretensions of the

orable trial of the king commenced of December. The issue is too well e firmness of this unfortunate mo- narch during his trial, and at the place of execution, (on the 21st of January, 1793,) increased the commiseration of every indifferent spectator; and callous indeed must be the person who does not, even at this distance of time, partake of the sympathy which was then felt through all Europe.

We cannot be expected, in a professed compendium, to trace minutely and gradually the progress of the dispute between France and England. Without affixing any degree of credit to the report of the early accession of Great Britain to the concert of princes and the treaty of Pilnitz, it is natural to believe that the ministry had long viewed with a jealous eye the progress of the French Revolution toward a turbulent democracy.

The French nation, at first, seemed desirous of the good opinion of our court at this crisis; but the ruling power defied the displeasure of all foreign states; and the act against aliens, and other instances of suspicious or unfriendly conduct on the part of Great Britain, excited such resentment among the leaders of the convention, that war was declared, on the 1st of February, 1793, against our sovereign, and his subservient friend the prince of Orange.

The subjugation of Holland was the next project of Dumouriez; and there seemed reason to apprehend that he would soon make an impression on that country. The easy surrender of Breda and Gertruydenburg encouraged him to boast that he would terminate the contest by a speedy approach to Amsterdam; but certain events ensued, which effectually prevented the performance of his promise. He had, in fact, advanced much too far, leaving a formidable enemy behind him.

Miranda, who had besieged Maestricht, was attacked by Prince Frederic of Brunswick, and defeated with considerable loss. Dumouriez was, in consequence, compelled to hurry back to Belgium. A general engagement soon after took place at Neerwinden. The action continued with great obstinacy on both sides, for ten hours; the French were then obliged to fall back; and, the Austrian cavalry coming up, put them entirely to flight. The loss in each army was great. The French displayed considerable courage and address, but were overpowered by the superior number, and perhaps by the more regular discipline, of their enemies.

Dumouriez was now suspected of treachery; and four commissioners were sent from Paris, with power to suspend and arrest all generals and military officers whom they should suspect, and bring them to the bar of the convention. These deputies proceeded to his head quarters, and explained to him the object of their mission. After a conference of some hours, the general, finding that he could not persuade them to favour his intentions, ordered them to be conveyed to the Austrian camp at Tournay, as hostages for the safety of the royal family.

He found himself, however, in a great error with respect to the disposition of his troops.

prevailed among the friends of the court. The princess of Orange, with the younger and female part of the family, escaped to England, which also afforded an asylum to the stadtholder, who crossed the sea in an open boat, from Scheveling.

On the 20th of January, Pichegru entered Amsterdam in triumph, at the head of 5000 men, and was received by the inhabitants with the loudest acclamations. The whole of the United Provinces submitted to the French. The provisional representatives of the people met on the 27th, and the government assumed a democratic form.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, who had recovered Mentz and performed other services, began to relax his efforts. The Prussian and Austrian forces, as well as their leaders, were on unfriendly terms with each other; but it was not suspected that any defection was about to take place, on the part of the Prussians, till they began to retreat toward the Rhine, which they soon after passed. A negotiation followed, which ended in a treaty of peace, signed at Basle, on the 5th of April, 1795. His Prussian majesty thus abandoned the coalition, and meanly purchased peace by resigning to the French a part of the duchy of Cleves.

The Prussian negotiation was followed by a treaty between the French republic and Spain, in which country the arms of France had made a progress equally successful and rapid. Fontarabia had been taken, almost immediately, by a detachment from the French army: other strong towns were captured; and the troops of the republic had made themselves masters of the greater part of the rich provinces of Biscay and Catalonia. Orders were therefore dispatched by the court of Madrid for the adjustment of a treaty, which was accordingly signed at Basle, on the 22nd of July.

About the middle of the year died the son of he unfortunate Louis XVI. An unjust and close imprisonment hastened his dissolution. He had always been an unhealthy child, and subject to a scrofulous complaint; a disorder in which confinement and inactivity are generally fatal. Moved, perhaps, by this event, or influenced by the general sympathy of the people of France, the committee of public safety proposed the exchange of the princess, sister of the dauphin, for the deputies delivered up to Austria by the treachery of Dumouriez, and for the two ambassadors, Semonville, and Maret, who had been seized by an Austrian corps. The emperor, after some hesitation, acceded to the proposal.

While the republicans were triumphing on the frontiers, they had a more formidable enemy to combat with in the interior. The western departments of France were in arms for the royal cause, and the royalists fought with all the courage of revenge and desperation. Repeated and terrible defeats were sustained by the republicans, whose loss in this war exceeded that which they sustained from the allies.

In the course of 1795 a tardy expedition was planned by the English ministry to invade the coast of France, in that part where the royalists were in arms. The force employed consisted chiefly of emigrants, under the command of the Count de Puisaye, M. d'Hervilly, and the Count de Sombreuil. They landed in the Bay of Quiberon, and took Fort Penthievre; but soon after experienced a sad reverse; the fort being surprised by the republicans, who killed or made prisoners the greater part of the emigrants and their associates. This disaster was mainly attributable to the misconduct of M. d'Hervilly. The Count de Sombreuil, the bishop of Dol, with the clergymen who accompanied him, and most of the captives, were tried by a military tribunal, and put to death. In the spring of the ensuing year, the revolt in this part of France was quelled; and the chiefs of La Vendée, Charette and Stoffet, were shot.

In the year 1796, the rapid and signal victories of the republican troops, under the command of the celebrated Bonaparte, ended, in little more than a month, the war with the king of Sardinia. The battles of Monte-Lezino, Mondovi, and Monte-Notte, compelled that prince to accept such terms as the conquerors thought proper to offer; and a treaty of peace, by which he ceded Savoy and Nice to France, was signed on the 15th of May. Bonaparte pursued his success; and, again defeating Beaulieu, the Austrian general, at the battle of Lodi, forced the shattered remains of the Austrian army to retire toward Mantua, pursued by a part of the republican force, while the rest entered Milan: and the French gained possession of the whole of Lombardy.

The army under General Jourdan, gaining considerable advantages over the Austrians, advanced into the heart of the empire; while another army, under Moreau, passed the Rhine at Strasbourg, took the fort of Kehl, and, penetrating through Bavaria, nearly to Ratisbon, endeavoured to form a junction with Jourdan. This attempt, however, did not succeed; both armies experienced a severe reverse of fortune, and were obliged to retreat in utter confusion till they re-crossed the Rhine. The situation of Moreau was highly critical; and his retreat is acknowledged to have been skilfully conducted; in which, however, he was greatly favoured by the blunders of the generals who were opposed to him. The archduke Charles, who commanded the Austrian army, followed Moreau in the latter part of his retreat, and invested Kehl, which he retook after a most obstinate resistance on the part of the French.

To restore the affairs of Italy, the emperor assembled a new army, composed of the flower of the German troops serving on the Rhine, and gave the command of it to Wurmser, one of the oldest and ablest of the imperial generals. This force, on its first arrival, was sur-

aful: the French were repulsed, defeated, l compelled to raise the siege of Mantua. naparte, however, soon returned to the irge; and, after a series of spirited actions, rmser was obliged to shut himself up in ntua, where he was closely besieged by the tors, who at the same time made incursions o the Tyrol, and, by the battle of Roveredo, l the possession of Trent, became masters the passes that led to Vienna. The Aus- ns, at the same time, made a great effort, ler Alvinsy, to rescue the gallant Wurmser l his besieged army; but the battle of Arcole mpletely defeated their views, and Mantua s obliged to surrender.

The victories of Bonaparte compelled the e, the king of Naples, and the inferior nces of Italy, to conclude such treaties as French thought proper to dictate. The tors likewise founded a new republic in ly, at first called the Cispadane, but after- rds, when augmented, styled the Cisalpine ublic.

After the taking of Mantua, the victorious neral penetrated into Styria and Carinthia, l directed his course toward the Austrian pital. The archduke Charles was opposed to n, but was unable to check his progress. e republican troops had at length advanced near to Vienna, that the utmost alarm and nfusion prevailed in that city. The bank sus- nded its payments; and the emperor was pparing to forsake his capital, and remove to nuts. In this critical situation of his affairs, imperial majesty opened a negotiation with naparte; a short armistice was agreed to: l preliminaries of peace were signed at oben.

In the mean time, a tumult having taken ace at Venice, in which many French soldiers re murdered, the army on its return abolished e ancient government of Venice, planted the e of liberty in St. Mark's Place, established municipality, and proposed to annex the city d territory to the new Cisalpine republic. t the conclusion of the definitive treaty of ace with the emperor being protracted by e refusal of the French to restore Mantua, y at length agreed to cede to him the city d a part of the territory of Venice, in com- nsation for Mantua. The treaty was signed Campo Formio, on the 17th of October, 1797. r this treaty the emperor ceded to France the ole of the Netherlands, and all his former rritories in Italy. He received in return the y of Venice, and the Venetian territory as r as the Adige, with Istria and Dalmatia; the nch were to possess the Ionian islands and me towns in Albania. The rest of the Vene- n state in Italy was added to the Cisalpine public.

During the negotiation, the disputes of two tending parties led to a new revolution in rance. The convention had been dissolved in 95; and an assembly of elders, and a council 500, had been chosen, with an executive directory. In 1797, the two councils drew the lots, which deprived one third of their members of their seats in the legislature; and, when the new deputies took their seats, it appeared that the antidirectorial party, a large portion of which was royalist, had received a considerable accession of strength. The conduct of the directory was freely censured; and it was evident that an open rupture was approaching. Unfortunately for the party in opposition to the directory, the armies took part with the latter. The troops in Italy transmitted to the directory a violent address relative to these disputes, and its example was followed by the other armies of the republic. The leaders of opposition were slow and irresolute in the measures they took for their defence; they probably relied with too much confidence on their supposed strength, as they had a decisive majority in the council of 500, and two out of the five directors, Carnot and Barthelemi, were in their interest. Their adversaries, however, were men of action, and they resolved on a prompt and violent measure, which effectually decided the contest.

On the 4th of September, Barras, and the two directors who acted with him, ordered the alarm-guns to be fired, and the halls of the councils to be surrounded with a military force. General Augereau, who was charged with the execution of these orders, repaired to the barracks, and addressed the guard of the legislative body, assuring them that he came only to preserve the republic from the conspiracy of royalists. The soldiers declared, with shouts of approbation, that he had only to command, and they were ready to obey. Thus reinforced by the very men to whom alone the councils could look for defence, Augereau entered the hall of the 500, seized Pichegru, the president, and ordered many of the most distinguished members to be arrested. Carnot and Barthelemi were implicated in the fate of their friends. The former took advantage of the tumult, and fled; the latter calmly awaited the storm. Barthelemi, Pichegru, Ramel, and their obnoxious associates, were transported to Cayenne, whence, after much suffering, the two former, and some others, found means to return to Europe.

The power of the directory, or rather of the party of Barras, being now rendered complete by this decisive victory over the councils, new schemes of ambition and conquest were projected, in order to give employment to the armies, and afford them an opportunity of enriching themselves by plunder. A tumult having arisen at Rome, in which a French general was killed, the troops subverted the government of that city, deposed the pope, and erected a republic. The French likewise found a pretext to invade Switzerland, which they endeavoured to subject to their arbitrary sway. Of these invasions the reader will find a farther account under the heads of "Italy," and "Switzerland."

After the conclusion of peace with the em-

peror, the army became a burden which it was found difficult to support; and, notwithstanding the two late expeditions, there still remained a great military force in a state of inactivity, that might ultimately prove dangerous to the government. An immediate invasion of Great Britain was therefore announced, and an army collected along the northern coast of France, to which was given the pompous title of the Army of England. Convinced, however, of the impracticability of such an invasion, the directory changed the project for another, which was an expedition to Egypt, one object of which, it is believed, was to penetrate to the Indian Ocean, embark the troops, and, by a co-operation with the sultan Tippoo, endeavour to effect the overthrow of the British empire in the East. Bonaparte embarked with about 40,000 men, and sailed from Toulon to Malta, in the spring of the year 1798. In that island the French consul and other emissaries of the republic had already propagated a spirit of disaffection; and when the general, on pretence of inhospitable treatment, had ordered an attack of the forts, the resistance was so spiritless, that the whole island was quickly subdued. Proceeding on his voyage, he arrived in safety at Alexandria, having escaped the British squadron which was detached in pursuit of him, under the command of Sir Horatio Nelson. The town was taken by assault, with the loss of between 200 and 300 men; and the French then advanced to Cairo, which was defended by Morad, with a considerable body of Mamelouks; but on the 23rd of July, it was attacked with success. The beys, however, attempted to rally, and collected a formidable force in the neighbourhood of Cairo; but the battle of the Pyramids rendered the French masters of the greater part of the country. In that engagement, 23 beys, with all the forces they could bring into the field, were completely defeated. Two thousand of the Mamelouks were slain, and 400 camels with their baggage, and 50 pieces of cannon, were taken, with a loss comparatively small on the part of the French.

The conquest of Lower Egypt appeared to be complete; but, on the 1st of August, the expedition received a terrible blow in the defeat and destruction of the fleet, of which an account has been given in our historical summary of the affairs of England. The French land-force, however, remained in possession of Egypt; and, to secure his conquest, Bonaparte advanced into Syria, where, after gaining some advantages, he received a decisive check before Acre. The English squadron, under Sir Sidney Smith, intercepted a flotilla which was bringing his battering-artillery and ammunition from Egypt; and, Sir Sidney acting in concert with the Turks, Bonaparte was repulsed in every assault, and obliged to raise the siege, and retreat to Egypt with the shattered remains of his army. He soon after took an opportunity of returning to France, where, as we shall presently see, he became the author of a new and extraordinary revolution.

The unprincipled attack on Egypt, contrary to the faith of treaties, so incensed the Turks, that they immediately declared war against the French republic; and the emperor of Russia, having accepted a subsidy from Great Britain, entered into a treaty of alliance with the Porte and with England, and gave orders for a large army to be raised to act against France. Austria likewise appeared disposed to avail itself of the assistance of this new ally; and the French directory, having applied to the emperor for an explanation of his views, and receiving no satisfactory answer, sent orders to General Jourdan, in the spring of the year 1799, to pass the Rhine, with the avowed intention of forcing the diet of Ratisbon to declare against the march of the Russian troops. About the same time, Bernadotte, at the head of an army of observation, approached Philipsburg, and summoned that fortress to surrender, while General Ney enforced the submission of Manheim.

The cabinet of Vienna being now certain of the aid of Russia, the Austrian army took the field, under the command of the archduke Charles. Fortune, at first, appeared to declare in favour of the French. A body of troops of that nation, advancing through Schaffhausen toward Suabia, were opposed by a detachment of Austrians, whom they defeated. They were also successful for a short time in Italy. Their troops occupied the whole of Tuscany; and the king of Sardinia was reduced to the necessity of renouncing the sovereignty of Piedmont, and retiring with his family and adherents to the island whence he derived his title. The king of Naples, likewise, having taken up arms and invaded the Roman republic, after being at first so successful as to obtain possession of Rome, was totally defeated, and obliged to take refuge in Sicily.

But, soon after the commencement of hostilities with Austria, the French arms experienced a reverse of fortune. On the 25th of March, Jourdan attacked the Austrians near Stockach, but was obliged to retire in disorder; and, on the 26th, General Kray prevailed over the French on the Adige near Verona, and again defeated them on the 30th. Marshal Souvoroff arrived in April with the first column of the Russian troops; and the success of the allies became rapid and uninterrupted. On the 24th, the Austrians and Russians passed the Oglio, and drove the French before them. They then crossed the Adda, and, on the 27th, defeated Moreau at Cassano; and, so decisive was the victory, that Milan opened its gates to the conquerors. In Piedmont, the French, notwithstanding the efforts of Moreau, Macdonald, and Joubert, beheld themselves successively deprived of all their strongholds. From Mantua they were also driven, after a short siege for so strong a town; and such was their ill success in the campaign, that

obliged to abandon the whole of Genoa, and a small portion of the rritory. On the 25th of August, a attle was fought between the the Austrians and Russians at ch 8000 of the French were killed ; but this victory was purchased nearly as great on the part of the

e of Switzerland, the affairs of the rst wore a less disastrous aspect— ring obtained some slight advan- se, however, were soon counter- events more favourable to the French general being obliged to ich, which was immediately occu- Austrian troops under Hotze.

now in a great measure rescued ver of the French, it was resolved off should proceed with his army land, to drive the French back into rritories, and enter France, where ndeavour to re-establish the fallen The directors were now convinced ger, and made every exertion to ir armies in Switzerland, and the preparations for a vigorous de- ena, who commanded the repub- in that country, displayed great ius, and evinced uncommon abili- is enterprises. Knowing that, if ould effect a junction with the ly acting against him, he must be rerpowered, he determined to at- ter; and, in a variety of actions hole days, repeatedly defeated the Russian armies—many thousands or made prisoners.

consequently, on his arrival in found it impossible to join his dispirited allies; his plans were abortive; he was under the neces- liately withdrawing into Germany; is retreat over mountains covered nd through roads nearly impas- ered severe loss.

h of October, Bonaparte, having s to escape from Egypt, and gilance of the British cruisers, rance, accompanied by General some other officers. The recent the republic had sustained, and t danger which threatened its ce, had greatly weakened the the directory, and prepared the revolutionary change which had a projected by the Abbé Sieyes, he popularity and enterprising aparte enabled him to carry into

tep toward this revolution was council of ancients, which or- moval of the legislative body to id commissioned Bonaparte to he execution of this decree, in- with the *command of all the* troops in Paris and its environs. That artful and politic general soon after appeared at the bar, with several officers of rank, and addressed the members in a short speech, in which he represented that the republic was perishing, and they knew it, but that their new decree had saved it:—"Yes," said he, "we will have a republic founded on true liberty, and national representation. I swear it in my name, and that of my companions in arms." Most of the members present received these exclamations with applause; and the assembly broke up with shouts of "Live the republic!"

At St. Cloud, on the 10th of November, the council of 500 appointed a committee of seven members, to make a report on the situation of affairs. The sitting was very tumultuous, many members exclaiming—"No dictator! No dictatorship!" The secretary read a letter from Barras, stating that "the glory which accompanied the return of the illustrious warrior, to whom he had had the happiness to open the career of renown, the distinguished marks of confidence shown to him by the legislative body, and the decree of the national representation, had convinced him that the perils of liberty were then surmounted, and the interest of the armies secured; and that he returned with joy to the rank of a simple citizen, happy to transfer, complete, and render more respectable than ever, the destinies of the republic, of which he had been one of the depositories." While some of the representatives were urging the propriety of choosing another director in the room of Barras, Bonaparte entered the hall, attended by some officers and grenadiers, and walked up toward the president. A violent agitation ensued among the members, some of whom rushed precipitately from their seats, and endeavoured to seize him: others cried—"Outlaw him!" and one attempted to stab him, but the blow was warded off by a grenadier. The tumult increased; all the members quitted their seats; the president, Lucien Bonaparte, laid down his badge of office on the table, and resigned; upon which the doors of the hall were opened, and an officer entered with a guard, exclaiming—"General Bonaparte orders the hall to be cleared." The arbitrary order was immediately carried into effect.

The sittings were resumed in the evening, and Lucien took the chair. A decree passed, abolishing the directory, and appointing a consular government of three, namely, Sieyes, Bonaparte, and Roger Ducos, who all appeared and took the oath to be faithful to the republic. On the same day, the council of ancients met also at St. Cloud; the proceedings of which day were almost a copy of those of the other assembly. They likewise voted the suppression of the directory, and the appointment of a consular executive of three persons. By the same decrees, 61 members were expelled from the legislative body; and thus was the national *representation*, with the boasted constitution,

overturned by one man, and the bayonets of a few soldiers.

A new constitution was then formed, which was accepted by the armies, and, apparently at least, by the people. By this code, the appearance of a representative government was authorized; but the whole power of the state was substantially vested in the first consul, Bonaparte, who commenced his administration by making proposals of peace to Great Britain. He made a similar application to the court of Vienna; but, his overtures being rejected by both those powers, the most active preparations were made on all sides for the prosecution of the war.

The last campaign had closed with the taking of Coni, and the retreat of the invaders into the territory of Genoa. In the spring of the year 1800, Massena, who commanded the French army, was attacked by General Melas, and forced; to retire to Savona and Vado, whence he was compelled to fall back to Genoa. In Genoa he defended himself during two months with the most determined obstinacy, and did not surrender till every hope of succour had vanished—till every kind of provision had been exhausted—till 15,000 of the inhabitants had perished, and his army was reduced to only 8000 men. That city was given up to the Austrians on the 5th of June.

In the mean time Bonaparte, having assembled an army at Dijon, passed the mountains of St. Gothard and St. Bernard, and, surmounting apparently insuperable obstacles, entered Italy, where he soon made himself master of Milan, Pavia, Piacenza, Cremona, and the whole course of the Po. Melas appears to have been so confident of the impracticability of the route which the French had taken, that he took no measures to oppose the passage of Bonaparte till it was too late. At length he despatched Otto with thirty battalions, to stop the progress of the French army, which was marching toward Piedmont; but that general was defeated at Casteggio, with great loss. This victory was a prelude to the battle of Marengo, which fixed the fate of Italy. Melas, having assembled the whole of his force, marched to meet his enemy, and took post near the village of Marengo. In the battle which ensued, victory seemed at first to declare for the Austrians. The French centre was compelled to retreat with great slaughter; but the body of reserve, under Desaix, impetuously charging the Austrians, who were thrown into some confusion by the eagerness of pursuit, turned the fortune of the day, and gave the French a complete victory. About 10,000 of the vanquished were killed, wounded, or captured; and, in all probability, the French suffered nearly in the same proportion. So important was this battle in its consequences, that the next day, Melas, finding his situation no longer tenable, proposed an armistice, which *was accepted* by Bonaparte, and by which *Genoa was immediately* surrendered to the French, with all the strong places of Lombardy and Piedmont.

In Germany the French had opened the campaign with similar success. They crossed the Rhine in three divisions, at Kehl, Brisach, and Basle, and forced the Austrian army to fall back on the line of Stockach, where a battle took place on the 4th of May, in which the French were victorious, and which in a great degree decided the fate of the campaign, as the Austrians were not able afterwards to make any effectual resistance, but continued to retreat and suffer successive defeats.

When the armistice was concluded in Italy, the commander of the emperor's army in Germany endeavoured to avail himself of it, to put an end to the progress of the troops under Moreau; but the French general would not listen to such a proposition; on the contrary, being in possession of the greater part of Bavaria, he detached Lecourbe toward the Tyrol to seize the Voralberg and the Grison territory, and form a junction with the army of Italy. The offer of a suspension of arms, however, having been repeated, the Count St. Julien having arrived at Paris with proposals of peace, a truce was at length concluded for the armies in Germany.

In the negotiations at Paris, the court of Vienna intimated that it was bound in honour to treat only in concert with Great Britain. The first consul signified his consent that the negotiation should include a peace with England, but required a naval armistice as a preliminary. This demand, under certain conditions, the British ministry did not reject; but they would not permit the Brest fleet to be supplied with stores, or succours to be sent to the French army in Egypt. Bonaparte now refused to negotiate with England, and the emperor declared that he would not ratify the preliminaries which had been signed by his envoy.

The rupture of the negotiation was followed by that of the armistice in Germany, which had been renewed by the emperor, at the expense of surrendering Ulm, Ingolstadt, and Philipsburg, into the hands of the French, as a pledge of his sincere desire of peace. The campaign then recommenced; and, in the beginning of December, the Austrians were defeated by Moreau at Hohenlinden; the archduke Charles was also vanquished, and the emperor was convinced that he had no resource but in a peace. Negotiations were opened at Luneville, where a treaty was signed on the 3rd of February, 1801. The cession of the Belgic territory to France, as stipulated by the treaty of Campo Formio, was confirmed; the whole country on the left side of the Rhine was likewise given up to France; the boundaries of the Cisalpine or Italian republic were enlarged; and the dukes of Tuscany and Modena were compelled to relinquish their territories, and accept such indemnities as should be provided for them in Germany.

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ciously pleased, for the public good, to comply; and he accordingly assumed (as Napoleon) the title of Emperor of the French. His two colleagues, the second and third consuls, having proved their fidelity to him by not interfering in the smallest degree in the affairs of government, except as directed by him, were gratified with the high-sounding titles of arch-chancellor and arch-treasurer of the empire.

About the same time, likewise, Napoleon contrived to change the constitution of the Italian republic, transforming it into a kingdom, and crowning himself at Milan; and, near the close of the year, he obliged the pope to undertake a journey to Paris, and was crowned by him emperor of the French.

The principal hostilities that took place between France and England, for some time after the rupture of the peace of Amiens, were confined to the preparations for the threatened invasion of England by the Boulogne flotilla, on the part of the former, and the defensive efforts of the latter to make a victorious resistance in case of any such attempt. On the continent, from the great superiority of their land force, the French overran and took possession of the territory of Hanover, almost without resistance. But at length the cabinet of England succeeded in its endeavours to engage Austria to make new exertions against the formidable power of France; Russia also engaged to enter into the contest.

The first act of hostility on the part of Austria—and an injudicious one it appears to have been—was a peremptory order to the elector of Bavaria, to join the Austrian army with all his forces. The elector requested to be permitted to remain neuter, which being refused him, he with his whole court withdrew to Wurtsburg, and the Austrians entered Munich without opposition; thus forcing, as it were, Bavaria to become the ally of France.

Napoleon now took the field with alacrity. Bernadotte had previously, with his corps, reached Wurtsburg; and, the other French corps rapidly advancing, Mack, the Austrian general, found himself in such a position at Ulm, that, on the 17th of October, he capitulated with his whole army. The first division of the Russians had in the mean time arrived on the banks of the Inn; but, after their junction with the Austrians, the whole force did not exceed 75,000 men, while the French army advancing against them nearly amounted to 100,000. The allies, therefore, determined to retire, in order to effect a junction with the second Russian division under General Buxhovden; and, crossing the Danube, left Vienna to the French. Napoleon entered that city, concealing his joy under the appearance of moderation, and declaring that he would treat the inhabitants with lenity and kindness. Proceeding against the combined troops, he engaged them, on the 2nd of December, at Austerlitz, in Moravia. He concentrated his *great force*, while they inconsiderately ex-

tended their line, so as to weaken their efforts. Five of their columns, acting without sufficient concert, involved themselves in great danger, while the centre, posted on an eminence, received such shocks as dislodged and defeated it. The French, at length, were completely victorious. The loss of the Russians, who were the principal sufferers, was said, by the enemy, to have amounted to 22,000 killed and wounded, and 20,000 prisoners; but an official report published at Petersburgh asserted that the entire loss in the campaign, on the part of the Russians, did not amount to more than 17,000 men. One hundred pieces of cannon and 45 standards fell into the hands of the enemy. Two days after the engagement, an interview took place at the French advanced posts, between Napoleon and the emperor of Austria: an armistice was adjusted, which was followed by a regular negotiation; and a treaty was signed at Presburg, on the 25th of December. By this treaty, of which Napoleon may be said to have dictated the terms, the emperor was deprived of the Venetian territory, the Tyrol, and the Voralberg, beside being obliged to make various cessions to the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg.

The peace of Presburg did not restore complete tranquillity to Europe. Though the emperor Alexander had withdrawn his troops, he had not concluded peace with the French. The Russian forces were still kept up to their establishment, or rather indeed considerably increased by new levies. A Russian force in the Mediterranean had suddenly attacked Bocca di Cattaro, a Dalmatian fortress, which by the treaty of Presburg was part of the territory ceded by Austria to France, and gained possession of it. Bonaparte insisted that the Austrians should retake it from the Russians, and deliver it to him, as had been stipulated. By this dispute he was furnished with a specious pretext for not withdrawing his troops from Germany; and the Austrian prisoners, who had not already returned to their own country, were detained.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia, having agreed to accept the territory of Hanover, in compensation for certain sacrifices which he had been required to make, incurred the resentment and hostility of England. But he soon after found, that, in the negotiations between England and France, Napoleon did not seem unwilling to permit the restoration of Hanover to its former sovereign, though, at his desire, Prussian troops had taken possession of it. Incensed at treatment that appeared so contemptuous, and relying too much on the military character which Prussia had once maintained in Europe, the king prepared for war. The elector of Saxony took part in the contest as his ally, and Russia consented to assist with a large force. But the rapidity of the movements of Napoleon rendered it impossible for *the Russians* to come up in time to avert the *blow which he meditated* against Prussia. The French army, in three divisions, marched in the autumn of 1806, to meet the Prussians, who took a strong position to the north of Frankfort-on-the-Maine. At Schleitz, a conflict arose between the armies, and the Prussians were defeated. The battle of Saalfeld followed, which was also advantageous to the French. At Auerstadt, the victory which they obtained, on the 14th of October, was much more important. The duke of Brunswick received a mortal wound; and his place was not properly supplied, by the king's military inexperience; nor did the troops display their usual courage and firmness. About 20,000 men were killed or wounded, and 30,000 captured. The battle of Jena was also very disastrous to the Prussians and their allies. The garrisons of the chief fortresses, panic-stricken by these victories, if not influenced by treachery, submitted to the conquerors, almost as soon as they were summoned. The French took possession of the capital; and the king, with a small remnant of his army, made his escape into East Prussia, the rest of his dominions being in the hands of the enemy.

The advanced guard of the Russians, under General Beningsen, had at length crossed the Vistula. Their reconnoitring parties, however, soon ascertaining the great superiority and rapid march of the enemy, the Russian general thought it most prudent speedily to retire and re-cross the river. Napoleon, again putting himself at the head of his army, crossed the Narew, and overtook the enemy. On the 26th of December was fought the destructive but indecisive battle of Pultusk, in which the victory was claimed by both sides; and which was followed, on the 8th of February, 1807, by the sanguinary conflict of Eylau, one of the most obstinately contested battles that have been fought in modern times. It was, for some time, favourable to the Russians; but the superior number of the French enabled them to prevent the triumph of their adversaries; and, when the Prussians took part in the engagement, they merely checked the progress of the foe.

Great exertions were now made on both sides, to recruit the armies wasted by the havoc of this sanguinary contest. The emperor Alexander and the grand duke Constantine arrived with a great reinforcement, and the efforts of Napoleon to repair his loss, and accumulate a force fully equal to the great struggle which still remained, were unremitting. The French laid siege to Dantzic, which was taken on the 27th of May; and, on the 14th of June, after a variety of manœuvres and actions of minor importance, was fought the great and decisive battle of Friedland. It was at first partial; and the Russians seemed to have a prospect of success; but, when it became general, the determined spirit of the French enabled them to prevail. Of their number, about 7000 were killed or wounded, while above 12,000 suffered in the vanquished

rmy. Weary of the contest, Alexander requested an armistice. An interview ensued between him and his conqueror, on a raft which oated at an equal distance from each bank of he Niemen; and, after a negotiation at Tilsit, eace was concluded on the 7th of July. The wo potentates then separated with mutual xpressions of attachment, after exchanging he decorations of their respective orders. On he same day peace was restored between France and Prussia.

By this treaty the king was deprived of extensive and valuable territories, some of which were incorporated with a new kingdom erected by Napoleon in favour of his brother Jerome, and styled the kingdom of Westphalia. Warsaw was declared a duchy, and given to the elector of Saxony, who at the same time received the title of king. Napoleon had also lately made one brother king of Holland, and another king of Naples; and Alexander consented to admit these titles. He also explicitly recognised the confederation of the Rhine. For these concessions he was rewarded with the donation of a part of Poland, wrested from Prussia, his recent ally.

In the beginning of the year 1808, the designs of the French emperor upon Spain began to be developed; for a brief account of which we refer the reader to our historical summary of the affairs of that country.

When the Spaniards had opposed his invasion with determined resistance, and in some cases with unexpected success, the Austrian emperor, who had been for a considerable time dissatisfied with France, and intent on secretly increasing his forces and military preparations, began to think that an opportunity now presented itself to engage in another contest for independence, while the forces of his enemy seemed to be fully employed on the other side of the Pyrenees. In April, 1809, therefore, he published a hostile proclamation, and took the field against the king of Bavaria, who, in consequence of this invasion, quitted his capital. Napoleon, having put in motion several divisions of his army with his usual celerity, made his appearance on the banks of the Danube. The battles of Abensberg, Landshut, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon, followed; and, in the course of a week, the Austrians lost nearly 30,000 men by the sword and captivity, and 80 pieces of cannon.

On the 10th of May, the victor appeared before Vienna, of the suburbs of which he immediately became master; but the city itself made some resistance. The emperor, before the French invested the city, had left his capital, and removed into Moravia. The army of the archduke Charles, having attempted too late to relieve the capital, posted itself on the other side of the Danube in array of battle. The ruler of France, being equally ready for action, resolved to attack that commander in his position. This attempt, which was made on the 21st of May, and was called the battle of Aspern or Essling, failed; *and, in this* dreadful battle, 30,000 of the French, it has been asserted, were killed, wounded, or captured. Five of their generals were killed, and eight were wounded, one of whom, Marshal Lasnes, soon after died. The Austrians likewise sustained great loss, 20,000 of their number being either deprived of life, or personally injured in different degrees.

After this severe repulse, Napoleon remained inactive and cautious till the beginning of July, repairing the damage which his bridges and works from time to time suffered by the river. He was, however, incessantly employed in making the most formidable preparations, not only to protect himself against an attack from the archduke, but also to enable himself to resume offensive operations, in such a manner as might ensure success. In fourteen days he raised a bridge of six arches, so broad that three carriages could pass abreast, over a very rapid river. A second bridge, eight feet broad, was constructed for infantry; there was also a bridge of boats. Each bridge was covered and protected by a bridge-head 160 fathoms long. Yet these bridges and works were only intended as a feint; for it was not the intention of Napoleon to pass where he knew the enemy to be strongest and fully prepared. In the night, he constructed several bridges at a different part of the river: one bridge, of a single piece 80 fathoms long, was fixed in less than five minutes; three others, of boats and rafts, were also thrown over the stream; and, in the morning, the whole French army had crossed and stood in order of battle at the extremity of the left flank of the Austrians. The archduke now found himself completely out-generaled, and all his works rendered useless. He was therefore compelled to abandon his positions, and fight the French on the ground chosen by themselves. On the 6th, at daybreak, the archduke incautiously weakening his wings, Napoleon made a general and powerful attack on the centre, and gained a complete victory near Wagram. This battle was considered as so decisive, that an armistice was concluded on the 12th of July; but the definitive treaty of peace was not signed and ratified before the middle of October. By this treaty Austria ceded Saltzburg, with the Tyrol, to Bavaria; Trieste and Fiume to France; Western Galitzia, with the city of Cracow, to Saxony; and a large portion of Eastern Galitzia, to Russia.

On his return to Paris, Napoleon, by a formal act of separation, repudiated his empress Josephine, alleging, as his sole motive, his desire to obtain an heir for the empire. He seemed for some time to hesitate in choosing her successor, but at length fixed his choice on the archduchess of Austria, Maria Louisa, whom he espoused with great pomp on the 1st of April, 1810. It could not have been readily supposed that the pride of the Austrian family, *or a dignified sense of* honour, would have sub*mitted to this* arrogant demand; but Francis

was so humbled by the ill success of the war, that he had not the spirit to oppose the requisition; and his daughter seemed to exult in the idea of becoming empress of France. By this marriage, Napoleon hoped to become the progenitor of a race of French princes, and to form a flourishing and permanent dynasty; and his power seemed then to be so firmly established, that his friends and admirers considered his expectations as not altogether improbable.

The peace with Austria left Napoleon contending only with Great Britain, and with the Spanish and Portuguese patriots. Having been driven out of Portugal, he ordered Massena, in 1810, to reconquer that kingdom. His choice of a general appeared to be judicious; but that commander was opposed by an officer of superior ability. The French reduced Almeida, rather in consequence of an accident which befell the garrison, than by the vigour of their operations; and they then advanced to the capture of Coimbra, hoping to complete their success, by the speedy seizure of Lisbon. But, at Busaco, they felt the severe effects of the courage and discipline of the allies; for even the Portuguese are said to have exhibited, on that occasion, a degree of warlike energy nearly equal to that which the British troops displayed. Satisfied with having given this repulse to the enemy, Lord Wellington, who had already taken the most judicious precautions for preventing the conquest of the country, retired within the impregnable lines of Torres Vedras; while Massena, unwilling to assault his rival in a position which was remarkably strong, passed a long interval in a state of inactivity, suffering many inconveniences and privations, and losing a multitude of his men. In Spain, the French were more successful. They overran the provinces of Andalusia and Granada, kept possession of the two Castiles, and other considerable portions of the kingdom, and menaced the whole with subjugation. The retreat of Massena, in the following year, baffled Napoleon's hopes of driving the English from Portugal; and another Spanish campaign was not so fortunate as he expected it to prove: yet he resolved to persist in the iniquitous scheme of usurpation. Even while he was involved by his furious ambition in a war with Russia, he did not entirely neglect the promotion of his interest in Spain.

The rupture between Napoleon and Alexander, arose from the domineering arrogance of the former, who, finding that the northern emperor was inclined to renew a friendly intercourse with Great Britain, and trusting to the probability of making a strong impression upon the territories even of that powerful prince, resolved to employ a great army in this rash enterprise. Of the war which ensued, we have stated the most remarkable occurrences in our sketch of the history of Russia; but we may here observe, that some fierce conflicts, in the advance of the French toward the capital of Lithuania, convinced them of the cool and steady courage of their new enemies, who vigorously opposed a very superior force. The vanity and arrogance of the invaders prompted them to stigmatize the Russians as barbarians, unfit to contend with the polished and scientific warriors who had been bred in the school of the illustrious Napoleon: but the charge was vague and unsupported, unless we attribute the voluntary burning of Smolensk and Moscow to a tincture of ferocity and barbarism.

The despotism to which Napoleon had subjected the French, and the oppression by which they were justly punished for having submitted to a man of his character and complexion, enabled him, after his losses in Russia, to levy another great army. In the mean time, he did not neglect the prosecution of his ambitious views in Spain; but even the fifth campaign in that kingdom did not put his brother in full possession of the sovereignty. Marmont, the French general, was not particularly distinguished by skill, activity, or circumspection. He suffered two of the chief fortresses to be taken by the confederates, almost within view of an army which considerably exceeded their number: he was defeated at Salamanca in a general engagement; and, though some retrograde movements on the part of his adversaries marked the close of the campaign, he did not profit by their temporary depression.

Enraged at the new league which had been formed against him, Napoleon breathed vengeance against all his enemies, particularly against the king of Prussia, who had so long been his subservient vassal, and whom he hoped to humble so effectually, that he should no more be able to rise. In the spring of 1813, he took the field with above 100,000 men, and presented himself before the allies, to whom the Austrians had not yet added their strength. On the plain of Lutzen, which had been rendered memorable by the fall of Gustavus Adolphus, the heroic defender of the liberties of Germany, he obstinately aimed at the subjugation of the empire; for he was not yet so far humbled as to attend only to defensive measures. The battle which ensued was extremely sanguinary. His centre, to which he usually gave the greatest strength, was thrown into disorder by the vigorous efforts of his adversaries; but it was enabled to escape defeat by the arrival of a strong corps from the left. The allies were defeated; but they retired from the field in good order, leaving few trophies in the hands of the victor. In the neighbourhood of Bautzen, a more tremendous conflict occurred. It extended over such a considerable space, that it seemed rather to be a variety of simultaneous actions than one battle. Many posts were the objects of spirited contest; they were alternately gained and lost; but, at the close of the day, the allies were compelled to retreat. The loss on each side was nearly

equal. A partial engagement followed; the effect of which, added to the former losses, inclined the contending potentates to agree to a suspension of hostilities.

The augmentation of military strength was the chief object which occupied the attention of both parties during the armistice. Napoleon repaired his losses by ordering an additional conscription, to supply the place of those troops which were sent without delay from France; and, while Alexander and the Prussian monarch were devising the means of more vigorous hostility, the Austrian prince was persuaded to enter into the confederacy. Napoleon would not easily believe that his father-in-law was disposed to desert his interest, which he thought he had sufficiently secured by the ostensible union of the two families; but he deceived himself by his implicit confidence in the continued subserviency of Francis, and was confounded at the report of the warlike determination of that prince. On this occasion there was more of artifice than honour in the conduct of the Austrian cabinet.

The great preparations of Austria, and the zeal which seemed to animate the emperor and his court, and to pervade the military ranks, menaced the French with the extinction of their arbitrary influence over the continent. The storm, so long suspended, was gathering around the French monarch, and threatened to overwhelm him. He faced it, however, with spirit, and resolved not to fall, or to lose his power, without inflicting deadly wounds upon his enemies. When he reopened the campaign, he posted himself in the heart of Saxony. He had a great disposable force; but the allies, by the addition of the Austrian army, had obtained the advantage of numerical superiority. Their troops, beside detachments, formed three large armies; one commanded by the prince of Schwartzenberg, who had, in the preceding year, conducted an auxiliary force into Russia under the orders of Napoleon; the second by the celebrated Field-marshal Blucher; and the third by Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden. Blucher was first attacked in Silesia, and obliged to retreat with loss; but he retrieved his credit by a considerable victory, by which he rescued that province from hostile incursions. The crown-prince particularly attended to the defence of Brandenburg; but it was chiefly by the efforts of the Prussians, that he triumphed at Gross-Beren. When Napoleon had fallen back to Dresden, which he had strengthened with additional works, a fierce attack was made upon that station; but it was too defensible to be taken by a *coup de main*. In an engagement near that city the allies sustained a terrible defeat; and General Moreau, who had been gladly received into the service of the allied princes, and whose zeal in the cause was apparently equal to that which they felt, was so miserably shattered by a cannon-ball, that he soon after died.

As the grand army, after *the failure at Dresden*, retreated into Bohemia, for the supply of its physical wants, the French were encouraged to pursue the Austrian commander, by the hope of an easy victory. He was not displeased at the incautious eagerness of Vandamme, because it furnished him with an opportunity of chastising that general, whose division he nearly ruined in the battle of Culm.

Since the battle of Marengo, Napoleon had not at any time been in such a dangerous predicament as that in which he now stood. The time seemed to approach, when his ruin would be effected by the multitude of his enemies. He endeavoured to overawe them by menacing movements; but he merely enforced a temporary retrogradation.

The victory obtained at Dennewitz, by the Prussians and Swedes, and other advantages, induced the allied princes who attended the grand army in Bohemia, to relinquish their cautious system, and assume the boldest attitude of offensive warfare. This determination was more particularly agreeable to the resolute spirit of Blucher, who hastened to the banks of the Elbe, passed it with little difficulty, and advanced toward Leipsic, where the French had taken up a strong position. The two other armies directed their march to the environs of that city; and fierce attacks were made upon various posts, with dreadful loss on both sides. The imperfect success which attended the operations of the first day, served only to stimulate the allies to redoubled vigour; and a renewal of assault effected the dislodgement of their adversaries from the circumjacent positions. Yet the city was retained, till Napoleon and the major part of the French army effected their retreat. The rear-guard was, however, cut off, by the premature blowing up of a bridge, to arrest the progress of the victors. In the whole, about 30,000 of his men were deprived of life, wounded, or captured. He still had the means of routing the Bavarians, who attempted to bar his way to the Rhine; after which he hastened to his capital. Holland and the kingdom of Westphalia were now rescued from his grasp; and France, which he fondly deemed a sacred territory, was menaced with the intrusion of exasperated enemies. In Spain, likewise, the campaign was highly unfavourable to his arms. His formidable adversary, the duke of Wellington, drove the French into Navarre; and, having obtained a signal triumph at Vittoria, pursued the fugitives into their own confines. This invasion galled the pride and inflamed the resentment of Marshal Soult, whose redoubled efforts, however, could not prevent the allies from taking up their winter quarters on the French side of the Pyrenees.

Even the severity of the season did not present any serious obstacles to the progress of the powerful armies which had expelled the French from Germany. As the princes were of opinion that delay would be injurious to *their cause*, the troops were ordered, at the commencement of the year 1814, to cross the

Rhine, and to prosecute their march without the investment of fortresses. To meet the danger of invasion, Napoleon made such preparations as the time allowed; but he had so drained the country in the two last campaigns, that he could not procure a force sufficient for the purposes of defence. Scorning, however, the meanness of dejection, he boasted of his ample resources, and threatened the daring foe with a speedy expulsion. He was unable to execute his menaces; yet he displayed all his wonted spirit, and alternately checked the two advancing armies. A fierce conflict occurred at Brienne, in which he gained the advantage. A more general action took place near Chaumenil, where success long remained equally balanced; but the French centre and wings were ultimately forced, after the fall of a great number of men. Several towns near the Seine and Marne were soon after taken; and each of the allied armies made such approaches as menaced the proud capital of the great empire with subjugation and disgrace.

Of the battles which attended the progress of the confederates, the most remarkable seem to have been those of Vauchamp, Laon, and Fere-Champénoise. In the first, Blucher was the acting commander. After an engagement at Mont-mirail, which was followed by a pursuit of the retiring Prussians and their northern associates, Napoleon employed the bulk of his cavalry in the most vigorous assaults upon the compact infantry of the field-marshal; and the French, on this occasion, were at first so successful, as to reduce their adversaries to the verge of ruin. Blucher's danger was extreme; and the hope of extrication seemed visionary. During the retreat, his men were attacked in every direction but one; for they were only not surrounded; yet they escaped, though with heavy loss, by their extraordinary exertions, and the skill of their general. This was considered as a triumph by the French, whose leader also made a considerable impression upon the chief army of his opponents, and enforced a temporary retrogradation.

A contest for the possession of Soissons having terminated in the retreat of Blucher to Laon, Napoleon was encouraged to attack this position, even though his force was inferior to that of the Prussian general. For a whole day he persisted in a repetition of assaults, but without the desired effect; for the greater part of his army retreated after a serious loss. The rest hazarded a new attack on the following day, and did not desist before the danger of being overwhelmed became so dreadfully imminent, that the desire of escape banished all thoughts of victory.

After some intermediate actions, and the failure of a negotiation in which honourable terms were offered to Napoleon, who would not, however, relinquish his territorial usurpations, the invaders, by that forwardness which *seemed to him* to proceed from a want of circumspection, tempted him to digress from the object of immediate defence, and throw himself into their rear, with the intention of rallying round him several of the garrisons, seizing upon the enemy's magazines, and effectually precluding their retreat. "He pushed his object so far," says Sir Charles Stewart, "by the passage of the Aube with his whole army near Vitry, as to leave himself completely open to that bold and magnificent decision which was immediately adopted."

The prince of Schwartzenberg now resolved to form such a concert with Blucher, as might enable each to assist the other with facility; and both generals were ready to advance to the completion of the grand object of a protracted war, the attack of Paris.' Having adjusted the desired communication, the Austrian general formed the whole force into four divisions, and directed his course to Fere-Champénoise. A hostile corps, in that quarter, not suspecting that any enemies were so near, incurred the risk of being surrounded. Not only the infantry, but also the cuirassiers were attacked by the Russian light cavalry, and harassed into a precipitate retreat, in which they suffered great loss. Another body, nearly amounting to 5000, escorting a convoy, likewise approached, and, after a short but gallant resistance, submitted to captivity. The subsequent interruptions of the march were of little moment: and, on the 30th of March, the army appeared before the entrenchments and the gates of Paris. It was declared, in a moderate and judicious proclamation, that the object of the march was to effect a sincere and permanent reconciliation with France; that no hope of terminating the misfortunes of the country could be entertained while there existed, in the very power of the government which oppressed the people, an insurmountable obstacle to peace; that the allied sovereigns recommended the organization of such a salutary authority in France, as might promote and cement the union of all other nations with that power; and that it was incumbent on the Parisians to accelerate the peace of the world, by making such political arrangements as the crisis required.

As this address did not produce submission or acquiescence, preparations were made for an attack. The national guard, assembled for the defence of the city, amounted to about 30,000 men, under Hulin, the governor; while General Compans commanded 8000 regulars, who were reinforced by the few troops which had fled with Marmont from Fere-Champénoise. The scanty French force occupied Belleville, Romainville, Montmartre, and the other eminences to the north of Paris, and some of the adjacent villages. Their force was, however, much too small for so extensive a position. The right was first attacked; and the resistance was long and spirited, but ineffective. In the centre, the contest was protracted, so as to inflict severe loss on the assailants; yet, in the course of a few hours, the attacks upon every

ept, except Montmartre, were successful. The erwhelming numbers of the assailants ena- led them incessantly to return to the charge, spite of the horrible carnage which was ade among them. The consternation into hich this triumph threw the Parisians may asily be conceived. They dreaded the out- ages of the Cossacks, and the vengeance of ne Prussians; and, if the mode of treatment ad been left to the uncontrolled decision of hose troops, the effect would have been dread- ul. But the humanity of the allied princes, nd of that general to whom they gave a pleni- ude of authority, revolted from all ideas of illage, conflagration, and massacre. They llowed the defenders of the city to capitulate, nd gave promises of friendly protection to all he inhabitants. It was agreed that the troops hould retire to a distant spot, and that the llies should take possession of the capital.

This success would have been very imperfect, f a change of government had not resulted rom it. As soon as he had received intelli- ence of the alarming movements of his adver- aries, Napoleon had hastened back; but he ould not reach Paris, so as to superintend the efence; and some of his marshals refused to upport him, when they found that the city ad been captured. Without being openly nfluenced by the victorious princes, who ffected to avoid all interference, the conser- ative senate assigned the task of temporary overnment to five persons of distinction, and rdered a new constitution to be prepared with- ut delay. It was also voted, on the 2nd of pril, that, as Napoleon had been guilty of any acts of tyranny and oppression, and had volved the country in danger, he should no onger be treated or acknowledged as the sove- eign of France. When his deposition had een thus decreed, with an exclusion of his wn family from the succession, his rage eemed to be unbounded; but he soon found hat it was useless to resist the torrent which as so forcibly against him, and he therefore esigned all pretensions to the throne, both in is own name and in that of his son.

While a constitution favourable to liberty as in progress, a part of the population of aris called for the immediate elevation of the rother of Louis XVI. to the throne; and, ough some members of the senate would ave preferred the duke of Orleans, it was eemed more advisable to follow the ordinary ules of succession. Louis XVIII. was chosen o supersede the dynasty of Napoleon; and de- uties were sent to England, where that prince ad long resided in privacy, to request his esence in the reorganized kingdom. He eadily accepted the invitation, trusting to that eace of peace, which, after a series of com- otions and of war, might be supposed to in- uence the majority of the nation.

After some farther hostilities in the south, he war ceased to rage. Napoleon was sent to Elba, an annual income was assigned to him, and he was permitted to rule over the island. Louis took quiet possession of the throne; and on the 30th of May, a treaty was adjusted, by which he agreed to the demands of the princes to whom he owed his crown. He resigned the territorial usurpations of the republic and of Napoleon, and reduced France within those frontiers which had been established before the revolutionary war arose with Austria. The principal colonies, which might have been justly retained by Great Britain, were restored to the subjects of Louis with unnecessary liberality; and both the king and his people were treated with respect and with kindness.

Louis, if left to his own good sense, would have, perhaps, been disposed to conciliate all parties, as far as was consistent with the pre- servation of his authority; but he was sur- rounded by those who were devoid of prudence, and anxious for vengeance. The language of many of the returned emigrants, and their con- duct towards those who had borne any part in the revolution, excited at once alarm and indig- nation. The army, too, was studiously slighted, and insulted in the persons of its leaders. An opinion began very generally to be entertained, that nothing less than a complete return to the ancient order of things was meditated by the court. The idea that all the old flagrant abuses were to be restored, and the sales of national property to be annulled, excited, from one end of the kingdom to the other, a spirit of resistance. The counsellors of Louis were, however, blind to all these menacing ap- pearances.

Availing himself of this state of the public mind, and prompted too by a belief that a scheme was on foot for seizing his person, and holding him a prisoner, Napoleon took an op- portunity of escaping unobserved from Elba, and landed in France, in March, 1815, with a small party, which was quickly increased by the adjunction of various regiments in the south. He crossed the kingdom without oppo- sition, as if he had been returning in triumph from a glorious enterprise; resumed his power, and enforced the retreat of the whole royal family. If he had deliberately reflected on the determined spirit of the allied potentates, and had not implicitly trusted to his fame and in- fluence, he would perhaps have been deterred from making this bold attempt. They were settling, at Vienna, the complicated affairs of the continent, when they received intelligence of his invasion. They immediately declared him an outlaw and a public enemy, and me- naced him with vengeance, in language which looked very much like recommending his assas- sination. In reply to this denunciation, he maintained his right of profiting by the favour and regard of the French, who had restored him to that power which they might lawfully grant, and which no other nation could be justi- fied in controlling. He professed a wish for *peace*, and exhorted the princes to be equally *attentive* to its preservation. Finding that

they had bound themselves by new engagements to oppose him, he prepared to meet the storm which he could not ward off; and, to secure to himself the popular interest, he enacted a constitutional code, resembling that which had been lately accorded to the nation. He then marched to the Netherland frontier with all the troops that his influence could procure, and became the aggressor in a new war. He was for a short time successful; but his laurels faded in the field of Waterloo.

Having entered into some detail respecting that memorable conflict in our survey of the history of England, we proceed to observe, that the leader of the defeated army was never before thrown into such consternation as that which then oppressed him. By the advice of his generals, but against his own opinion, he hastened to the capital, to demand reinforcements. This step was a ruinous one. Some advised him to act in the most arbitrary manner, dissolve the two assemblies which he had recently called into political existence, and defy the public clamours and censure; consoling him with the hope that a new army might easily be levied, and that victory might attend his renewed efforts. Others recommended coolness and moderation, and a temperate appeal to the zeal and patriotism of the legislature. The latter advice was that which he resolved to follow; and, even when he found that the resentment and indignation of the national deputies menaced him with dethronement, he refused to order a dissolution. His pride was so far subdued by his reverse of fortune, that he consented to a dereliction of his power, if the two chambers would secure the nomination of his son to the imperial dignity. The offer was gladly accepted; and he who had domineered over Europe, retired with seeming humility into the privacy of ordinary life.

The allies, in the mean time, were employed in overpowering that resistance which his partisans were yet disposed to make. Some fortified towns were reduced; and the king, who, during the renovated sway of his rival, had kept his court at Ghent, returned in safety within his own frontiers. The duke of Wellington, and Blucher, with divided but communicating armies, advanced towards the capital. The Prussians, after having sustained a severe check, succeeded in establishing themselves on the left bank of the Seine; and, when the two generals were fully prepared for an attack upon Paris, the troops and the citizens capitulated. Yet the legislative assemblies continued to deliberate, with an intention of opposing the restoration of Louis, if he should refuse to sanction the new political arrangements which they had devised on Napoleon's abdication. Before the king re-entered the city, he sent a peremptory mandate for their dissolution, which they did not, under *the circumstances*, deem it prudent to dis-

obey

Driven from Paris by the requisition of the temporary rulers of France, Napoleon had retired to the coast, where he remained in a state of anxious alarm. He was suffered to enjoy his liberty, as he had no remains of power: but he soon received notice from the provisional government, that he must quit France, and that two frigates were ready at Rochefort, to convey him to the territories of the United States. As such a scheme did not offer, to the European public, any security against the renewal of his mischievous practices, the British cruisers hovered about the port for the purpose of obstruction; and, when he found himself precluded from escape, he gave notice of his wish to accept protection from his most persevering enemies. He was therefore received into a British ship of war, and conveyed to the coast of Devon, where innumerable throngs gazed at him, when he appeared upon the deck, as a hero or a monster. He probably expected to be introduced to the prince regent, and treated with the most respectful politeness, as he had filled the highest station in political society: but he was not even permitted to disembark; and, after a detention which he bore with impatience, he was confounded by a mandate for his confinement in the island of St. Helena. He warmly protested against this treatment, and against the insolent and annoying conduct of his jailer, Sir Hudson Lowe: but no regard was paid to his expostulations; and he lived for some years on that secluded spot, exhibiting a melancholy picture of fallen ambition. He died of a cancer in his stomach, on the 5th of May, 1821, in the 52nd year of his age, loudly accusing the allied princes of having cruelly condemned him to a premature death.

The humanity of the restored monarch did not prevent him from inflicting capital punishment on some of those officers who had joined Napoleon on his return to France. It was the opinion of many, that he had not sufficient courage to sign a warrant for the execution of Ney, styled the Prince of the Moskwa, an intrepid and able general; but he was not intimidated by the loud clamours of the ex-emperor's partisans, and Ney was executed. He was, at the same time, assailed with obloquy for tamely suffering the allied troops to carry off the pictures, statues, and manuscripts, which had been seized by the French in Italy and other countries: but the chief ground of reproach arose from the new treaty, concluded on the 20th of November, by which eighteen fortresses were given up for five years, to be garrisoned by 150,000 foreign soldiers, whom the French were obliged to maintain during that period, beside paying 700,000,000 of francs or livres, as a partial indemnification to the various governments which had been driven into war by encroachments and injuries.

Thus was the continent rescued from French domination and rapacity, by the persevering efforts of Great Britain and other powerful

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oo small a force to act with decisive vigour; and, being closely watched, he was obliged to yield to his pursuers. The cortes strengthened the posts in the isle of Leon; but the reduction of the Trocadero and another fort, and a fierce bombardment from the French fleet, diffused such a panic, that ulterior resistance was deemed hopeless. The assembly ceased to act; the king was restored to full liberty; and the duke returned to France, leaving a considerable force in Spain, to preserve the tranquillity of despotism.

In the mean time, Louis XVIII. gradually declined in health and in strength. He felt the ill effects of habitual intemperance, by which his frame was bloated and corrupted. He died on the 16th of September, 1824, in the 69th year of his age. He had good sense, without great talents; had some classical knowledge and literary taste; possessed a greater firmness of character than his unfortunate predecessor; and was in general attentive to what he thought the interest and welfare of his people.

His brother quietly ascended the throne, and gratified the public with an abolition of that censorship of the press which the late king had introduced. This seemed to augur well; but his old despotic principles soon began to manifest themselves; and, by giving his confidence to the Jesuitical bigots, and enacting a horrible law against sacrilege—an offence which he might have checked without arbitrary rigour—he soon lost the popularity which he had acquired at his accession. This was soon followed by a measure which was brought forward under the plausible guise of "closing up the wounds made by the Revolution." This measure, which consisted in voting 1,000,000,000 of livres, to indemnify the emigrants and other original possessors of confiscated property, was received by the public with mingled surprise and anger. It was carried, however, in both chambers, after long and vehement debates. Another law, which was passed at the same time, and which converted the 5 per cents. into 3 per cents., gave great dissatisfaction to a multitude of stockholders, who found their income thus largely and suddenly diminished. Another attempt to make a step forward in returning to the restoring of the ancient order of things, by re-establishing the law of primogeniture, gave almost equal offence with the preceding measures, and was not equally successful; the ministers obtaining only a small part of their demand.

While, in consequence of these laws, and of the favour openly shown to the Jesuits by the court, the minds of men were in a ferment, M. Villele, the prime minister, had the madness to propose a law for fettering the press. It was received by the public with indignation; in the chamber of deputies it was passed with some amendments; but it was met by the peers with such hostility, that, to avoid the disgrace of its being thrown out, it was withdrawn *by the minister*. His defeat was celebrated

throughout the country by rejoicings and illuminations. He took an early opportunity of revenging himself. The Parisian national guards having, at a review, uttered some censures on the ministry, they were immediately disbanded; and, as soon as the legislature was prorogued, a royal ordinance re-established the censorship. But this was not enough to answer his purpose: it gratified his spleen, but did not strengthen his power. In the fallacious hope of obtaining a satisfactory majority in both chambers, he dissolved the chamber of deputies, hurried on the elections, to prevent an opposition from being organized against his partisan candidates, and crowned the whole by creating at once 76 new peers.

The hopes of M. Villele were speedily blighted. He had contrived to irritate two sections of the royalist party no less than he had the liberals, and they now all combined against him. A chamber of deputies decidedly hostile to him was returned, and, in January 1828, his ministry was broken up. It was succeeded by another, of a more liberal cast, under the presidency of M. de Martignac. The chambers met in March, and began by stigmatizing in bitter terms the system of the late cabinet. Several conciliatory measures were taken by M. de Martignac, among which were laws for unfettering the press, securing the rights of electors, and checking the encroachments of the Jesuits.

Though its principles and proceedings were detested by the monarch, the Martignac ministry remained in office till August, 1829. It is probable that Charles X. deemed himself not sufficiently strong to venture on its destruction before that period; and that he was then encouraged by the clamour which the absurd commercial system of the ministers had excited against them. The wine-growers, in particular, were furiously hostile to the prohibitory duties, which prevented them from exporting their produce. The manner in which Charles X. selected his ministers, afforded a sufficient indication of his future system of government. At the head of the ministry were three determined and obnoxious royalists of the old school, the prince de Polignac, la Bourdonnaye, and Bourmont, the latter of whom had rendered himself peculiarly hateful to the French, by his desertion before the battle of Waterloo.

The French are a people but too fond of military glory, and too ready to sacrifice objects of more consequence for its attainment. Availing themselves of this feeling, the new ministry projected an expedition against Algiers, the dey of which had insulted the French consul, and subsequently refused to give satisfaction. The army by which this enterprise was undertaken, was 30,000 strong, commanded by the count de Bourmont; the naval part consisted of 100 ships of war, and 400 transports. It must be said, in justice to the planners of *this* expedition, that never were more precau- *tions* taken to ensure success. The troops were landed on the 14th of June, 1830, and, on the 5th of July, the city of Algiers was in the possession of the invaders.

But, this time, political hostility prevailed over the love of military glory. While the expedition was preparing to depart, the public mind was hourly becoming more exasperated. The session of the legislature was opened, on the 2nd of March, by a speech from the king, which intimated, not obscurely, his determination to proceed firmly in the career upon which he had entered. After a solemn and protracted debate, the chamber of deputies answered by a vote of censure on the ministers. "My resolutions are immutable," replied the infatuated monarch; immediately after which he prorogued the assembly, and, in the following month, dissolved it. The conduct of the 221 members, who had passed the vote, was enthusiastically applauded throughout France.

The signs of an approaching storm became henceforth daily more apparent. Already, in the autumn of 1829, the Breton departments had formed an association, to indemnify persons who might have been persecuted for refusing to pay taxes illegally imposed. Numerous and terrible fires, supposed to be incendiary, now took place in Normandy and Britanny. The press, meanwhile, continued to assail the Polignac ministry with admirable perseverance and vigour, and its efforts were seconded by the voice of the people. To complete the dismay of the monarch and his chosen instruments, the elections, in spite of all their exertions, went decidedly against them; the number of antiministerial deputies returned, being greater than they had been in the recently dissolved chamber.

Charles X. had now no other alternative but to reign constitutionally, or to resort to violence, in order to maintain an arbitrary authority. He chose the latter. On the 26th of July, 1830, he accordingly issued three ordinances, by which he prohibited any public journal from being published without the authority of the government, dissolved the chamber of deputies, which had not yet assembled, and destroyed the electoral system, by narrowing the franchise, and reducing the number of members from 430 to 258. To carry this daring scheme into execution, the command of the garrison of the city, consisting of about 12,000 men, was given to Marshal Marmont, duke of Ragusa, memorable as the first French general who deserted Napoleon, in 1814.

The first scene of the terrible drama which was about to be enacted began on the following morning. In defiance of the ordinance against the press, the journalists had boldly resolved to publish their papers as usual. To prevent this, the police broke into the printing-offices, scattered about the types, and broke the presses. Crowds were soon collected round the printing-offices, and cries of rage and vengeance were heard from all quarters. While the populace were thus venting their anger,

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of the morning two regiments of the line also went over to them; many of them, on the previous day, had refused to fire upon the people; this time they, (the citizens) in turn, became the assailants. Marmont had concentrated his force within the Louvre and the Tuilleries, and thither the Parisians bent their way. The positions were obstinately defended; but they were at length carried: and soon after mid-day Marmont and his routed troops abandoned Paris to the victors. In this contest nearly 800 of the people were killed, and more than 4000 wounded; the loss sustained by the troops was far less severe.

Where was the infatuated monarch all this while? He was at St. Cloud, fully occupied in hunting during the day, and playing whist at night; and the only share which he took in the struggle was to send word to Marshal Marmont to stand firm, and to act with his troops in masses! Till the last moment he was deaf to the voice of those who urged him to retract his illegal ordinances, and equally so to the voice of honour, which called upon him to share the perils of the unfortunate soldiers who were shedding their blood in his behalf, and likewise sinking for want of food, which no care had been taken to provide for them.

When the combat was at end, the victors lost not a moment in availing themselves of their success. The chamber of deputies met, a provisional government was appointed, and the duke of Orleans was declared lieutenant-general of the kingdom. Charles X. now signified his willingness to recall the ordinances, and appoint a popular ministry; but he was told that it was too late, for that his family had ceased to reign. The duke of Orleans was called to the throne, under the title of Louis Philip I., King of the French; and some modifications, favourable to liberty, were made in the charter. Two-and-twenty days after his issuing the ordinances, Charles X. arrived in England, as an exile.

The throne which Louis Philip had ascended was destined to be an uneasy one. His being raised to it was regarded with disgust by the republican party, which was not inconsiderable in strength; the Bourbonists were of course his deadly foes; and he was scarcely less an object of hatred to the Napoleonists. In the autumn of 1830, a serious riot took place in Paris, in consequence of the government having brought in a law to abolish the punishment of death for political offences, which was supposed to be designed to save the obnoxious ministers of the late king. The riot was suppressed; and the ministers were brought to trial, and sentenced to perpetual imprisonment.

The next year, (1831,) was more than once disturbed by tumults. At Paris, in February, the mob assailed the palace of the archbishop, in consequence of his imprudent demonstrations in favour of the exiled family. In September a still more formidable outbreak occurred in the capital, which continued for two days. The

cause was indignation against the government, for its not having interfered in behalf of the heroic Poles. Lyons, in November, was the scene of a violent insurrection, occasioned by disputes between the workmen and the masters. The garrison was defeated and driven out, and the city was for some days in the power of the populace. An overwhelming force was, however, dispatched thither, and order was restored. The most important acts of the legislature, during this year, were the making a large addition to the number of electors, the voting of the perpetual exclusion of the Bourbons, and the abolition of the hereditary peerage.

In 1832, the political horizon continued to darken. The republicans and the Bourbonists were actively at work. Scarcely had Louis Philip got over his vexation at the civil list being unsparingly cut down by the chamber of deputies, when a republican conspiracy was discovered against him, which, in less than a month, was succeeded by a Bourbonist plot. The press, too, became so virulent in its attacks upon the monarch, that prosecutions were instituted by the ministers against some of the editors; a measure which only increased their rancour. The system of prosecuting has, however, been steadily persevered in up to the present moment: the number of prosecutions has been enormous. In many instances the government has been baffled by a verdict of acquittal. At Marseilles, and in Vendée, disturbances arose; and, in the midst of all this confusion, the cholera appeared at Paris, and then spread through the kingdom, committing everywhere the most frightful ravages. Even this calamity served as a pretext for a riot. The government issued an order for the more effectual cleansing of the streets. This the mud-rakers considered as an infringement of their privileges; they resisted its being carried into effect, and were backed by many of the republicans; so that it became necessary to call out the military, and some blood was shed in the contest.

These comparatively trivial events were but the preludes to one of a most alarming nature, which threatened to shake the throne to its very foundations. On the 5th of June, a republican insurrection broke out in Paris, which was continued throughout that and on the following day. Numerous barricades were erected, and the insurgents fought with a desperate bravery, which long held in check the powerful army that operated against them. Towards the close of the engagement, about 200 of them took post in the church of St. Mary, refused to surrender, and combated to the last man. The killed and wounded in this affair exceeded 1000 men. While Paris was thus agitated, the duchess of Berri was exerting herself to bring the Vendean royalists into the field. She failed, however, was made prisoner, and, after a short imprisonment was sent out of the country. In November, Louis Philip, while *on his way to the* chambers, was ineffectually fired at by an assassin, who escaped among the crowd. Two men were subsequently tried, but were acquitted.

The year 1833 passed away in comparative quiet. The press still continued to harass the crown, and to be prosecuted in return. By the end of the year, one editor had already been eighty-one times brought to trial, and eight times condemned.

The French capital was in a restless state during the following year, (1834,) and would probably have been worse but for the constant presence of a large garrison. But the most alarming event of the year was an insurrection at Lyons, which broke out on the 9th of April, and raged for six days. The insurgents, who were the workmen of the city, displayed the most obstinate courage. From 6000 to 8000 of them, and 2000 of the military, were killed or wounded, and numerous public and other buildings were reduced to ruins, or much injured. An attempt was made to get up a simultaneous insurrection at Paris, but it failed.

A dispute with America, which was eventually settled by the mediation of Great Britain, and the formation of a new ministry, in place of one which had lasted three days, were the principal occurrences which occupied the French during the first three months of the year 1835. With respect to ministries, it must be remarked, that, since the accession of Louis Philip, the changes have been ludicrously numerous. The trial of the Lyons and Paris insurgents was the next event of consequence: and it was protracted to such a length that it acquired the name of the Monster Trial. But attention was, ere long, called away from this and all other minor affairs, by the commission of one of the most cold-blooded and horrible crimes which has been witnessed in modern days. An assassin, named Fieschi, resolved to get rid of the king and all the royal family at "one fell swoop." The first day of the anniversary of the July conflict was the day which he chose for the execution of his scheme. Having constructed a machine, justly called "infernal," consisting of five-and-twenty gun-barrels, fastened together, and loaded to the muzzle, he took a lodging on the boulevard of the Temple, and fixed the machine in the window, at such an angle as to command the road below. The barrels were to be discharged simultaneously, by means of firing a train of powder. At the moment when, slowly riding along the line of the national guards, the king, with his three sons, and attendants, came opposite the window, the villain fired the train. A dreadful shriek instantly arose from the multitude. The king and his sons were unhurt; but Marshal Mortier was shot dead, several officers were dangerously wounded, and upwards of forty spectators, men, women, and children, were either killed or severely wounded. Severely wounded himself, by the bursting of some of the over-loaded barrels, the monster attempted to escape, but, fortunately, he was not

It was not till January, in the fol-
, (1836,) that he was brought to trial.
accomplices suffered by the guillo-
r was condemned to twenty years'
nt. His murderous design gave
new laws, which bore heavily upon
d the liberties of the people. Yet,
ect was produced by them, or by
nent of Fieschi and his fellow cri-
: on the 25th of June, the king was
at, but without effect, as his car-
uitting the Tuileries. The culprit
g man named Alibaud, who was
illotined. His fate did not deter
ned Meunier, from following his
n December. The ball narrowly
monarch. In the autumn of 1836,
ry alarm was excited, by a rash
ich was made by Prince Louis, a
Napoleon, to raise an insurrection
g. The prince was transported to
y the French government. On the
ovember, the deposed monarch,
, died at Goritz, in the Austrian

As the duke of Angoulême had the throne at the same time as the duke of Bourdeaux, the post-n of the duke of Berri, now became ler to the crown of France. Towards this year, Prince Polignac, and the sters of the deceased monarch, were m confinement.

1837, the plans of assassination were A mechanic, named Champion, was a charge of having made a new achine; and he put an end to his ice in prison. The remainder of the mparatively quiet. Such was also the he following year, (1838,) the most events of which were the death of ted statesman Prince Talleyrand, nmencement of a quarrel between the Mexican republic, which was ttled, under the mediation of Great During the three succeeding years, nd 1841,) France was in an unsettled le state. Riots occurred at Paris, nd many other places; Prince Louis made a fruitless attempt on Bou-king was again fired at; and, sub-In September, 1841, an assassin tol at the dukes of Orleans and Au-ally wounded an officer in the knee, he horse under him. It seems now come an established custom, that he royal family shall be shot at

ance was thus internally diseased, ed with a fit of that kind of insa-h she has too often been subject— f spreading the flames of war among urs, either for interested purposes, re what she absurdly considers as five great powers of Europe, and urse among the number, had bound by treaty to preserve the Ottoman empire from being overthrown by Mehemet Ali. All at once, in 1840, France thought proper, from sinister motives, to recede from the alliance, and encourage the pasha of Egypt. The four remaining powers, nevertheless, pursued their course, and settled the Egyptian question, without the concurrence of France. At once, all the country resounded with cries of rage and vengeance, especially against England, on which the press and the public speakers incessantly poured forth a flood of venom and calumny. Every dockyard and arsenal in the kingdom was kept at work without remission; the army was recruited to an immense extent; and the navy was proportionably increased; and a double line of fortifications, which will cost several millions sterling, was hastily begun, for the protection of the capital. War—and it must have been a dreadful one—would have been inevitable, but for the prudence and firmness of the monarch. In spite of the popular clamour, he dismissed the Thiers ministry, which could talk of nothing but hostilities, and took into council M. Guizot and other able, moderate, and conscientious statesmen. The catastrophe was thus averted. A rancorous feeling, however, still lurks in the minds of the French, on the one side; while, on the other, Europe will not soon forget the malignant eagerness which the French people for the most part displayed, to carry carnage and conflagration into the territories of their neighbours.

While this sheet was in the hands of the printer, a fatal accident occurred, which has plunged the royal family of France into the deepest grief, and may, ultimately, be productive of the most serious political consequences. On the 13th of July, (1842,) the horses of the carriage of the duke of Orleans took fright, in one of the streets of Paris, and ran away. The prince, unfortunately, leaped out of the vehicle, fell on his head, and was so severely injured that he died in the course of a few hours. He was in the 32nd year of his age. By his wife, the princess Helen of Mecklenburgh Schwerin, he has left two children, Louis Philip, born August 24, 1838, and Robert Philip, born November 9, 1840, the former of whom is heir to the crown. A new election of representatives has recently taken place, and their first melancholy task will be to decide upon the formation of a regency.

Louis Philip I. was born October 6, 1773, and married, November 25, 1809, Maria Amelia, daughter of the king of Naples; by whom he has issue, 1. Louisa Maria Theresa, queen of the Belgians, born April 3, 1812. 2. Louis Charles Philip, duke of Nemours, born October 25, 1814. 3. Maria Clementina, princess of Orleans, born June 3, 1817. 4. Francis Ferdinand Philip, prince of Joinville, born October 14, 1818. 5. Henry Eugene Philip, duke of Aumale, born January 16, 1822. 6. Anthony Mary Philip, duke of Montpensier, born July 31, 1824

BELGIUM.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 173	between	49. 20. and 51. 30. N. lat.
Breadth, 112	between	2. 40. and 6. E. long.

Containing 12,560 square miles, with about 320 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES—DIVISIONS.—The seventeen provinces, extending from the French frontier to the river Ems, formerly composed a part of Belgic Gaul, and afterward of the circle of Belgium or Burgundy in the German empire. In consequence of their low situation, they were called the Netherlands. Two of the number (Artois and the Cambresis) were conquered by the French; seven revolted from the Spaniards; and the rest, during the greater part of the 18th century, were known by the name of the Austrian Netherlands. The latter form the present kingdom of Belgium, which is bounded on the north by Holland; on the east by the Prussian territories; on the south by the French departments of the North, Ardennes, and Moselle; and on the west by a part of France, and by the sea which separates Britain from the continent. It is divided into the provinces of East and West Flanders, Brabant, Antwerp, Hainault, Limburg, Luxemburg, and Liege; the last of these provinces was long deemed a part of Germany. The first two are the most flourishing of the whole number, and contain rather more inhabitants than all the rest taken together.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—Belgium is generally a flat country, containing no mountains, and few hills. The rural scene presents here pleasing prospects on all sides: fields crowned with fruitful crops; meadows covered with numerous herds; neat and commodious farmhouses, set singly or in groups; cheerful and extended villages, embowered among trees, and divided from each other by small intervals: while through such fair landscapes the rivers wind, and the clear canals pursue their useful course. The scenery along the course of the Meuse is often extremely beautiful.

FORESTS.—In Brabant is the forest of Soignies; and in Hainault and Luxemburg are ample remains of the forest of Ardennes, which formerly extended from the Moselle to the sea.

RIVERS, CANALS, AND RAILROADS.—Among the chief rivers are the Maes, Scheldt, Sambre, Demer, Dyle, Geete, Rupel, Scarpe, Deule, and Dender. The Maes, or Meuse, rises in France near Langres, enters the kingdom of the Netherlands near Givet, and flows across the country into South Holland. The Scheldt originates to the southward of Cambray, passes through the province of Hainault, proceeds to *Antwerp, and flows*, by two great branches, *into the German Ocean*. The principal canals are those of the North; Brussels and Antwerp; Bruges, Ghent, and Ostend; Charleroi and Brussels; and Mons and Condé. There are three railroads in operation: from Antwerp to Mechlin and Brussels; from Ostend to Bruges, Ghent, Termonde and Mechlin; and from Mechlin to Louvain and Liege. Two others are now in progress: from Liege to Aix-la-Chapelle and Cologne; and from Brussels to Lisle, and thence to Paris.

METALS—MINERALS.—Mines of iron, copper, lead, calamine, and sulphur, are found in Luxemburg and Limburg, as are some marble quarries; and in Namur, Limburg, Liege, and Hainault, are coal-pits, and a species of bituminous fat earth, proper for fuel, with great plenty of fossil nitre.

CLIMATE—SOIL—AGRICULTURE.—The air of Brabant, and upon the coast of Flanders, is bad; in the interior parts it is more healthful, and the seasons are more settled, both in winter and summer, than they are in England. The soil and its produce are rich, especially in corn and fruit. There is an abundance of pasture; and Flanders itself has been reckoned the granary of France and Germany, and sometimes of England. The most barren parts for corn rear far more profitable crops of flax, which is here cultivated to great perfection. The state of agriculture, in the Netherlands, has received the highest praise from those who are well qualified to judge of it, and has, indeed, been celebrated for these 600 years past. There is, in fact, no soil so unpromising that, by dint of perseverance, the Belgian cannot render productive. Upon the whole, these provinces, by the culture, commerce, and industry of the inhabitants, were formerly the richest and most beautiful spot in Europe, for the variety of manufactures, the magnificence and riches of the cities, the pleasantness of the roads and villages, and the fertility of the land, and they promise fair to recover their ancient character in these respects.

VEGETABLES—ANIMALS.—Great quantities of corn, flax, and madder, and also hops and tobacco, are raised in the Netherlands, and the pasturage is particularly abundant. The cattle, which are purchased lean in Germany, soon increase in bulk; and the native cattle, in most of the provinces, show by their size the luxuriance of the soil from which they are fed. The animals are nearly the same as in France.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—But few precipices, or cataracts, and little grand and romantic natural scenery, can be expected in this flat and low country. In the province of Liege there is, however, near Stavelot, the picturesque cascade of Coo, produced by the river Ambleve falling a depth of 60 feet. In the same province, at Ile-

nouchamps, is a stalactitical cavern, of considerable magnitude, where the stalactites assume an infinite variety of fanciful and beautiful forms. Fossil bones of hyenas, bears, lions, and elephants have been found here. A small river flows through a part of the cavern. Near Liege there are also numerous caverns, which contain abundant animal remains. Among the artificial curiosities of Belgium is the enormous tumulus, or mound, 200 feet high, raised to commemorate the victory of Waterloo.

POPULATION.—It was affirmed by the French, that these provinces contained above 3,000,000 of individuals while under their sway: and this calculation seems to have been not far from the mark; the population in 1839, after twenty-five years of peace and prosperity, being 3,972,943 souls—an increase which might well have taken place in the course of a quarter of a century.

NATIONAL CHARACTER—MANNERS.—The Flemings, by which name the natives of the Low Countries were usually called, though the appellation was strictly applicable only to those of Flanders, were generally considered as a heavy, blunt, honest, economical, and laborious people; but ignorant, bigoted, and superstitious. When they were under the yoke of their Gallic neighbours, being less oppressed than the former subjects of France, they seemed to shake off their habitual gravity, and to imitate the vivacity of their new masters, whose example, at the same time, did not tend to improve their morality; but they did not, in general, suffer their Catholic zeal to be relaxed by the suggestions of scepticism.

CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—Brussels, the former residence of the Austrian governor, is now the capital of the Belgian kingdom. It is partly built on an eminence, and partly on a plain watered by the small river Senne. Its fortifications were destroyed, or rendered useless in a military point of view, by the emperor Joseph II.; but the ramparts, being planted with trees, form beautiful walks round the city. Some of the squares are spacious and handsome; and a neat regularity of building prevails in the town. That extensive tract which is called the Park is a public garden, intersected by walks, and varied by lawns ornamented with fountains and statues. It is surrounded by magnificent buildings; and the whole is calculated to excite the admiration of strangers. The old palace, which is rather stately than elegant, contains a fine collection of pictures, a cabinet of natural history, and a valuable library. The most admired religious buildings are the church of St. Gudule and the chapel of Notre Dame. The town-hall is the most striking edifice in the city. It was finished in 1402, and has a beautiful tower of open Gothic work, 364 feet in height, surmounted by a brass statue of St. Michael, 17 feet high, which serves as a weathercock. About 106,000 persons compose the population of Brussels: among them are many families of British emigrants, who have been attracted to this spot by the supposed salubrity of the air, the beauty of the situation, and the comparative facility of subsistence.

"The most remarkable manufacture of Brussels is that of lace, celebrated all over the world. The peculiarity, in addition to the fineness which distinguishes it, is, that the patterns are worked separately with the most microscopic minuteness, and afterwards sewed on. At the house of Ducpetiaux and Son, in Rue Neuve de la Montagne, the whole process may be seen to advantage, and the visitor is not necessarily expected to make a purchase, though it is usual to leave a donation for the workwomen. The flax employed in the manufacture grows near Halle: the best comes from a place called Rebecque. The finest sort costs from 3000 to 4000 francs per pound, and is worth its weight in gold—everything depending on the tenuity of the fibre. Three quarters of a yard English, of the finest and most expensive kind of lace, costs 150 francs; but a very good sort is sold for 65 francs, and the prices of some are as low as 30 or 40 francs per ounce. It is said that the persons who spin the thread for Brussels lace, and also for the French cambric of St. Quentin, are obliged to work in confined dark rooms, into which light is admitted only partially by a small aperture; and that, by being thus compelled to pay more constant and minute attention to their work, they discipline the eye, and attain the faculty of spinning the flax of that web-like fineness which constitutes the excellence of these two fabrics."

Louvain, a very ancient city on the Dyle, which once contained a population of 200,000, now contains only 26,000, and has a solitary and deserted aspect. It was once famous for its woollen manufactures; but its manufacturing reputation now rests upon its brewing the best beer in Belgium, of which 200,000 casks are annually made here. Its town-hall is one of the finest Gothic buildings in the world. It was finished in 1463; and all the dilapidated parts of the exterior have recently been renovated with the nicest accuracy. The cathedral of St. Peter had originally a steeple which rose to the stupendous height of 533 feet; but it was blown down in 1604. It contains some good pictures.

Mechlin, or Malines, on the Dyle, with a population of 24,000 inhabitants, is a picturesque city. Its Gothic cathedral, dedicated to St. Rumbold, contains an exquisite picture of the Crucifixion, painted by Vandyke. The tower of this edifice, though unfinished, has an altitude of 370 feet. It was intended that the steeple should increase the height to 640 feet. In the churches of St. John and Notre Dame are some excellent works from the pencil of Rubens. Only eight houses in Mechlin are now employed in the manufacture of lace.

Antwerp, in the 16th century, was the great emporium of the continent; but the selfishness and jealousy of the Dutch ruined its commerce *by obstructing* the navigation of the Scheldt.

It is now rapidly recovering from its long decline; and its commerce perhaps will soon be equal to that of Amsterdam or Hamburgh. Its merchants receive the commodities and manufactures of most of the Belgian towns, and conduct on a large scale the business of exportation; and its port is so well frequented, that, in the year 1817, it boasted of the arrival of 999 trading vessels. While it was possessed by Napoleon, he enlarged and improved the harbour, constructed extensive docks and storehouses, and strengthened the town by the skilful labours of the engineer. The population is increasing, and is supposed to amount to 75,000. Among the public edifices, the cathedral, the old church of the Jesuits, the town-house, and exchange, are particularly distinguished. The spire of the cathedral is of great beauty and loftiness. It has usually been supposed to be between 400 and 500 feet high; but recent barometrical observations have reduced its elevation to 366 feet. Antwerp abounds in pictures by Rubens, and other great masters.

Ghent, situated on the rivers Scheldt and Lys, was, in the time of Charles V., one of the most populous cities in Europe: it contained 175,000 inhabitants; it has now only 85,000. It is still an extensive manufacturing place, and considered as the Belgic Manchester. Thirty thousand workmen, and more than 100 steam engines, are employed in fabricating linens and cottons. There are also numerous breweries, distilleries, and sugar-refineries. Ghent communicates with the sea by a magnificent ship-canal. It is a highly picturesque city, and has numerous magnificent public edifices; among which are the cathedral, the town-hall, the belfry tower, and the university. Ghent abounds in pictures, by some of the most eminent masters.

Bruges, which once had 200,000 inhabitants, has now only 45,000, of whom one third are said to be paupers. "On the whole," says a recent writer, "it wears an air of desolation; the people in its streets are few; it has long lost all indications of commercial activity; the recent Revolution has lessened that little which it previously possessed, and has driven many of its most opulent merchants and ship-owners to Holland. Its appearance is the more mournful from its great extent, and the size and unaltered splendour of many of the public buildings and private houses, which are so many vestiges of its former wealth and prosperity." Its cathedral, its churches, and its town-hall, are noble structures, and have many excellent paintings.

Ostend, a fortress and seaport, contains 15,000 inhabitants, has manufactories of cordage, sailcloth, oil, &c., and carries on a considerable fishery and commerce. It has few objects to excite the curiosity of the traveller.

Mons, a frontier fortress, has 25,000 inhabitants. Its most remarkable building is the church of St. Waudru, which is a fine specimen *of Gothic* architecture. There are numerous *coal-mines in the* neighbourhood of this city.

Tournay, with 30,000 inhabitants, is a frontier fortress, and thriving manufacturing town. There are at least 2500 looms constantly employed. Carpets and china are likewise made here to a considerable extent.

Namur, picturesquely situated at the junction of the Sambre and Meuse, is another fortress, and has 20,000 inhabitants. It has manufactories of arms and cutlery, considerable tanneries, and mines of coal, iron, and marble in its vicinity.

Liege, the Birmingham of Belgium, which was long the seat of a bishop, who was a prince of the empire, is still a considerable town, and has 59,000 inhabitants. In the time of its independence, it was called the Paradise of Priests, who were its most opulent inhabitants; but some of its churches are now in ruins, and ecclesiastical has yielded to civil influence. Its principal buildings are the church of St. James, and the university. The manufactures carried on in this city and its environs evince the industry of the people, and an appearance of comfort is pleasingly observable among them. The situation is remarkable; for the town is narrowed by the proximity of lofty hills to the Maes, and the multiplied branches of the river form many islands, which are bordered by well-constructed quays, and communicate by bridges of varied forms. In its neighbourhood is Seraigne, once the palace of the bishop of Liege, and lately the colossal establishment of the enterprising manufacturer, Cockerell. The original edifice was of considerable size, but has been extended to thrice its former dimensions, in order to fit it for its present destination. The vast pile of building forms a little town of itself; iron and coal are extracted from mines within its walls, which also enclose a canal and railroad leading down to the river, numerous furnaces, where the iron is smelted, and forges, where it is wrought into articles of all sorts, from penknives up to steam engines, inferior only to those made in England, and spinning machinery nearly as good as and much cheaper than the English. The establishment also includes a cotton-factory, and a cannon-foundry. In 1836, 3000 workmen, and steam engines equivalent to 800 horse-power, were constantly employed at Seraigne.

At a few miles distant from Liege, near the Prussian frontier, is Spa, with 3600 inhabitants. It is celebrated for its mineral springs; of which only one, (the Pouhon,) is within the town; the others, four in number, are between two and three miles from it. Spa is also famous for a manufactory of wooden toys, made from wood stained by being steeped in the mineral waters. Since the German baths have become fashionable, Spa is much less frequented than it formerly was.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.—Some important manufactures are prosecuted by the artisans of the Netherlands, with great spirit and success. Their lace (of which the finer sort is made at Brussels and Antwerp, and the

pecies at Mechlin and Bruges,) is
d by that of any other country; and
is also in high estimation. Silken,
woollen articles, are likewise fabri-
lvantage, and with little less skill
layed in Great Britain or in France.
stoves, and cutlery, are well manu-
arthenware is also made for expor-
many refineries of salt and sugar
shed over the country. The com-
elgium, which languished for some
the Revolution of 1830, has now

ENT.—When these provinces were
Austria, they had no regular consti-
had been subverted by the emperor
, though he was bound to adhere
anty of the *joyeuse entrée*, and of
ileges of his Netherland subjects,
on the accession of his grandfather
,) consulted only his own arbitrary
price. Even Leopold, when he re-
revolters, meanly avoided a com-
h their just expectations. Yet his
nd that of his son Francis, did not
he extreme of tyranny. Under the
e, it could not be supposed that
would be paid to the rights of the
, when the success of the allies
ice of Orange in possession of the
granted a new constitution to the
, in 1815, on the basis of a complete
Holland. He promised that a
mbly, freely elected, should exer-
erations alternately in each coun-
e government should be adminis-
due regard to the suggestions and
ie national representatives; that
whether Catholics or Protestants,
an equal chance of being admitted
fices and employments; and that
s should be gratified with a full
of all the commercial and colonial
which were already enjoyed by the
The breach of these promises
e Revolution of 1830. By the new
itution, the king shares, with the
hamber of representatives, in the
wer. All his acts must be coun-
r a minister, and ministers are
or them. The senate and chamber
tives are both elective bodies; and
atives are paid for their services.
rs assemble of right every year,
ion must last at least forty days.
erson and conscience are guaran-
citizen.
—Before the conquest of Belgium
ch, the established religion was
atholic; but Protestants, and other
not molested, though they were
to have public places of worship.
untry formed a part of France, it
o the regulations of the *concordat*
tween that power and the see of

The archbishopric of Mechlin is the metropolitan see. The bishoprics are Ghent, Bruges, Liege, Namur, and Tournay. The salary is £4016 per annum; the salaries of the bishops vary from £2252 to £3092. But these sums are, in fact, only nominal; there being so much to be paid out of them, for ecclesiastical purposes, that the income of the archbishop is reduced to £840, and that of each bishop to £588.

LITERATURE AND THE ARTS.—The society of Jesuits formerly produced the most learned men in the Austrian Low Countries, in which they had many eligible settlements. Works of theology and the civil and canon law, Latin poems and plays, were their chief productions. Strada is an elegant historian and poet. The interesting historians, Froissart and Philip de Comines, were natives of Flanders; the learned Lipsius was born near Brussels.

The Flemish painters and sculptors have great merit, and form a school by themselves. The works of Rubens and Vandyke cannot be sufficiently admired. The models for heads, of Fiamingo, or the Fleming, particularly those of children, have never yet been equalled; and the Flemings formerly engrossed the art of tapestry-weaving.

UNIVERSITIES.—These are three in number; Ghent, Liege, and Louvain. The last of these was suppressed by the French, but re-established by the king of the Netherlands. It was founded in 1426, by John IV., duke of Brabant; and by a grant of Pope Sixtus IV. it had the privilege of presenting to all the livings in the Netherlands. There are also four high-schools at Brussels, Bruges, Namur, and Tournay.

LANGUAGE.—The vernacular language of this country is the Flemish, a dialect of the Dutch; but it is nearly superseded, except among the peasantry, by the French, which is spoken in good society, and is also the official language used in the chambers and tribunals. In Namur and Liege, the people speak an ancient French *patois*, called the Walloon, and in Luxemburg the German predominates.

ANTIQUITIES.—Some Roman temples and other buildings, and the remains of Roman roads, are found in the Netherlands. There are also many churches and monasteries, venerable for their antiquity; and the magnificent old edifices of every kind, in all the cities, give evidence of their former grandeur. In 1607, some labourers found 1600 gold coins, and ancient medals, of Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius, and Lucius Verus.

HISTORY.—About a century before the Christian era, the Battæ removed from the country now called Hesse, to the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maes, and gave the name of Batavia to their new territory. Generous and brave, the Batavians were treated by the Romans with great respect, being exempted from tribute, governed by their own laws, and obliged only to perform military service. Upon the decline of that empire, the

Goths, and other northern people, possessed themselves of these provinces first, as they passed through them in their way to Gaul, and other parts of the Roman empire. The country being afterwards divided into small governments, the heads of which were despotic within their own dominions, Batavia became independent of Germany, (to which it had been united under one of the grandsons of Charlemagne, in the beginning of the 10th century,) when the supreme authority was lodged in the three united powers of a count, the nobles, and the towns. At last, they were swallowed up by the House of Burgundy, in 1433. To the House of Austria they were transferred in 1477, in consequence of the marriage of the archduke Maximilian with the heiress. The tyranny of that prince's great-grandson, Philip II. of Spain, occasioned an insurrection of the provincials, at whose head appeared the counts Hoorn and Egmont, and the prince of Orange; and, Luther's Reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples were forced by persecution to join the malcontents. Philip, in consequence, introduced a kind of inquisition, (which, from the inhumanity of its proceedings, was called the Council of Blood,) in order to suppress the revolt; and many thousands were put to death by that court, beside those who perished by the sword. Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, (whom the insurgents elected for their stadtholder,) retiring into Holland, that and the six adjacent provinces entered into a treaty for their mutual defence, at Utrecht, in 1579. And though these revolters at first were thought so despicable as to be termed beggars by their tyrants, their perseverance and courage were such, under the able direction of the prince of Orange, and with the aid afforded to them by Queen Elizabeth, both in troops and money, that they forced the crown of Spain, in 1609, to declare them a free people; and they were acknowledged by all Europe as an independent state, under the appellation of the United Provinces.

After this separation, the Spaniards remained masters of ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Netherlands or Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, as general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies, in 1706; after which, these provinces acknowledged Charles VI., afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, Maria Theresa, continued to possess them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except a part of the duchy of Luxemburg, and would have retained them from that time, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favour of the House of Austria, which continued in undisturbed possession of the part of the Netherlands secured to it by the peace of 1748, till the disputes which took place between these provinces and Joseph II., in the years 1788 and 1789.

The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, from the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow. He pretended to be humane and philanthropic; but he did not treat the insurgents with lenity. A proclamation was issued by Count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating that no quarter should be given to them, and that the villages in which they concealed themselves should be set on fire. General Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the fortresses, proclaiming that he intended to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul found in them to the sword.

Almost every town in the Austrian Netherlands now showed its determination to oppose the emperor. A formidable army soon took the field; which, after some successful skirmishes, obtained possession of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Mechlin, and Ostend. A battle was fought before Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loss of 1000 men. It reflects indelible disgrace on the emperor, as well as on the commanders of his troops, that they committed the most dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and destroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the merciless savages not only destroyed the men, but killed women and infants. By these horrible barbarities, they ensured success to their adversaries, who made the most rapid conquests; insomuch that, before the end of the year, they were masters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Although the provinces thus appeared for ever separated from the House of Austria, the death of Joseph, happening soon after, produced such a change in the conduct of the government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the situation of affairs; and the mild and pacific disposition of Leopold, the conciliatory measures which he adopted, and the mediation of Great Britain, Prussia, and Holland, led to an amicable settlement. In 1790, a convention was signed at Reichenbach by the high contracting powers, which had for its object the re-establishment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his imperial majesty.

When the French Revolution was in its progress, its effects were not immediately felt by the Netherland provinces; but their proximity to the agitated country, and the menacing aspect of their sovereign, exposed them to the early violence of the storm. The speedy success of the invaders, in 1792, we have already recorded, under the head of "France." After the transient recovery of a great portion of the country, a repetition of conquest followed, on the part of the French, who retained the Netherlands with the seeming acquiescence of the people, until the year 1814, when the fall of Paris produced a momentous change in the state of the continent. The emperor Francis,

in consideration of his acquisitions in Italy, and from a desire of giving additional power and respectability to the prince of Orange, waived his pretensions to the provinces which he had received from his ancestors; and it was resolved, even before they were secured by the battle of Waterloo, that they should compose, in conjunction with Holland, the kingdom of the Netherlands. Some pecuniary grants, out of the French contributions, were appropriated to the reparation of the fortresses, that a new barrier might be formed against future invasion.

It has been justly remarked, that, in taking this step, the Congress consulted neither the wishes of Belgium nor of Holland; that it "united two nations, which were too much on an equality not to envy each other, of which the one was Catholic, manufacturing, and agricultural, the other Protestant and commercial; which could not prosper together, nor address the Deity in the same rite and the same language, and of which, neither could pray for its own interests, without asking from Him the ruin of the other. Belgium, with its 3,000,000 of inhabitants, was placed under the sceptre of a king who reckoned only 2,000,000 of subjects in Holland."

It was not long before the consequences of this ill-assorted union began to manifest themselves in the dissatisfaction of Belgium. Nor did the sovereign act in such a manner as to allay the discontent. From first to last, his conduct was marked by flagrant partiality to his Dutch countrymen, who formed a minority of his subjects. To Holland was allowed, in the representative body, an equal number of members with Belgium; a circumstance which uniformly gave the former a majority, as some of the Belgian members were sure to be gained over by royal influence. In the distribution of all offices, civil and military, the Dutch were invariably preferred; in the army, for instance, there were 2256 Dutch officers, and only 380 Belgians. Heavy taxes were imposed, a part of which went to pay the interest of the old Dutch debt, contracted before the union. Some of these taxes were exceedingly obnoxious, particularly a percentage exacted at the mill on ground corn, or meal introduced into the city, which weighed heavily on the Belgians, by whom a much larger quantity of bread is eaten than by the Dutch. Care was also taken to abstain from taxing articles of Dutch commerce, and to throw the burden upon Belgian products. All this matter of taxation was rendered still worse, by the budget being voted for ten years, and no amendment allowed to be moved when it was introduced. Nor was there any responsibility imposed upon ministers. Trial by jury was early abolished: then, the use of the Dutch language was imposed upon all functionaries, civil and military; and this was worthily succeeded by the fixing of the supreme court of justice at the Hague, thereby *compelling the* Belgians to quit their homes, and, at a great expense, to carry their causes before a foreign tribunal, and commit them to foreign and prejudiced advocates. With such conduct as this, it was to be expected that the press would not escape being shackled and persecuted. At the same time, all possible slights and discouragements were thrown upon the Catholics, whose education was obstructed, and whose religion seemed to them to be endangered. It was an aggravation of all these things, that many of them were done, not by virtue of a law, but by the mere ordinance of the sovereign.

The public dissatisfaction increased yearly, but could not be effectively manifested while the country was divided into parties. At length, a union was formed by the Belgic Catholics and liberals, and thenceforth the struggle against Dutch ascendancy was carried on with more spirit and success. When the decennial budget was brought on, in 1829, it was victoriously opposed, and the government was compelled to relinquish some of the most obnoxious of the taxes. Encouraged by having obtained this advantage, petitions were poured in from the people, calling for the establishment of the jury system, the independence of the judges, the responsibility of public ministers, and the redress of various grievances; and, though the ministry opposed it with all their might, a motion for referring these petitions to the consideration of the government, was carried by a considerable majority.

The liberal press, meanwhile, was active in its attacks on the existing abuses; and this formidable instrument was wielded by men of no mean talents. The government, also, made use of the same weapon, and, by its imprudent language, contrived to irritate still more its Belgic subjects, especially the Catholics. One of its writers, the editor of a paper miscalled the "National," a man of notoriously infamous character, displayed a degree of virulence and insolence which was well calculated to raise up enemies against his employers. The minister of justice, Van Maanen, who was universally detested, was the director of this literary warfare on the part of the monarch. But the government did not confine itself to the use of such arms; it dismissed several public functionaries for having voted against it, and it instituted prosecutions against many of the most popular journalists, and obtained from a compliant tribunal the banishment of some of them.

The opposition which was now making to royal encroachment in France, contributed to confirm the Belgians in a similar resistance to the measures of their ruler. But it does not appear that, at this period, they had formed any design to throw off the authority of the Orange family. They would, at least for the present, have been satisfied with the granting of their petitions, the removal of the detested Van Maanen, and at most, the changing into a *federative* union the incorporation of the two *countries.*

Such was the state of affairs in Belgium when the French Revolution of July 1830 took place; nor, probably, were French republican agents wanting to prompt the Belgians to follow the recent example. It is certain that, in the disturbances which ensued, the Gallic tricolour was for a while hoisted. For some days before the outbreak, menacing sentences were chalked and placarded on the walls. Towards evening, on the 24th of August, crowds paraded through the streets, uttering loud vociferations against the Dutch, and some windows were battered; but it was not till the following night that any serious movement was made. The populace then rose, and began the work of destruction. The houses of the editor of the "National," the minister Van Maanen, and other obnoxious persons, were broken into, and the property in them was committed to the flames or plundered. Van Maanen's house was burnt. Having obtained weapons from the gun-smiths' shops, the mob disarmed all the small parties of the military, and continued their ravages. Several manufactories were forcibly entered and devastated. Before noon on the 26th, all the guards and posts in the centre of the city had been subdued, and the soldiers had retired to the barracks and the king's palace. As the mob, which chiefly consisted of the lowest class, seemed disposed to proceed in their career of wanton devastation, the respectable citizens assembled, and formed a burgher guard, to patrol the streets, and a temporary government, to secure the safety of the city, till a correspondence could be entered into with the monarch, who was then at the Hague. The utility of the burgher guard was soon made evident. A number of the rabble having risen again, for the purpose of pillage, they were fired upon, and dispersed by the guard.

Finding that reinforcements for the garrison were on the march, and that, when they arrived, it was intended to disarm the citizens, and declare the town in a state of siege, the popular leaders declared their resolution to erect barricades, and throw off their allegiance entirely, if the march of the troops were not instantly suspended. This menace induced the Dutch general to stop the progress of the reinforcement, and conclude a sort of truce with the leaders, to give time for them to dispatch a deputation to the Hague. A firm but respectful address to the king was then drawn up by the principal citizens, and five deputies, chosen from the most influential of the various classes, were appointed to present it to the monarch.

There was yet time for that monarch to preserve the crown which was tottering upon his head. But he was one of those men who mistake mere obstinacy for firmness; and he accordingly determined to make no concessions to those whom he considered as rebels and traitors. It ***must, however,*** be owned that, in this determination, he was backed by his Dutch subjects, who felt an unjust contempt and hatred of their Belgic neighbours. It was in vain that the prince of Orange dissuaded his father from using violent measures; and equally in vain that he afterwards ventured into Brussels, to endeavour to prevail on the citizens to submit, and trust to the justice and clemency of the monarch; the citizens, although they respected the son, could place no confidence in the father. So great, indeed, was their esteem for the prince, that the popular leaders urged him to place himself at the head of the people, and thus secure for himself either the viceroyalty or the crown. This proposal, however, he rejected, as being inconsistent with his filial duty and his honour. He then departed from Brussels.

By this time the flame of insurrection had spread into several parts of Belgium. Louvain, Bruges, and other towns took up arms; but it was at Liege that the feelings of the people were most strongly manifested, between 300 and 400 natives of which city marched to the assistance of their brethren at Brussels. This example was speedily followed by Jemappes, Wavre, and several other towns.

The session of the chambers was opened at the Hague, on the 13th of September, and it soon became evident that the Belgians had nothing to hope. The language of the Dutch deputies was immeasurably violent and insolent, and the Belgic members were treated with the utmost contumely; they were also beset in the streets by the lower class, and some of them were refused even a place to lodge in. In Brussels, meanwhile, their fellow-countrymen were preparing for the worst. Barricades were erected, stockades formed on the boulevards from the felled trees, trenches dug, the gates and other outlets blocked up, and the paving stones and other missiles carried to the tops of the houses; and, while this was going on, volunteers were flocking in from all parts of the Belgic provinces. The insurrection was spreading on all sides; the people of Liege had carried the fort of the Chartreuse, the towns of Mons and Namur had been abandoned by the Dutch troops, and Louvain was in full possession of the insurgent populace.

The determination of the king, to quell the revolt by force, was unfortunately strengthened by the conduct of many of the influential citizens of Brussels. The cowardly, and numbers of the rich, dreaded the consequences of a revolution, and, to avert them, assured the monarch that it was only the rabble that had risen, and that the mere appearance of a formidable body of troops would suffice to put an end to the revolt. But the machinations of those persons were discovered and frustrated by the popular leaders.

The army which was dispatched to reduce Brussels to obedience consisted of 12,000 foot, and 1600 horse, with 40 field-pieces. The attack was commenced early on the morning of the

st. The assailants advanced
r in four columns; and, at first,
l to await them. By ten o'clock,
d the feeble exterior defences,
possession of three gates, the
art of the ramparts. But they
it by far the worst portion of
yet to be performed; the deadly
e streets was now to be com-
om the preparations which the
de, and the spirit with which
was manifest that the result was
ubtful, and might perhaps be
itary. Prince Frederick there-
remain in the positions which
d to try what could be done by
As, however, the insurgents
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iministrative separation of the
and the withdrawal of the
he prince was not authorized to
se terms, the conferences were

e that Prince Frederick would
ated, had he not been deceived
surances from the Orangists in
the insurgents were weak and
stilities were therefore renewed.
of having been weakened, the
ceived supplies of men and am-
without, and had dispatched
cour the country, and raise up
in the rear of the hostile army.
which the troops made to pene-
town was repelled with great
they were at length compelled
iselves to the parks and public
h they had seized at the outset.
ere followed by the people, who
in on all sides, and harassed
a moment's cessation, by a heavy
ire from the windows, roofs, and
of the surrounding houses. At
3th, Prince Frederick withdrew
ces, and retreated to Antwerp.
killed and wounded, was little
ien; that of the victors was about

ion of this attack was productive
neft to the insurgents; it com-
ted and disorganized the Dutch
ave confidence to those Belgians
wavering in the provinces. In
less than three weeks, all the
h the exception of Antwerp and
re in possession of the people,
ians of all ranks, in the Dutch
ning the standard of their fellow
The provisional government of
now called itself, was thus pro-
means of defence, and it lost no
ring them available. In a few
nation was further improved by
masters of Antwerp, the garri-
ity was driven into the citadel.
mmandant avenged himself by
cannonading and bombarding the place; by which measure enormous damage was done, and many lives were lost.

The bombardment of Antwerp irritated the Belgians to the highest degree, and effectually destroyed all hope of preserving the crown upon the head of the Nassau family. Hitherto, there had been a chance that the Belgians would submit, if a federative union of the two countries were consented to by the king, or, at worst, that the prince of Orange, who had many partisans, would be raised to the Belgic throne. But, now, it was in vain that the monarch tardily yielded to the proposal of a union, and equally in vain that, as a last resource, to prevent an entire separation, the prince declared his willingness to put himself at the head of the Belgian people. Both propositions were sternly repulsed; the independence of the country was declared, and the House of Nassau was repudiated for ever.

One of the first steps taken by the temporary government was, under the circumstances in which it was placed, a very judicious one. A commission was appointed to draw up the plan of a constitution; and it resolved, by a majority of eleven out of twelve, that the basis should be monarchical. This determination was well calculated to conciliate the allied powers, and it doubtless had that effect. When the king appealed to them for their armed intervention in his favour, they refused to comply with his wish; and, before the end of December, they recognized the independence of Belgium. This they followed up by the formation of a conference, to make an equitable arrangement for the separation of the two countries. By their means also a temporary truce was concluded between Belgium and Holland.

The Belgic congress, consisting of 200 members, met on the 10th of November; and, before the end of the month, it had passed votes asserting the Belgian independence, declaring in favour of a constitutional and hereditary monarchy, and decreeing the perpetual exclusion of the Nassau family from the throne. In spite, however, of the latter vote, intrigues were still carried on in behalf of the prince of Orange, but the spirit of the country was so decidedly adverse, that they were at length desisted from. The next work of the congress was the production of a charter, on the most liberal principles; it was put to the vote, and adopted on the 7th of January, 1831.

Numerous candidates were brought forward for the Belgic crown; but, at last, all were withdrawn, except the duke of Leuchtenberg and the duke of Nemours. The former, a son of Prince Eugene Beauharnois, was violently opposed by France, and, in consequence, the design of electing him was relinquished, though a majority of the Belgians were in his favour. Louis Philip was anxious to obtain the crown for his son, the duke of Nemours; and the duke was elected. As the placing him on the throne would, however,

have made the Belgic provinces mere appendages of France, the other powers of Europe could not suffer such a step to be taken; and Louis Philip was therefore obliged to decline, in the name of his son, the proffered diadem. On the 4th of June, Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg was elected to the kingly office, and on the 22nd he was invested with the sovereignty.

The new monarch had been only a fortnight on the throne when he was attacked by his deposed antagonist. The Dutch army had recovered its spirits and been largely recruited; while the Belgians, reposing on the faith of the armistice, had paid less attention to theirs, and had spread it too widely. The Belgian army was defeated at Louvain, and the victors were advancing upon Brussels, when their progress was arrested by the approach of a French army, under Marshal Gerard. A suspension of arms was consequently agreed upon, and negotiations were renewed.

For fourteen months the conference continued to exert itself to bring the Belgian question to a close, but without effect; for the obstinacy of the Dutch monarch was immoveable. At length, the allied powers resolved that the Dutch ports should be blockaded, and the citadel of Antwerp besieged by a French army. The citadel surrendered on the 24th of December, 1832; it was given up to the Belgic government, and the French army withdrew. Though no further hostilities occurred between the two countries, yet seven years elapsed before peace was regularly concluded between Belgium and Holland, the treaty not being signed till the 19th of April, 1839. The prosperity of Belgium continues to be rapidly on the increase.

Leopold I. (George Christian Frederic) king of the Belgians, duke of Saxony, prince of Saxe Coburg Gotha, was born December 16, 1790, and is married to Louisa Maria Charlotte Isabella, princess of Orleans, daughter of Louis Philip I. king of the French, by whom he has issue, 1. Leopold Louis, prince royal, duke of Brabant, born April 9, 1835. 2. Philip Eugene, count of Flanders, born March 24, 1837. 3. Mary Charlotte Amelia, born June 7, 1840.

NETHERLANDS OR HOLLAND.

This kingdom was a part of the country which was inhabited by the Batavi: it is usually called Holland, from the name of the chief province, the word implying a hollow or low country.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 150	between	51. 20′ and 53. 30. N. lat.
Breadth, 120	between	3. 30. and 7. 0. E. long.

Containing 11,000 square miles, with nearly 300 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.—It is bounded, on the north and west, by the German Ocean and the Zuyder Zee; on the east by Germany; and on the south by Belgium.

Divisions.—The United Provinces, as they were formerly called, were, in strictness of speech, eight, namely, Holland, Over-Yssel, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Groningen, Guelderland and Zutphen; but, the two last forming only one province, they were generally termed the Seven United Provinces. Beside these, the Dutch republic contained the county of Drenthe, a kind of separate province in Over-Yssel, which had no share in the government; and what was called the Land of the Generality, or Dutch Brabant, Dutch Flanders, and the part of Limburg which belonged to the republic. It is now divided into twelve provinces; viz., Northern Brabant, Guelderland, North Holland, South Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Friesland, Over-Yssel, Groningen, *Drenthe, Dutch* Limburg, and Dutch Luxemburg. From the last of these provinces the king of the Netherlands bears the title of Grand Duke of Luxemburg, and, in that quality, is a member of the Germanic Confederation.

Face of the Country.—Holland is situate on the east side of the North or German Sea, and is little more than a narrow slip of low swampy land between the mouths of several great rivers, gained from the waves by means of stupendous dikes. On the west side it is protected from inundation by a triple range of sand hills of some height, and of a barren aspect, which the ocean itself has thrown up in the course of ages. Here are no mountains or rising grounds, no plantations, purling streams, or cataracts. The whole face of the country, when viewed from a tower or steeple, has the appearance of a continued marsh or bog, drained at certain distances by innumerable ditches; and many of the canals, which in that country serve as high roads, are in the summer months highly offensive.

Rivers, Lakes, Canals, &c.—The chief rivers of Holland are the Rhine, (one of the largest rivers in Europe,) the Maes, the Dummel, the Waal, the Yssel, and the Schelde. There are many small rivers that fall into these. That branch of the Rhine which alone retains the name, was long useless, being blocked up by, and lost in, the sand; but, after three years' labour, it was opened in 1807.

The principal lake of Holland is that of Haarlem, for the draining of a large part of which operations are in progress. Less consi-

tes are found in North Holland, in Groningen, and Over-Yssel.
ls of these provinces are almost in-

The usual way of passing from rn is by covered boats, called treck-ich are dragged along the canals by a slow uniform trot, so that passen- the different towns where they are ecisely at the appointed instant of i method of travelling, though to ather dull, is extremely convenient ibitants. By means of these canals ve inland commerce is not only but, as they communicate with the other large rivers, the productions untry are conveyed at a small ex- various parts of Germany and Flan- eck-schuit is divided into two apart- ed the roof and the ruin; the former men and the latter for common ar Amsterdam and other large cities, is astonished when he beholds the an extensive and flourishing com- ere the canals are lined with neat uses, seated in the midst of gardens re-grounds, intermixed with figures, ies, temples, &c., to the very edge of Foremost among all the Dutch canals of the Helder, which extends from Diep to Amsterdam, a distance of id cost £1,000,000 sterling. Like the e it is a work which would be worthy ans. It is 120 feet wide, 24 feet deep, ks will admit a 74-gun ship to pass. re planted with lime-trees. A rail- een completed from Amsterdam to nd is to be continued to Rotterdam.

—Minerals. — Holland produces tals nor minerals, except a little i Over-Yssel and Guelderland; nor nineral waters.

—Soil—Agriculture.—The air of Provinces is foggy and gross, until ed by the frost in winter, when the sually sets in for about four months, rbours are frozen up. The moisture auses metals to rust, and wood to e than in any other country, which f reason of the perpetual rubbing ig, and of the brightness and clean- e houses. The soil is unfavourable om; but, by the industry of the in- n making canals, it is rendered fit , and in many places for tillage.

LES—Animals.—The quantity of aced here is not sufficient for home m; but, by draining the bogs and he Dutch have formed many ex- adows, which fatten lean German cattle to a vast size; and they make quantities of the best butter and Europe. Their country produces r, tobacco, some fruit, and a little ll the pit-coal and timber used there, l, most of the comforts, and even e necessaries of life, are imported. They have a good breed of sheep, whose wool is highly valued; and their horses and horned cattle are of a larger size than in any other European state. Storks build and hatch on their chimneys; but, being birds of passage, they leave the country about the middle of August, with their young, and return in the January following. To kill one of them is looked upon as a crime. Their river-fish are much the same as ours; but their sea-fish are generally larger, in consequence perhaps of their fishing in deep water. No herrings visit their coasts; but they have many excellent oyster-beds about the islands of the Texel. Notwithstanding all the inconveniences, the industry of the Hollanders furnishes as great a plenty of the necessaries and commodities of life, and upon as easy terms (except to strangers) as can be met with in any part of Europe.

Curiosities.—Holland, like Belgium, presents none of the vast and grand scenery of nature. The numerous canals with which the country is intersected may be considered as interesting to the curiosity of the traveller; and the prodigious dikes (some of which are said to be 17 ells in thickness) mounds, and canals, constructed by the Dutch, to preserve their country from those dreadful inundations by which it formerly suffered so much, are works equally stupendous and singular. Among the most wonderful of these is the Helder-dike. As this part of the coast is particularly exposed to the fury of the waves, uncommon strength is required to withstand it. The Helder-dike, which is two leagues long, is accordingly composed of vast blocks of granite, brought from Norway. At the summit, along which it has a good road, it has a breadth of 40 feet, and it descends into the sea by a slope of 200 feet, at an angle of 40 degrees. At certain distances massy broad and high buttresses project into the sea for several hundred yards. The stadt-house of Amsterdam is one of the best buildings of that kind in the world: it stands upon 13,659 large piles, driven into the ground; and the inside is both commodious and magnificent. Several museums, containing antiquities and curiosities, artificial and natural, are to be found in Holland and the other provinces, particularly in the university of Leyden.

Population.—The Seven United Provinces are apparently the best peopled of any spot of the same extent in the world. They contained, in 1785, according to a public account then given, 113 cities and towns, 1400 villages, and 2,758,632 inhabitants, beside the people in the Lands of the Generality; but this estimate was probably exaggerated. At present the kingdom of the Netherlands has a population of about 3,100,000 souls.

National Character, Manners, and Customs.—The manners, habits, and even the minds of the Dutch, seem to be formed by their situation, and to arise from their natural wants. Their country, which is preserved by mounds *and dikes*, is a perpetual incentive to labour;

and the artificial drains, with which it is intersected, must be kept in perpetual repair. Even what may be called their natural commodities, their butter and cheese, are produced by a constant attention to the laborious parts of life. Their principal food they may be said to earn out of the sea, by their herring fisheries. The air and temperature of their climate incline them to phlegmatic, slow dispositions, both of body and mind; and yet they are irascible, especially if heated with liquor. Even their virtues seem to originate in their coolness with regard to every object that does not immediately concern their own interests; for, in all other respects, they are quiet neighbours, and peaceable subjects. Their valour becomes warm and active, when they believe their interests to be at stake; witness their naval wars with England and France. Their boors are slow of understanding, but are manageable by fair means. Their seamen are plain, blunt, rough, and surly. Their tradesmen in general are upright and honest in their dealings, and very sparing of their words; and, as they are generally plodding upon ways and means of getting money, no people are so unsocial. In consequence of their want of feeling for strangers, and their inherent selfishness, they have been known to exercise the most dreadful inhumanities for interest abroad, where they thought themselves free from discovery; but they are in general quiet and inoffensive in their own country, which exhibits few instances of murder, rapine, or violence. As to the habitual drinking charged upon both sexes, it may be attributed, in a great measure, to the nature of their soil and climate. In general, all appetites and passions seem to run lower and cooler among the Dutch than in most other countries, that of the love of accumulation excepted.

In whatever relates to the management of pecuniary affairs, the Dutch are certainly the most expert of any people; for, to the knowledge of acquiring wealth, they unite the no less necessary science of preserving it. It is a kind of general rule for every man to spend less than his income; for it does not often enter into the heads of this sagacious people, that the common course of expense should equal the revenue; and when this happens, they think, at least, they have lived that year to no purpose; the mere report of it discredits a man among them, as much as any vicious or prodigal extravagance does in other countries. But this rigid frugality is not so invariable among the Dutch as it was formerly; for luxury and extravagance have made some encroachments. Gaming is practised by many of their fashionable ladies; and some of them even discover a propensity to gallantry. No country can vie with Holland in the number of those inhabitants whose lot, if not riches, is at least a comfortable sufficiency; and nowhere do *fewer failures* or bankruptcies occur. Hence, *in the midst of* heavy taxes and numerous contributions, many of them flourish and grow rich. By this systematic spirit of regularity and moderation, joined to the most obstinate perseverance, they succeeded in the stupendous task of draining their country of those immense deluges of water, which had overflowed so large a part of it during many ages; while, at the same time, they brought under their subjection and command the rivers and seas that surround them, by dikes of incredible thickness and strength, and made them the principal bulwarks on which to rely, for the protection and safety of their territories against invasion. They covered their frontiers and cities with innumerable sluices; by means of which, at the shortest notice, the most rapid inundations were let in, and they seemed to be inaccessible. Yet their attempts of this kind did not prevent the temporary subjugation of their capital by the duke of Brunswick, or preclude the success of the French. In both cases, indeed, a very strong party favoured the invaders, and checked the zeal of defensive exertion; and, in the latter, the rigour of winter rendered vulnerable their watery barriers.

By that frugality and perseverance by which they were so much characterized, the Dutch were enabled, also, though labouring under the greatest difficulties, not only to throw off the Spanish yoke, but to attack that powerful nation in the most tender parts, by seizing her rich galleons, and forming new establishments in Africa, and the East and West Indies, at the expense of Spain, and to become, from a despicable province, a most potent and formidable enemy. Equally wonderful was the rise of their military and marine establishments; maintaining, during their celebrated contest with Louis XIV. and Charles II., not less than 150,000 men, and 80 ships of the line. But, a spirit of frugality being now less prevalent among them, the rich traders and mechanics begin to approximate to the luxuries of the English and the French; and their nobility and high magistrates, who have retired from trade, rival those of any other part of Europe in the elegancies of the table, in their buildings, furniture, and equipages.

The diversions of the Dutch differ not much from those of the English, who seem to have borrowed from them the neatness of their drinking-booths, nine-pin grounds, and bowling-greens, not to mention their hand-organs and other musical inventions. They are the best skaters in the world. It is amazing to see the crowds in a hard frost upon the ice, and the great dexterity both of men and women in darting along, or rather flying, with inconceivable velocity. The most permanent amusement of a Hollander is smoking. His pipe and tobacco-box are his constant companions. The English (except the higher ranks) are also too fond of this disgusting practice.

The dress of the Dutch formerly was noted for the large breeches of the men, and the jerkins, mob-caps, enormous hats, short petti-

other oddities of the women; all
led to the natural thickness and
of their persons, gave them a very
ppearance. These dresses now pre-
among the lower ranks, and more
r among the seafaring people. In
persons of the middle class differ
in their dress from the English,
t their clothes are of a coarser
e men, in their persons, are short
and the women (which is certainly
e in England) are in general taller
en, and not remarkable for elegant
ve features. Some have attributed
ad fishy face, which is noticed with
y strangers, to the preposterous
of infants, who are swathed and in
verwhelmed with clothing, and de-
e benefit of fresh air. The domestic
he women are topics of great praise;
manners are less repulsive than
e men. Their great attention to
is a pleasing trait in their charac-
t is more studiously bestowed upon
s than their persons. The practice
chauffe-pied under their petticoats
d to the purpose of neatness; nor is
ly necessary for the communication
rmth which might be obtained with
in a less indelicate mode.

-Chief Towns—Edifices.—Amstuated at the confux of the Amstel, of gulph called the Y or Wye, was ice of only a few fishermen at the of the 13th century; but it became ial town about the year 1370, from e it gradually rose to importance alence. Its form is semicircular; umference is about nine miles. Be- the midst of a morass, almost the stands upon oaken piles, fixed with r in the mud or humid earth. Under ouse alone there are 14,000. It is a wn; but the works are not remark- g. Most of the streets are inter- canals, and adorned with rows of fine squares, like those of Brussels, able; but some of the streets are furnished with stately mansions. buildings most worthy of notice, stadthouse, are those of the East India Companies, the exchange, the post-office, the arsenal, the admi- orphan-house, and those churches particularly called the old and the e are literary societies that are well and an astonishing number of cha- itutions, which are under judicious at. Many theatres are occasionally neral entertainment. For permit- amusements, the magistrates may ught to deserve blame; but, when t they also regularly license houses , we are disposed to censure this erals. The population of this city ,000.

The Hague, the capital of South Holland, was long the seat of government, though it was only considered as a village, being neither walled, nor indulged with the privilege of sending deputies to the states. It is still the royal residence, and place of meeting for the legislature. The magnificence of some of its buildings, the elegance of others, and the neatness of the greater part, are noticed by every visitant. The streets are long and wide, and handsome squares vary the scene. The Voorhout and the Vyverberg are the finest parts of the city. In the vicinity is the palace called the House in the Wood. In 1837 the population was 54,000; and it has been remarked, that they more resemble the English in their appearance and manners, than any other portion of the Dutch community.

Rotterdam, next to Amsterdam, is the most flourishing commercial town in Holland. It stands near the confluence of the Rotte with the Maes; and, in consequence of the depth of its canals, the largest vessels may closely approach the warehouses. The prevalent style of Dutch building is more particularly observable in this town. The houses are very lofty, with projecting stories: the walls are composed of very small bricks, and the windows are exceedingly large. A number of mills for sawing timber, and other purposes, rising from the summits of various buildings, some whimsically painted, and others adorned with grotesque figures, have an extraordinary appearance. The finest street is the Boom-quay, so called from the rows of trees with which it is planted, extending about a mile along a branch of the Maes. The exchange is a larger and finer edifice than that of Amsterdam. This city was dignified by the birth of Erasmus, and is honoured by the institution of a scientific academy, a public library, and other useful institutions. Its population, in 1840, was 78,098.

Utrecht is a large, handsome, and populous town, pleasantly situated on one of the channels of the Rhine. It was formerly the see of an archbishop; and the ruins of its cathedral, which structure was destroyed by a storm in 1674, exhibit an admired specimen of ancient magnificence. The tower, 338 feet high, is still standing; and from its summit twenty large towns are visible. From the cloisters of that edifice are formed the lecture-rooms of the university. The city is occupied by 44,000 persons, many of whom are employed in various branches of manufacture. It was at Utrecht that the act of confederation was signed in 1579.

Leyden, celebrated for the siege it endured, and for the university which had its origin in that siege, is situated on that branch of the Rhine which retains its primitive name, and has 35,000 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in the woollen manufacture. The university maintains a high reputation; and the *scientific collections* in the city are choice

and numerous. The museum of natural history is one of the richest in Europe; the Japanese and Egyptian museums are scarcely inferior, and the botanic garden is extensive, and admirably kept and arranged.

Haarlem, which has 22,000 inhabitants, is chiefly remarkable for its glorious defence against the Spaniards; its astonishing organ in the great church of St. Bavon; and its hyacinths, tulips, and other flowers, which furnish a supply to a great part of Europe. The organ contains nearly 5000 pipes, and its powers are of the most varied and entrancing kind. In size it is itself an edifice—a stupendous pile of musical architecture, filling the whole of one end of the church, and reaching up to the roof, being supported on porphyry pillars. In the neighbourhood of Haarlem there are many cotton factories and bleaching grounds; and about a mile from the town are the enormous flood-gates which keep open a passage for the Rhine to the sea.

Maestricht, the capital of Limburg, situated on the Maes, is a strong fortress, and contains about 22,000 inhabitants. With Roermonde and Venloo, it forms, in this quarter, the Dutch military frontier. It has several manufactories, breweries, and distilleries. The quarries under the Petersburg mountain are worthy of notice. They form a perfect labyrinth, 12 miles in length, and 4 in breadth, of which a very large part is seldom explored; there being the greatest danger that the explorer will be lost in them. The passages are said to be 20,000 in number, and they cross each other in all directions. Numerous fossil remains are found here.

Luxemburg, an almost impregnable fortress, the capital of the grand duchy, has about 11,500 inhabitants. "The traveller from the side of Brussels comes upon it unawares, so completely is it wedged in between high escarped rocks on the margin of the Alzette. On entering from the German side, it is difficult to comprehend how these are to be surmounted, or the drawbridges reached, which appear to hang suspended in the air. The communication between the upper and lower towns is by flights of steps, and by streets carried up in zigzags, so as to be passable for a carriage."

COMMERCE—MANUFACTURES.—An account of the commerce of the Dutch, previous to the French Revolution, would have comprehended that of almost all Europe. There is scarcely a manufacture that they did not carry on, or a state with which they did not trade. In this they were assisted by the populousness of their country, the cheapness of their labour, and, above all, by their water-carriage, which, by means of their canals, gives them advantages beyond most other nations. The United Provinces were the grand magazine of Europe; and commodities might sometimes be purchased here cheaper than in the countries where they *grow.* The India Company had the monopoly of the most valuable spices, an last war with Great Britain, w opulent and powerful.

Even at the present time, th manufactures of the Dutch are v able. Wool, linen, silk, and cottor with silk into various articles ornament; refining of sugar, and of bleaching, are carried on with cess; spirits, porcelain, paper, h vermilion and ceruse of a very lity, and a multiplicity of other are made for exportation. Beside the products of the colonies are s every country in Europe: the carr still prosecuted to advantage; and of exchange is more extensively c the merchants of Amsterdam, tha any other continental city.

PUBLIC TRADING COMPANIES.—principal was the East India Comp rated in 1602. By the channel blishment, the Dutch formerly mense wealth, and divided 40 p sometimes 60 per cent., about the 124 years, the proprietors, one ye ther, shared 24 per cent. In 1760, 15 per cent., while the West Ind which was incorporated in 1621 more than 2½ per cent. The East pany was suppressed after the R 1795, and the trade thrown open. Amsterdam, which was establishec thought to be inexhaustibly rich, a an excellent direction. Sir Will said, that it contained the greate either real or imaginary, that was where in the world. What may dox is, that this bank was so far fror interest, that the money in it was than the current cash is in commo Mr. Anderson supposes, that the c and pawned jewels in this bank, kept in the vaults of the stadt-hous to £30,000,000 (others say) £36,000. If this treasure had existed in the French invaders would have quickl it; but it is said that scarcely an it were then found, as the value had been lent out at different times of bonds, which were preserved in subtracted treasure. In 1814, the Netherlands was established in it the model of the Bank of England.

CONSTITUTION — GOVERNMENT Before the French entered Holland Provinces formed a federal union; l American states, each province had government or constitution indepe others. Each had its states, or repr and the delegates from them forme general, in which body the soverei whole confederacy was vested. Th state consisted likewise of deputi several provinces, and it was c twelve persons. Guelderland sent

ee; Zealand, two; Utrecht, two; Fries- e; Over-Yssel, one; and Groningen, ese deputies did not vote provincially, nally. Their business was to prepare s, and ways and means for raising the as well as other matters that were to tted to the states-general. The states ovinces were styled Noble and Mighty nt those of Holland, Noble and Most Lords; and the states-general, High hty Lords, or the Lords of the States- of the United Netherlands, or their ightinesses. These two bodies had em a financial chamber, composed of il deputies, who audited the national . The admiralty formed a separate nd the executive part of it was com- five colleges in the three maritime s of Holland, Zealand, and Friseland. nd the people had no concern either oice of their representatives or their ites. At Amsterdam, which took the the public deliberations, the magis- is lodged in thirty-six senators, who een for life; and every vacancy was by the survivors. The same senate ted the deputies to represent the cities ovince of Holland.

particulars are mentioned, because, a knowledge of them, it is impossible stand the history of the United Pro- rom the death of King William to the , when the stadtholdership was made y in the male and female representa- the family of Orange. This office in a superseded the constitution already d. The stadtholder was president of es of every province; and as, by his al influence, he could change the depu- istrates, and officers, in every province he moulded at his will the assembly tates-general, though he had no voice short, though he had not the title, he e real power than some kings; for, he influence and revenue which he rom the stadtholdership, he had seve- ipalities and large estates. The stadt- whom the French expelled in 1795, never recovered his power, was Wil- prince of Orange and Nassau, son of Charles, who married Anne, princess Great Britain, and died in 1761. h Holland under this constitution was republic, its government was far from the popular kind; nor did the people at degree of liberty which might at be supposed. It was indeed rather rchy than a commonwealth. Very ons dared to speak their real senti- ently; and the citizens were generally in principles so extremely cautious, could not relinquish them when they more into public life.

conquest of Holland by the French, tion was assembled to administer the ent, and frame a constitution for the new Batavian republic. The first plan presented for this purpose was rejected by the people in the primary assemblies; but another was afterwards drawn up, which was accepted. This constitution was changed in several particulars in 1798; and the republic was then governed by a directory of twelve members, the president of which was changed once in three months, and of which one member went out annually; and by a legislative body of thirty-five members, which assembled twice or more frequently in the year, and appointed a committee of twelve of its members to examine and report on the laws and regulations proposed by the directory.

In the year 1806, it pleased Napoleon to erect Holland into a regal government, giving to it a king in the person of his brother, Louis Bonaparte. By the new constitution, then introduced, the king was to possess the complete exercise of the executive government, and all the power necessary to carry the laws into effect. A legislative body of thirty-eight members, however, and a council of thirteen, were at the same time organized; and with these the ministers were required to deliberate. But, as this form of government quickly passed away, it does not demand farther notice.

As the king of Holland was more disposed to favour the people than his imperious brother wished, he was dethroned in 1810 by an imperial order; and the whole country was more fully subjected to France by a regular incorporation. When this close connexion had subsisted for three years, it was dissolved by the victory of Leipsic; and an early result of the restoration of the House of Orange was the grant of a new constitution. By this compact, the sovereign shares the legislative authority with the two chambers, which constitute the states-general, and is assisted in the exercise of his functions by a council of state, and responsible ministers. The members of the first chamber are nominated for life by him, and chosen from among the most eminent persons; the members of the second chamber are elected for three years, by the provincial states. Each province has its provincial states, intrusted with the care of its interests, the members of which are elected by the nobles, the towns, and the villages. Each town has an electoral college, to appoint the municipal magistrates. The crown is made hereditary, to both sexes, in the ducal House of Nassau Orange; the prince royal has the title of Prince of Orange. One remarkable circumstance in the Dutch constitution is, that the budget is voted for ten years, though the states-general meet annually, and that the members of the states receive, besides their travelling expenses, a salary of about £250 for those of the first chamber, and of half that sum for those of the second chamber. Every citizen, who has attained the age of thirty, is eligible to the second chamber, but can be chosen only by *the province in* which he resides.

With respect to the administration of justice in this country, every province has its tribunal, to which, except in criminal causes, appeals lie from the petty and county courts; and it is said that justice is nowhere distributed with greater impartiality.

REVENUE.—The old government of the United Provinces proportioned the taxes according to the abilities of each province or city. Those imposts consisted of an almost general excise, a land-tax, poll-tax, and hearth-money; so that the public revenue amounted annually to about £3,500,000 sterling. The province of Holland paid nearly half of this revenue. The following ratio of contribution will serve to show the opinion entertained by the ruling power, before the French Revolution, of the comparative opulence of each province:—

Of every million of ducats—

Holland contributed. . . .	420,000
Zealand	130,000
Friesland	170,000
Utrecht	85,000
Groningen	75,000
Gelderland	70,000
Over-Yssel	50,000

Of the 420,000 ducats paid by the chief province, Amsterdam furnished 320,000. The taxes in these provinces were then so heavy, and so numerous, that, according to the remark of a sarcastic author, the only thing exempt from taxation was the air, which the people were graciously allowed to breathe. But, for the encouragement of trade, the duties on goods and merchandise have usually been low.

The poverty occasioned by the ruin or great decline of the Dutch trade, in consequence of the war with Great Britain, and of Napoleon's continental system, greatly diminished the revenues of the country. The revenue for the year 1841 was estimated at about £5,300,000; the expenditure at a trifle less. Holland is burdened with an enormous debt, a part of which, however, by the treaty of 1839, is to be paid by Belgium.

ARMY—NAVY.—During the contest with Belgium, the Dutch army was increased to a formidable magnitude; but it has been since reduced, and appears now to consist of about 27,000 men.

The navy of Holland, after the death of the stadtholder, King William III., was much neglected. In 1784, it consisted of 40 ships of the line, 43 frigates, and 11 sloops; but the two wars in which the Dutch were involved with Great Britain, after the French Revolution, contributed in their effects to the ruin of the marine. In 1841 the Dutch navy consisted of 63 sail; of which 11 were of the line, and 32 frigates.

RELIGION.—When the French had extended their influence over Holland, in 1795, the new republic declared that no religion was established or paid by the state. Before that time, the general religion of the country was the *Calvinistic system*; and none but Presbyterians obtained any office or post vernment; yet all sects were tole had their respective meetings or for public worship. And, indeed, th may be considered as a striking the benefits arising to a nation from toleration. As every man is allowed God according to the dictates of his science, persons of the most opposit live together in the most perfect hai peace. No man in Holland has any complain of being oppressed on acc religious principles; nor can he have by advancing his religion, to form to break in upon the government; fore, the people live together as citiz world; their differences in opinion in affection, and they are associat common ties of humanity and bond under the protection of the laws of with equal encouragement to arts an and equal freedom of speculation an In 1837 the relative proportion of the estimated at 1,700,000 Calvinists; 3 therans; 120,000 Mennonistes; 40,0 strants, or Armenians: 2500 Anabapti of various other Christian sects; 280,(Catholics; and 50,000 Jews.

LITERATURE.—Erasmus and Gro were both natives of this country, sta at the head of modern learning. disputes the invention of printing Germans, and the magistrates keep of a book, entitled "Speculum Sa printed by Koster, in 1440; and the gant editions of the classics, in the tury, came from the presses of A Rotterdam, Utrecht, Leyden, and otl The Dutch have excelled in cor divinity, which insinuated itself so the state, that, before principles of toleration prevailed, it had almost p to the government. Witness the violer about Arminianism, predestination, doctrines. Beside Boerhaave, Ho produced excellent writers in all br medicine; and natural philosophy indebted to Swammerdam and Leeu Grævius, Gronovius, both the father and Burman, are celebrated com upon the classics. Holland has also of no mean merit, both formerly and times. Of the elder poets, Cats, Vo Vandergoes are the most admired. the modern bards may be named the rens, Bellamy, Bilderdijk, and Kink a common but a great mistake to sup Dutch literature is contemptible in branches.

UNIVERSITIES.—These are Leyden and Groningen. There are royal sch the great towns, and parish and schools abound. No one can establis without a licence, and undergoing nation as to competency for teachin are four classes of licences, and the

licences is not permitted to teach in ranch than that for which he has ned.

ersity of Leyden, which was founded he largest and most ancient in all provinces. Beside a great number books, its library contains above l manuscripts.

ersity of Utrecht was changed from to a university, in 1636; but it has privileges of the other universities, ly subject to the magistrates of the botanic garden belonging to it is s; and, for the recreation of the n the east side of the city is a all, consisting of seven straight thousand paces in length, regularly h limes. To these seminaries many of rank, or sons of opulent traders, m other European countries; and f example is strikingly exhibited; dity in expense, order, a composed ttention to study, and assiduity in re the characteristics of the natives, ho continue amongst them soon not perhaps permanently, their d form of living; and though the e at their discretion, and study as little as they think fit, yet they are remarkable for their sobriety and rs, and the diligence and success they apply themselves to their oaths are imposed, nor any relli- so that Roman Catholic parents, rs, send their children hither with ple as Protestants.

s.—The Dutch language is a dialect n; but the gentry speak also Eng- ch. The Lord's Prayer runs thus:— der, die in de hemlim zyn, uwen geheyligt: uw'koningkryk kome: schiede gelyck in den hemel zoo arden: ons dagelicks broot geef ende vergeeft onse schulden, gelyk reeven onse schuldenaaren: ende liet in versoeckinge, maer vertast oosen. Amen."

rs.—Holland contains few anti- ar Catwyck is a ruinous Roman n the middle of Leyden is an arti-

political leaders in Holland, who had deprived the prince of Orange of the dignity of stadtholder, such was the spirit of the people, that they revived it in the person of the prince, who was afterwards William III. king of Great Britain; and during his reign, and that of Queen Anne, they were among the principals in the grand confederacy against Louis XIV. of France. They consequently shared the reputation and glory of the great victories which were obtained by the duke of Marlborough; though their interference with the operations of the duke was often highly injudicious and injurious; and, in concert with that fortunate general, they would have assisted in humbling Louis more effectually, if the career of success had not been checked by the intrigues of the queen's tory ministers. As a continuance of the war, however, without the assistance of Great Britain, seemed to be a hopeless task, the states-general were content to yield. Anne complimented them by fixing upon their city of Utrecht for the place of ostensible negotiation, while the substance of the treaty was settled without their advice or interference. To their barrier such additions were made as gave them, when coupled with the former grant, the power of garrisoning the principal towns in the Austrian Netherlands; and they reverted to a state of peace, in which they long continued. In 1718, they joined the king of Great Britain and other princes in a league against Spain; but they rather gave their name than any effective strength to the confederacy. They concurred with George II. in the alliance which accompanied the treaty of Seville; but, when that prince unnecessarily embarked in the continental war, in 1742, they did not think themselves bound to co-operate with him, alleging that he had not been attacked. As their commerce flourished during the war, they wished to secure the advantages of neutrality: yet, when their barrier was seriously endangered, they complied with the king's importunate solicitations, and sent their troops into the field. In this contest they did not sustain their ancient reputation. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, they saved their barrier: and their joy at the return of peace may easily be conceived. When a new war broke out, in 1755,

every conquest except their oriental settlement of Negapatam. In the following year, a dispute occurred between the states and the emperor Joseph, on account of a design he had entertained of opening the Scheldt for the benefit of his Netherland provinces; and preparations for war were made on both sides; but France and Prussia interposed as negotiators, and succeeded in effecting a reconciliation.

A republican spirit at this time prevailed in the provinces. Encouraged by the success of his American friends, Van Berkel resolved to make such attacks upon the authority of the prince of Orange, as would, if successful, turn the scale of power in favour of republicanism. He accused the stadtholder of having injured the interest of his country, by favouring the English in the late war; and also imputed to him the most arbitrary views and intentions. The prince's friends, on the other hand, inveighed against the unconstitutional views and dangerous designs of the pensionary and his associates; and, in 1786, hostilities arose from the animosity of the two parties. The neighbouring powers did not view this contest with indifference. Louis XVI., according to the usual policy of the French court, promised to assist the stadtholder's adversaries; while Great Britain and Prussia expressed their readiness to support the prince against all the encroachments of faction. By the contrivance of the English ambassador, the princess of Orange, who was the sister of the Prussian monarch, was stopped in a journey by a party of republicans; and this trifling insult served to accelerate the determination of that prince, who, having in vain demanded a satisfactory apology, sent 18,000 men to assault the Dutch capital. The zeal of Louis being cooled by the consideration of his pecuniary embarrassments, no troops were sent from France into Holland; and the Prussians, therefore, found little difficulty in overpowering the prince's opponents, who, trusting to the arrival of a French army, did not make those defensive dispositions which the crisis required. Amsterdam was quickly taken; Van Berkel and his chief friends were incapacitated from all public functions; and the stadtholder was gratified with new prerogatives.

The resentment which the defeated party felt on this occasion, tended to facilitate to the French the task of subduing the country. Of the rapid success of the revolutionary arms, in 1795, the reader has been already informed. The vassalage of the Batavian republic under its arrogant conquerors, continued to the peace of Amiens; and, after a short interval of independence, its subjection was renewed in 1803. Even the royal title, with which it was for some years outwardly honoured by its Gallic masters, did not confer dignity on a servile nation. This oppressed community, however, found, in the course of events, an opportunity of emerging from thraldom. What ensued on the downfall of Napoleon has already been told.

During the fifteen years which elapsed between the uniting of the two countries and the breaking out of the Belgic Revolution, the history of Holland is identical with that of Belgium. Since the conclusion of peace, scarcely an event has occurred which requires to be recorded. To the conflicts which have, at various times, taken place between the Dutch troops and the irritated natives of Java and Sumatra, it will be sufficient to allude. The sovereign, whose mismanagement and pertinacious refusal to recognize the independence of his liberated southern subjects have been described under the head of "Belgium," has ceased to reign, though not to exist. Weary of the cares of state, or induced by the declining affection of the Hollanders, he voluntarily abdicated the throne on the 7th of October, 1840, and was succeeded by the prince of Orange, his son.

William II. (Frederic George Louis) king of the Netherlands, grand duke of Luxembourg, duke of Limburg, and prince of Nassau Orange, was born December 6, 1792; married, February 21, 1816, to Anna Paulowna, daughter of the emperor Paul of Russia, by whom he has issue, 1. William Paul Frederic Louis, born February 19, 1817; who married, in 1837, Sophia Frederica Matilda, daughter of the king of Wurtemburg. 2. William Alexander Frederic Constantine Nicholas Michael, born August 2, 1818. 3. William Frederic Henry, born June 13, 1820. 4. Wilhelmina Maria Sophia Louisa, born April 8, 1824.

GERMANY.

A LARGE portion of modern Germany was situated in the northern and north-eastern parts of ancient Gaul. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the name: the most probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger-Man*, which, in the Teutonic language, signifies a warlike man. The Germans were called by various other names, such as Allemanni, Teutones; which last appears to have been their most ancient designation; and even the present natives call their country Teutschland.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 650	between	45½ and 58. N. lat.
Breadth, 530	between	6. and 20. E. long.

Containing about 284,000 square miles, with about 140 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.—Germany is bounded on the

orth by the German Ocean, Denmark, and he Baltic; on the east by Prussia Proper, alitzia, and Hungary; on the south by the driatic Sea, Italy, and Switzerland; and on he west by the kingdom of the Netherlands nd France.

Divisions.—Germany was formerly divided nto Upper or Southern, and Lower or Northern. Maximilian I. divided it into ten circles; and his division was confirmed by the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy (or the seventeen provinces of the Low Countries) being afterwards detached from the empire, we must confine ourselves to nine of those divisions. Of these, three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the south. The first are those of Upper and Lower Saxony, and Westphalia. The middle circles are the Upper and Lower Rhine, and Franconia; and those of the south are Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria. As, notwithstanding the new arrangements of the German confederacy, these circles still serve for geographical divisions, we shall here retain them: but, as a specification of every petty state or principality would be very unnecessary, it will be sufficient to enumerate those which were thought worthy of distinct notice in the acts of the congress of Vienna.

The circle of Upper Saxony contains 31,500 square miles, and is chiefly divided between the kings of Prussia and Saxony. To reward the anti-Gallican zeal displayed by the former potentate, the congress transferred to him the duchy of Saxony (properly so called,) the two divisions of Lusatia, and the county of Henneberg (in the circle of Franconia,) out of the spoils of the latter prince, whose apparent attachment to Napoleon had excited the displeasure of the allies, and whose kingdom was therefore reduced to the margravate of Meissen and other territories, extending from Leipsic to the frontiers of Bohemia. To the grand duke of Weimar and the dukes of Saxe-Gotha, Coburg, Meinungen, and Hildburghausen, their former territories were allowed, with small additions to some of them, under the general appellation of the Saxon principality. Other princes, who have votes in the new diet, and whose territories are in this circle, are those of Anhalt Dessau, Bernburg, and Cœthen, the two princes of Schwartzburg, and two of the Reuss family.

Lower Saxony comprehends 17,950 square miles, and includes the kingdom of Hanover, the duchies of Holstein, Brunswick Wolffenbuttel, Mecklenburg Schwerin, and Strelitz, the free cities of Hamburgh, Lubeck, and Bremen, with the principality of Halberstadt, and other Prussian territories.

In the circle of Westphalia, which embraces an extent of 22,350 square miles, the duchy of Cleves, the county of Mark, the former bishoprics of Munster and Paderborn, the grand duchy of Berg, and other considerable tracts, belong to the king of Prussia, whose subjects in these provinces are computed at 500,000. East Friesland, which is now a Hanoverian dependency, the principality of Osnabruck, and the duchy of Oldenburg, are also in this circle; and the duke of Nassau, and two princes of the Lippe family, derive from their Westphalian possessions the privilege of voting.

The circles of the Upper and Lower Rhine contain, respectively, 8500 and 7600 square miles. In the former division we find the dominions of the Hessian princes, one of whom, during the sway of Napoleon, enjoyed the title of elector of Hesse Cassel; also those of the Nassau family, the principality of Waldeck, the free city of Frankfort, and the duchy of Deux Ponts, a recent appendage to Bavaria. To the Lower Rhine belong the late archiepiscopal electorates of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, now possessed by the king of Prussia; and also the palatinate of the Rhine, a dependency partly of Baden, and partly of the Bavarian realm, with which the principality of Aschaffenburg is also incorporated.

The dimensions of Franconia scarcely exceed 8350 square miles. This circle is in a great measure divided between the kings of Bavaria and Prussia. In Swabia, which contains 11,750 square miles, the kingdom of Wurtemberg is comprehended: the grand duchy of Baden is within its boundaries; as are also the territories of the prince of Lichtenstein, and of two princes of the Hohenzollern family, to whom votes in the diet are allowed.

It may readily be supposed, that the greater part of the Bavarian circle appertains to the king. About 17,500 square miles form its admeasurement. The largest circle is that of Austria, to which 44,500 square miles are assigned. It extends from the frontiers of Hungary to the Alpine boundaries of Italy.

Face of the Country.—The southern part of Germany is mountainous and hilly; the northern presents wide sandy plains, with few hills. On the eastern side are the most extended plains, and the greatest chains of mountains.

Mountains.—The Vogesian ridge, commencing in the Sundgau, and extending into the Lower palatinate; the Schwartz-Wald, in Swabia; the Alps, on the borders of Switzerland and Italy; Kalenberg, in Austria; the Erzgebirge, or Mountains of Ore, between Saxony and Bohemia; the Fichtelgebirge, in Franconia; and the Hartz in Lower Saxony, are among the chief mountains of Germany. Many other elevated tracts are to be found in different parts of the empire.

Forests.—The great passion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar is the reason why, perhaps, there are more woods and chases yet existing in Germany than in many other countries. The Hercynian Forest, which in Cæsar's time was nine days' journey in length and six in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or divided into woods, which bear *particular* names. Most of the woods

consist of pine, fir, oak, and beach. There are many forests of less note in every part of this country; almost every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chase or park, adorned with pleasure-houses, and well stocked with deer, (of which there are seven or eight sorts,) hares, foxes, and boars. Some of the woods also abound so much with wild fowl, that in many places the peasants have them, as well as venison, for their ordinary food.

LAKES.—The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention any inferior ones, are those of Constance and Bregentz, which, in fact, are but one. Beside these, are the Chiem-see, or the lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitz or Cirknitz-see, in the duchy of Carniola, whose waters run off, and return, in an irregular and extraordinary manner, at certain periods.

RIVERS, CANALS, AND RAILROADS.—No country can boast a greater variety of rivers than Germany. At their head stands the Danube, or Donau, so called from the swiftness of the current, and the course of which is computed at 1500 miles. It rises at Donauschingen, in Swabia, becomes navigable at Ulm, receives a multitude of streams, (but certainly not 120, as some have asserted,) and discharges itself by five mouths into the Euxine, with such rapidity, that its current is distinguishable in the sea for several miles. Its principal German tributaries are the Lech, the Iller, the Iser, and the Inn. Another great river in Germany is the Rhine, the rise and progress of which will be noticed in the account of Switzerland. The origin of the Elbe is found in the Giant Mountains of Silesia: it is formed by two rivulets, which unite at Gendorff, and it becomes navigable near Melnik. It flows through Bohemia and Saxony, chiefly in a north-west direction, and enters the North Sea near Ritzebuttel. The Weser consists of the united Werra and Fulda, and principally waters the Hanoverian territories. The Oder rises out of a rock in a forest, on the frontiers of Moravia, begins to be navigable at Ratibor, runs through the whole extent of Silesia, also waters Brandenburg and Pomerania, contributes to the formation of the lake of Damm, near Stettin, and pours itself into the Baltic by three channels. The canals and railroads are not yet numerous, but the number of them is rapidly increasing. At present, the principal canals are the Franz, Bega, and Vienna canals; the first uniting the Danube and the Thiess, the second, the Bega with the Temes, and the third forming a communication between Vienna and Neustadt. In Prussia are the canal of Bromberg, which joins the Oder and the Vistula; those of Finow and Plauen, which unite the Havel and the Oder; and that of Frederic William, connecting the Oder with the Spree. A magnificent canal, originally projected by Charlemagne, to link the Danube and the Rhine, is in progress, under the auspices of the Bavarian government.

Railroads have been opened from Dresden to *Leipsic, from* Nuremburg to Furth, from Frankfort to Mentz, from Linz to Budweis, and from Linz to Gemunden. Several other works of the kind are either projected, or actually begun, in various parts of Germany. Among the latter are three undertaken by the Austrian government; from Vienna to Trieste, Vienna by Linz to Salsburg, and Vienna by Prague to Dresden.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.—Germany is said to contain more of these than all Europe beside. The Spa waters, and those of Seltzer and Pyrmont, are well known. Those of Aix-la-Chapelle are still more celebrated. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath; and the springs of both are so hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they use them. The baths and medicinal waters of Ems, Wisbaden, Schwalbach, Schlangenbad, Bruckenau, Kissingen, Toplitz, and Wildungen, are reported to be extremely efficacious in many diseases. The baths of Carlsbad and Baden have been described and recommended by many eminent physicians, and used with great success. A part, however, of the salutary virtue ascribed to these waters, may be attributed to the exercises and amusements of the patients, and the number and variety of the company which crowd to them from all parts of Europe; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for diversion and social enjoyment.

METALS AND MINERALS.—Germany abounds in both. Many parts of this country contain mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, sulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Even mines of gold have been discovered in the circle of Austria. Salt-petre, salt-mines, and salt-pits, are found in Austria, Bavaria, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethysts, jaspers, sapphires, agates, alabasters, several sorts of pearl, turquois stones, and the finest rubies, which adorn the cabinets of the greatest princes and virtuosi. In Bavaria and the Tyrol are quarries of curious marble, slate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen, beside other fossils. Several of the German circles possess coal-pits; and the *terra sigillata* of Mentz, with white, yellow, and red veins, has been pretended to be an antidote against poison. The yearly produce of the German mines is estimated at 1 quintal of gold, 650 of silver, from 2,000,000 to 2,500,000 of iron, 200,000 of lead, 30,000 of copper, 4000 of tin, 2000 of quicksilver and cinnabar, more than 300,000 of zinc and calamine, 5000 of arsenic, and of salt, (from mines and springs,) 3,500,000.

CLIMATE—SOIL—AGRICULTURE.—The climate of Germany, as in all extensive countries, differs greatly, not only on account of the situation to the north, or south, or east, or west, but according to the improvement of the soil, which has a great effect on the climate. The most mild and settled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal distance from the sea and the Alps. In the north it is sharp; toward the south it is more temperate. The seasons vary as much as the soil: in the

ıd western parts they are more
in those that lie near the sea, or
d with lakes and rivers.

Germany is not improved to the
re; and, therefore, in many places
ıd sterile, though in others it is
rtile. A greater attention, how-
iven to agriculture in this country,
mprovements have been made in

KS.—Among the vegetable pro-
Germany are all kinds of grain,
hops, saffron, tobacco, and excel-
fruits. The vine is found to flourish
more than the half of Germany;
t esteemed wines are produced in
f Swabia and the Rhine; and they
ıose of other countries in a pecu-
a, and detersive qualities, more
some diseases than any medicine.
—Germany yields abundance of
avy horses; but the horses, oxen,
are not comparable to those of
obably from the want of skill in
rearing them.

ın wild boars differ in colour from
hogs, and are four times as large.
ınd the hams made of it, are pre-
ny even to those of Westmoreland,
and grain. The glutton of this
colour of which is a beautiful
a faint tinge of red, is said to be
acious of all animals. Its prey is
rthing that has life, which it can
ecially birds, hares, rabbits, goats,
which it surprises artfully, and
greedily, that it falls into a kind of
, and, not being able to move, is
he huntsmen; but, though both
olves will kill it in that condition,
t eat it.

ıs of Germany are remarkable for
ıd a great variety of singing birds,
piping bullfinches, which are sent
of Europe.

IES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.—
akes and waters, the caves and rocks
f natural curiosities of Germany.
-eastern range of the Hartz, about
rom Elbingerode, in Hanover, is a
ch consists of six large chambers
ier one, making together a length
The roofs are hung with stalactites,
f the chambers is a column, which
l sound when it is beaten. The
e great cave bear, an extinct ani-
ɔeen found here. Opposite this
ch is called Baumshöhle, is ano-
Bielashöhle, in which the stalactites
ore beautiful. In Bavaria, near
d, is a similar cavern, which is thus
Dr. Buckland. "The mud which
tom of the cave is covered with
ɔss of thick stalagmite, thrown
side to side, presenting the varied
irregular undulations of *large and* beautiful cascades, suddenly congealed into a mass of transparent alabaster. Large waving streams of this substance are seen descending into the main chamber, from all the lateral avenues by which it is encircled, and contributing, as it were, to swell the stalagmitic lake that occupies its centre. The roof also is clustered over with irregular grotesque forms of exquisite beauty, rivalling the richest combinations of the most complicated Gothic fret-work." Forstershöhle is the name of this cave. Another singular object in Bavaria is the Riesenburg. "I can," says a traveller, "best describe it by calling it a cave with the top taken off, so as to leave two arches standing, forming, as it were, natural bridges over a dell or glen, scooped out on the right side of the valley. As you enter, and look up the broken vault, through which the sky appears, you might fancy it the remains of some vast dome-shaped edifice, a work of art, or, as its name expresses, a giant's castle."

A still more curious sport of nature is the Rock Labyrinth of Adersbach, which is situated on the Silesian frontier of Bohemia. It is an assemblage of masses of sand-stone, extending over a space three miles broad, and six or eight long, separated into fragments of various sizes by openings, gulfs, and fissures. Looking down upon it from a balloon, it would have the appearance of a mass of dried starch, from the number of fissures and cracks; but when the stranger enters and explores it, he might almost fancy himself passing through a vast city, intersected by streets, squares, and lanes. The rocks themselves are not unlike buildings; in many parts their smooth vertical walls are so regular that they seem to have been excavated by art. They often assume the appearance of towers and battlements, sometimes rising in tall slender pillars, and obeliskes; at others taking grotesque forms, to which the common people have given names, from their fancied resemblance to different objects; such as, the Sugar Loaf, an inverted cone in a pool of water; the Watch Tower, the highest of all; the Pulpit, the Emperor's Throne, &c. In number they amount to many thousands, and often rise to a height of several hundred feet. So numerous and intricate are the passages among them, that they form a complete labyrinth, which it would be dangerous to explore without a guide.

In that part of Saxony which is called Saxon Switzerland, the mountains often present a strange appearance. Beyond Pilnitz up to the frontier of Bohemia, "the rocks in the neighbourhood of the Elbe, principally on the right bank," says Dr. Russell, "consisting of a coarse-grained sand-stone, are cut in all directions into frightful gorges, as if the chisel had been used to hew passages through them. They should rather be called lanes, so narrow are they, so deeply sunk, and so smoothly perpendicular do the gigantic walls of rock rise *on both sides*. The walls themselves are cut

vertically into separate masses, by narrow openings, reaching from the summit to the very bottom, as if a cement which once united them had been washed away. These perpendicular masses, again, are divided and grooved horizontally into layers, or apparent layers, like blocks regularly laid upon each other to form the wall. The extremities are seldom sharp or angular, but almost always rounded, betraying the continued action of water. They generally terminate in some singular form. Some have a huge rounded mass reclining on their summit, which appears scarcely broad enough to poise it; others have a more regular mass laid upon them, like the astragal of a Doric pillar; others assume the form of inverted pyramids, increasing in breadth as they shoot higher into the air. Occasionally, they present a still more singular appearance; for, after tapering in a conical form, to a certain elevation, they begin to dilate again as they rise higher, as if an inverted truncated cone were placed on a right truncated cone, resembling exactly, but on an infinitely greater scale, what often occurs in caverns, where the descending stalactite rests on an ascending stalagmite."

The mountain of the Brocken, which is the highest in the Hartz, is remarkable for a curious optical phenomenon. In certain states of the atmosphere, a person who is on the mountain sees opposite to him, at a distance, a gigantic phantom, which moves as he moves, and mimics all his actions. This has given rise, among the country people, to a belief that the mountain is haunted. The figure, however, is nothing more than that of the spectator, reflected against a mass of mist.

The falls of the Traun, in Austria, are remarkable for picturesque beauty. "It is a cataract," says Sir Humphry Davy, "which, when the river is full, may be almost compared with that of Schaffhausen, for magnitude, and possesses the same peculiar characters of grandeur in the precipitous rush of its awful and overpowering waters, and of beauty in the tints of its stream and foam, and in the forms of the rocks over which it falls, and the cliffs and woods by which it is overhung. Though not so elevated as the cascade of Terni, or so large as that of Schaffhausen, yet, from its perfect clearness, and the harmony of the surrounding objects, it ranks high as to picturesque effect among the waterfalls of Europe; and the wonderful transparency of its pale green water gives it a peculiar charm in my eyes."

The small river Zacken, in the Riesengebirge, presents a curious phenomenon. Its waters suddenly disappear at times, and discontinue flowing for several hours; after which they burst forth, and resume their usual level.

With respect to artificial curiosities, the Germans have always accounted, as one of their principal, the great cask at Heidelberg, which holds 800 hogsheads, and, though now empty, was formerly full of the best Rhenish wine, from which strangers were seldom suffered to retire sober. This cask has now lost its pre eminence, by the superiority of the vessels o vats used by some of the brewers of London.

In almost every court of Germany, a cabine of curiosities, artificial and natural, ancien and modern, may be seen. That of Vienna i particularly admired. The city itself, indeed is a curiosity: for here may be seen the greates variety of inhabitants to be met with anywhere as Greeks, Transylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Polanders, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuscripts. It contains 300,000 printed volumes, among which are a great number of rare specimens of early typography; and the manuscripts form 12,000 volumes, including many compositions in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese; but the antiquity of some of the number may be doubted, particularly a New Testament in Greek, said to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple.

Population.—The population of the German empire, before the temporary loss of the territory on the left side of the Rhine, was generally estimated at between 26,000,000 and 27,000,000. By that cession, Germany lost about 3,500,000 inhabitants; but, by the humiliation of the French, and the treaties to which they were constrained to agree, in 1815, the territorial spoils of the empire were restored. During the time of Gallic occupancy, the population suffered from the effect of the conscription; yet it did not seem materially to decline even in those provinces, and it increased so much in the rest of Germany, that, in a document presented to the princes and plenipotentiaries at Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1818, the whole population was computed at a little more than 30,000,000; in which calculation, as in the former, Bohemia and Moravia (but not Hungary and its dependencies) are included. Since that period, however, the population has greatly increased, as will be seen by the following enumeration of the inhabitants of the various states. In the document of 1818, Austria has only 9,482,227 subjects, and Prussia 7,923,439. A similar instance to that which appears as to Austria and Prussia, has taken place in all the other states of the Confederation.

Austria (German possessions alone)	11,404,[illegible]
Prussia (without reckoning the king's share of Poland) . .	11,363,[illegible]
Bavaria	4,370,[illegible]
Saxony	1,7[illegible]
Hanover	1,72[illegible]
Wurtemberg	1,6[illegible]
Baden	1,2[illegible]
Electorate of Hesse	712,[illegible]
Grand Duchy of Hesse	811,[illegible]
Holstein and Lauenburg	471,[illegible]
Luxemburg and Limburg.	[illegible]
Brunswick Wolffenbuttel	251,[illegible]

twerin	494,530
. . . . .	391,651
. . . . .	247,603
ha	139,371
. . . . .	152,640
. . . . .	122,717
elitz	89,528
niphausen . . .	269,347
. . . . .	62,603
. . . . .	46,000
. . . . .	40,153
ndershausen . . .	57,257
idelstadt . . .	66,864
ckingen	21,000
. . . . .	5,880
;maringen . . .	43,305
. . . . .	56,000
branch	30,293
er	73,787
pe	27,600
. . . . .	76,730
. . . . .	24,000
. . . . .	47,000
. . . . .	57,800
h	140,700
. . . . .	64,668
Total	38,935,729

ARACTER — MANNERS — CUSTOMS.

ians in their persons are tall, y framed. The ladies have, mplexions; and some of them, ony, have all the delicacy of ape, so bewitching in some

women used to affect rich men of a higher class were of gold and silver lace, espe- e in the army: but that pom- the decline. The ladies at rts differ not much in their French and English, and at o be as fond of paint as the ne courts they appear in ll of them are loaded with n obtain them. The female iers' families, in many of the ress in a very different man- them in modes which are in- stic; but in this respect they rming. As to the peasants y dress, as in other parts of to their employments, con- cumstances. The most un- e German community are the needy princes, who squeeze their own grandeur; but, in umstances of the common comfortable than those of

re naturally a frank, honest, free from artifice and disguise. rs are ridiculously proud of nd show. The Germans in ght to want animation, as nise more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But, when commanded by able generals, they have performed great exploits, both against the Turks and the French.

Industry, application, and perseverance, are the great characteristics of the German nation, especially the mechanical part of it. Many of their works of art reflect credit on their talents. They excel in the manufacture of clocks and watches; they cut, polish, and arrange jewels, with admirable skill; they practise all kinds of turnery with neatness and dexterity; their porcelain is admired for beauty of colour, richness of gilding, and elegance of form; and many of them stand very high as draughtsmen, painters, sculptors, and architects.

The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjustly, in consequence of the great plenty of wine and provisions of every kind; but such excesses are now much less common. At the greatest tables, though the guests drink freely at dinner, the repast is commonly finished by coffee, after three or four public toasts have been given. But no people have more feasting at marriages, and on birthdays.

The German nobility are generally men of so much honour, that a sharper, in other countries, especially in England, meets with more credit if he pretend to be a German, than if he should declare himself of any other nation. All the sons of a nobleman inherit their father's title, a circumstance which not a little perplexes the heralds and genealogists of that country. The German husbands are not so complaisant as those of some other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they seem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity. Many of the nobility, having no other hereditary estate than a high-sounding title, readily enter into the army. Their fondness for title is sometimes attended with other inconveniences. Some men of rank and property think that, though it might treble their revenue, the cultivation of their lands is below their attention, and that they should degrade themselves by being concerned in the improvement of their estates; but this prejudice is rapidly losing ground.

The domestic diversions of the Germans are nearly the same as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In summer, people of fashion repair to places of public resort, and drink the waters, or partake of social amusements. As to their field diversions, beside their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting. The inhabitants of Vienna, in particular, live luxuriously; a great part of their time being spent in feasting and carousing; and in winter, when the several branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with snow, the ladies take their recreations in sledges of different shapes, such as tigers, swans, scallop shells, &c. Here the lady sits, dressed in velvet,

lined with rich furs, and adorned with lace and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap, and the sledge drawn by one horse, stag, or other creature, set off with plumes, ribbons, and bells. As this diversion is taken chiefly in the night time, servants ride before the sledge with torches; and a gentleman standing on the sledge behind, guides the horse.

Among other entertainments, those of the drama are in great vogue among the Germans; and some of their chief towns have very able performers. When theatrical diversions are discontinued on days of particular sanctity, a species of exhibition, called a Tableau, is allowed; the nature of which is to represent, by groups of living figures, with a judicious introduction of light and shade, the compositions of celebrated sculptors and painters. This amusement is more prevalent among the higher circles than among the common people, who do not feel themselves interested in this tranquil display of motionless attitudes. Music is a source of almost universal enjoyment in Germany: there are few Germans that have not musical taste, and numbers that have a high degree of skill.

CHIEF CITIES, FORTS, AND EDIFICES.—These objects, which are numerous, and well worthy of notice, will be described under the heads of the various states.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.—Germany has vast advantages, in point of commerce, from its situation in the heart of Europe, and its command of the navigation of great rivers. Its native materials for commerce, beside materials, are hemp, hops, flax, anise, cumin, tobacco, saffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to those of France and Italy. Germany exports, to other countries, corn, tobacco, horses, lean cattle, butter, cheese, honey, wax, wine, linen and woollen yarn, paper, ribbons, silk and cotton stuffs, gold and silver lace, toys, turnery-ware in wood and metals and ivory, goat-skins, wool, timber both for shipbuilding and houses, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb-shells, iron plates and stoves, tinned plates, steel-work, copper, brass wire, porcelain, mirrors, hogs' bristles, beer, tartar, smalt, zaffar, Prussian blue, printers' ink, and many other articles.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes by Louis XIV., which obliged the French Protestants to settle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite service to the manufactures of Germany. Its inhabitants now make velvet, silk, stuffs of all kinds, fine and coarse linen and thread, and every thing necessary for wear, in great perfection. The porcelain of Meissen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its pictorial decorations, have been long in great repute.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.—Before the resignation of the imperial dignity by Francis II., on the 6th of August, 1806, *almost every* prince in the empire (and there were then nearly 300 of them) was possessed of an arbitrary power, with regard to the government of his own estates; but the whole body formed a great confederacy, governed by political laws, at the head of which was the emperor, whose power was not directorial but executive: yet even that gave him vast influence. Under the race of Charlemagne, the empire was hereditary; but it afterward became elective. In the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting; but, at length, the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In 1239, only seven electors were allowed and acknowleged; among whom the archbishops of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, were honoured with the foremost rank, in compliment to their spiritual characters. In the 17th century two more were added; and, about the beginning of the 19th, in consequence of various secularizations, and other changes which, under the influence of France and Russia, were made in the constitution of the empire, the electors became ten in number—one ecclesiastical and nine secular princes.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, had for some centuries been continued to the House of Austria, as being the most powerful of the German princes; but, by French management, on the death of Charles VI. the elector of Bavaria was chosen to that dignity, and died, as it is supposed, heart-broken, after a short and comfortless reign. The power of the emperor was regulated by the capitulation, as it was called, he signed at his election; and the person who, in his life-time, was chosen king of the Romans, succeeded, without a new election, to the empire. He could confer titles and enfranchisements upon cities and towns; but, as emperor, he could neither levy taxes, nor make war or peace, without the consent of the diet. When that consent was obtained, every prince was bound to contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps, he might espouse a different side from that of the diet. This formed the intricacy of the German constitution; for George II. of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furnish his quota against the House of Austria, while he was fighting for it. The emperor claimed a precedency for his ambassadors in all Christian courts.

At the time of the abolition of the Germanic constitution, the ten princes who had the privilege of electing the emperor, were the elector prince archbishop of Ratisbon (or Aschaffenburg,) arch-chancellor of the empire; the king of Bohemia (the Austrian emperor,) who was styled grand cup-bearer; the king of Bavaria, who was grand sewer, or the officer who served out the feasts; the king of Saxony, the great marshal; the elector of Brandenburg (king of Prussia,) arch-chamberlain; the elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain,) arch-trea-

surer; the elector of Saltsburg; the king of Wurtemberg, arch-pantler; the electors of Baden and Hesse.

Before the emperor convoked a diet it was necessary for him to have the advice of those members; and, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, the Saxon and Bavarian princes had jurisdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the southern circles.

The diet was composed of the colleges of electors, princes, and imperial towns. The first consisted of the ten electors above enumerated, each of whom had a personal vote, termed by the German lawyers *votum virile*. The second college was divided into two classes —the proper princes of the empire, as dukes, margraves, landgraves, princes, and princely counts, who had each a personal vote, and the counts and lords of the empire, who were arranged in four colleges or benches, viz. the Wetteravian, Swabian, Franconian, and Westphalian, each of which had one vote, styled *votum curiatum*. Of this college Austria and Saltsburg had the direction by turns. The college of imperial cities consisted of deputies from those towns which were free republics under no particular sovereign, but immediately under the emperor and the empire.

The imperial chamber, and that of Vienna (better known by the name of the Aulic council) were the two supreme courts for determining the great causes of the empire, arising among its members. The former council consisted of 50 judges or assessors. The president and four of them were appointed by the emperor; each of the electors chose one, and the other princes and states the rest. This court was holden at Wetzlar, but formerly met at Spire; and causes might be brought before it by appeal. The aulic council was originally only a financial court for the dominions of the House of Austria. As the power of that family increased, the jurisdiction of this council was extended upon the powers of the imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It consisted of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, and a certain number of aulic counsellors, of whom six were Protestants, beside other officers; but the emperor, in fact, was master of the courts. These courts followed the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law.

Beside these courts of justice, each of the nine circles had a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle, who was in general one of the most powerful princes of the circle. In case of great public offences, after the votes of the diet had been collected, and sentence pronounced, the emperor, by his prerogative, committed the execution of it to a particular prince, whose troops lived at free quarter upon the estates of the delinquent.

Every state which acted directly or indirectly against the fundamental laws of the empire, was subject to the punishment of the ban, *or* proscription, of the empire. The ban was of two kinds; the one privatory, the other provisional. The former consisted in depriving a prince or state of all rights, privileges, and dignities; the second in taking away from him the actual government of the states, and committing them to the care of some other, until it was otherwise ordered. But, it being difficult to unite all the orders of the empire in the same measure, this sentence of proscription was not easily obtained. The execution of it belonged to the director of the circle where the prince resided, and every feudal state of the empire was subject to it.

It may here be proper to inform the reader of the meaning of the term *Pragmatic Sanction*, which frequently occurs in German history. This was a provision made by Charles VI. for preserving the indivisibility of the Austrian dominions in the person of the next descendant of the last possessor, whether male or female. This provision was often disputed by other branches of the House of Austria, who were occasionally supported by France, from political views, though the pragmatic sanction was strongly guarantied by almost all the powers of Europe. The emperor Charles VII. elector of Bavaria, and Augustus, king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, on the ground of their descent from the daughters of the emperor Joseph, elder brother to Charles VI. It was likewise repeatedly opposed by the court of Spain.

The cumbrous and intricate Germanic system received so rude a shock, in 1806, from the arbitrary policy of Napoleon, that Francis II. disclaimed all future concern in the government of the empire, and, renouncing that dignity which he had acquired by election, declared himself emperor of Austria. The act of confederation, called the Confederation of the Rhine, imposed upon many of the German princes by Napoleon, ordained that the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, the arch-chancellor or elector of Aschaffenburg, and the elector of Baden, should concur with other princely members of the empire in forming new arrangements of policy and war, under the protection of the sovereign of France. The king of Prussia endeavoured, but with no effect, to counteract this alarming confederacy by a similar association in the north of Germany. Many acts of territorial spoliation were allowed by the unscrupulous author of the new treaty, for the gratification of his dependants: and, strong in his support, those princes who were not before so despotic as they were inclined to be, were encouraged to tyrannize over their subjects. The king of Wurtemberg disgraced himself by taking an immediate advantage of his new situation, and subverting the constitution of his country; and the king of Bavaria, who had obtained the Tyrol by the treaty of Presburg, annihilated in that province the privileges of the people.

After the success of the allies in the deliverance of Europe, a new organization was given

to the Germanic body. It was ordained by the congress of Vienna, in 1815, that the princes and free cities should be united in a perpetual confederation, the objects of which should be the maintenance of the interests and security of Germany, and the preservation of the independence and inviolability of the component states. All the members of the confederacy, which are thirty-eight in number, were declared equal in their rights, and equally bound to the strict support of the union. Ordinary affairs were to be discussed and decided by a federative diet, in which the princes and free towns should vote by their plenipotentiaries, under the presidency of an Austrian minister. The votes on these occasions were to be only seventeen, each of the chief princes having one, and the other votes being given by three or four members collectively. When fundamental laws were to be enacted, or changes to be made in the existing laws of that description, or when the act of confederation was to be revised and examined, sixty-nine votes were to be given, the leading powers respectively having four, others three, some two, and some only one. In the ordinary assembly, questions were to be decided by a mere majority; but, in the other diet, called the general assembly, nothing was to be determined without the assent of two-thirds of the number. All the states of the confederacy were required to defend or assist each other, in case of an attack or of danger; but no internal hostilities were allowed, as the diet would be armed with that authority which ought to preclude serious discord. Frankfort, the place where the diet was to hold its sittings, was to be considered as the capital of the confederacy. One article in this compact is particularly memorable. The princes seemed willing to yield to the growing spirit of the people in the German states; and it was ostensibly agreed, that the members of the confederation should concur with their subjects in framing, with all convenient speed, a representative government, so far popular as to remove the charge or reproach of despotism. The grand duke of Baden, and some other princes of the second and third class, have already complied with this stipulation; but the principal confederates have evinced a strong reluctance to such concessions, and the diet has strained every nerve to suppress the spirit of liberty.

Revenues and Military Force.—Both the military force and revenue of the emperor, merely as the head of the Germanic league, were very insignificant. He had only an annual income of about £5000 or £6000 sterling, arising from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest, and some trifling contributions from the imperial cities, of which, it is said, scarcely £2000 came into the imperial treasury. The extraordinary revenues levied on the different states were called Roman Months, because they were formerly raised by monthly assessments, for the maintenance of the troops who *escorted* the emperor to Rome, when that was the place of his coronation. A Roman was about £5000; and each state paid a number of these sums, according to the tions for the different princes and state tered in what was called the Matriculatic kept by the arch-chancellor of the emp

In the same book were registered the gents or number of troops to be raised state, when war was decreed by t These, united, would compose an army 30,000 men; but the whole force of the were it exerted in one effort, would exclusive of those countries which, subject to German princes, are not a Germany, to 400,000 men. The total con to be furnished by the thirty-eight state compose the present Germanic conf is 303,513. The army of reserve is h number. Austria and Prussia furn largest contingents; that of the forme 94,822, that of the latter 79,484. The contingent is that of Lichtenstein, whi sists of only 55 men. The Confedera sesses three fortresses, Luxembourg, and Landau; and a fourth is to be cons for the defence of the Upper Rhine aggregate revenue of the Confeders roughly estimated at about £30,000,0 ling, and the debts at between £70,000 £80,000,000. The exact amount it is sible to ascertain.

Imperial, Royal, and other Arms, and Orders.—The emperor many affected to consider himself as su to the emperors of Rome, and was l that account, admitted to a tacit prec on all public occasions, among the po Europe. Austria, indeed, was only a dukedom; nor had he, as the head house, a vote in the election of emperor was limited to Bohemia; but the ti principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and t with which he was invested as archduk very numerous; and paramount to all new title of Hereditary Emperor of A Every elector, and indeed every indep prince of any importance in Germany, a right of instituting orders; but the em pretend that they are not admissible confirmed by them. The Austrian em and the king of Spain, as descendants House of Burgundy, confer the order Golden Fleece. The empress dowager nora, in 1662 and 1666, created two or ladies or female knights, and Maria T the daughter of Charles VI., establish order of St. Theresa, and revived that Stephen.

The order of the Golden Fleece wa tuted at Bruges, in 1429, by Philip, d Burgundy, on the day of his marriage w third wife. It is supposed that he cho badge, as being the chief of the staple factures of his country. It at first co of thirty knights, who were of the first f in the Low Countries. At present th

branches of it: of one the emperor is sovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all at prove their noble descent from the 12th ntury. The motto of the order is "*Pretium ri vile laborum.*"

The Teutonic order owed its origin to some igious Germans in Jerusalem during the sades, who assumed the title of "Teutonic ights, or Brethren of the Hospital of our dy of the Germans at Jerusalem." Conrad, ke of Swabia, invited them into Prussia, out the year 1230: soon after, they conquered ussia for themselves, and became one of the ost powerful orders in Europe. But, by their ternal quarrels, they lost their power and ascessions; and Albert, marquis of Brandenrg, grand master of the order, on his abjuraon of popery, abdicated the grand-mastership, subdued Prussia, and expelled all the ights who would not follow his example.

In 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederic III. of Brandenburg, on terminating their disputes, established the order of Sincerity, as a pledge and confirmation of their amity. The knights wear a bracelet of gold; on one side are the names of the two princes, with this device, "*Amitié sincère;*" on the other side are two armed hands, joined and placed on two swords, with two palm branches crossed, with this motto, "*Unis pour jamais.*" The order of St. Henry was also instituted in Saxony, in 1736.

The great order of Wurtemberg is that of the Chase, instituted in 1702. On the left side of the coat is a silver star embroidered, of the same figure as the badge, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto, "*Amicitiæ Virtutisque Fœdus.*"

In 1709, the elector Palatine revived the order of St. Hubert, first instituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or pensions. The archbishop of Saltzburg, in 1701, instituted the order of St. Rupert, in honour of the founder and patron of the see which he held, who was also the apostle of his country. As the archbishop was the richest and most powerful prince of Bavaria, next to the elector, his order is in considerable estimation. In 1729, Albert, elector of Bavaria, instituted the order of St. George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception, the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

In 1813, the emperor of Austria, with a view of promoting, by a sense of honour, the great contest in which he and his allies were engaged for the deliverance of the continent from the tyranny of France, introduced a new order, called the Iron Cross. The badge is of bat figure and metal, an emblem of strength nd fortitude.

RELIGION.—It is natural to suppose, and we re taught to believe, that a sense of religion revailed in the earliest ages of the world. The idea of a great Creator of the universe and of mankind, must have offered itself even to rude and unenlightened minds; and reverential homage was the result of this suggestion. The purity of primitive worship was at length corrupted; superstition filled the weak mind with imaginary terrors, the sentiments of gratitude for existence and continued support, and the fear of offending an all-powerful Deity, produced a desire of acknowledging and propitiating a plurality of divine beings; and the grossness of idolatry was substituted for the refinement of spiritual adoration. When ages had thus passed in the observance of polytheism, an inspired legislator announced the will of God for the propagation of a correct system of religion, inculcating the unity of the divine essence, and combining strict morality with a pious belief of important and salutary doctrines. Such was the origin of the Mosaic dispensation, or the old covenant between God and man; but this system, which was not generally diffused over the world, was at length corrupted by human depravity; and a new covenant was established in the revered name of the Son of God. The progress of Christianity was long obstructed by the efforts of the pagan philosophers, and by the disinclination of the people to any religious change; and its votaries were even cruelly persecuted for presuming to entertain opinions repugnant to the established creed. This unnatural tyranny over the conscience was exercised, with some intermission, until the sovereignty of the Roman empire was acquired by Constantine the Great, whose encouragement of the new religion reflected honour on his character. It ultimately became the general faith through the wide extent of the civilized world: but, though many of the Jews were converted to it, the great body of that nation remained obstinately deaf to the exhortations of the Christian preachers. As all establishments are liable to abuse and corruption, even the apostolic religion gradually declined into a mass of superstition; or, if that censure should be too harsh, it degenerated, under the management of the Romish pontiffs, into a compound of scriptural truth and traditional absurdity or error. The primitive simplicity of an apostle was no longer found in a bishop or any other dignitary of the aggrandized church: arrogance, tyranny, rapacity, and the love of pleasure, disgraced the characters of those who ought to have pursued a course diametrically opposite: the essence of piety was obscured by a multitude of ceremonial observances; and religion was rather considered as a lucrative trade to a privileged class, than as a medium of spiritual comfort or of moral improvement.

In this state Christianity remained for many centuries, in Germany and other parts of Europe. Many of the German prelates possessed great temporal power, and tyrannized both over the *princes* and the people; and, while

the secular clergy in general were negligent of their duties, the indolent monks rioted on the spoils of the public. The Bohemians were the first, within the boundaries of the empire, who entertained ideas of reformation. To the writings of Wickliffe, called the Morning Star of the Reformation, they were principally indebted for that light which shone upon their minds; and John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, became the forerunners of Luther. After the council of Constance had triumphed over those unfortunate martyrs, the cause of reform languished for a century; and Martin Luther, a Saxon friar, then arose to unmask the deformities of popery; and, as his followers protested against its errors and abuses, they received the denomination of Protestants. He exclaimed against the vicious lives of the clergy; and condemned the unnecessary multiplication of sacraments, the invocation of saints, the use of private masses, the adoration of images, the observance of traditional dogmas, the grant of indulgences, the refusal of the sacramental cup to the laity, and the restrictions of the perusal of those scriptures which were the only true guides in faith and morals: yet his reform was imperfect, because he did not explode the absurdity of transubstantiation, but merely qualified it by the quibble of consubstantiation. Though the flames of persecution were lighted up against them, the Lutheran doctrines quickly made a great progress. By the elector and the people of Saxony, the new system was eagerly adopted; and it spread over the north of Germany, in defiance of all the efforts of the Romanists. It was presented to the emperor Charles V. in a connected form, in 1530, under the title of the Confession of Augsburg; but that prince was not disposed to regard it with favour. A new reformer soon after appeared, whose opinions created a schism in the Protestant community. This was Calvin, or Le Chauve, a learned Frenchman, but of a stern and morose spirit, who endeavoured to explode all forms and ceremonies, to simplify the dress of the ecclesiastics, abolish the superiority of episcopal rank, and introduce into the church a republican or presbyterian government. As his plan was more accordant than that of Luther to the taste of the people of Brandenburg, it became the prevailing religion of that electorate: it was also received by the majority of the Hessians, and it found its way into the Lower Palatinate, as did also the Lutheran creed. Austria and Bavaria, in the mean time, continued to cherish the Catholic worship with devout zeal: and even the Bohemians suffered the arrogant bigotry of their princes to subdue them into an acquiescence in the Romish establishment. After several wars, in which religious variance concurred with ambition and olitical animosity to inflame the minds of men, Protestantism was solemnly confirmed *In Germany*, by the treaty of Westphalia, when *It* was agreed that the members of both churches should enjoy an equality of rights and privileges.

LITERATURE.—No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is nowhere a more general taste for reading, especially in the Protestant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; books are profusely multiplied in every department of literature; and thousands of theses and disputations are annually published; for no man can be a graduate in the universities, who has not published at least one disputation.

Many of the Germans have greatly distinguished themselves in various branches of learning and science. They have written largely upon the Roman and canon laws. Stahl, Von Swieten, Storch, Hoffman, Ingenhousz, and Franck, have contributed greatly to the improvement of medicine; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heister, of anatomy and surgery; Neumann, Zimmermann, Marcraff, and others, of chemistry. In astronomy, Kepler deservedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorff is one of the first writers on the law of nature and nations, and has also merit as an historian. But, at the end of the 17th century, and the beginning of the last, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious sects, was so much involved in disputes about systematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The style of writing also in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a very frequent intermixture of Latin and French words; which, though they were not understood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of superiority to the writers, and were therefore much affected; for an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, that compiling huge volumes, and loading them with quotations from all sorts of authors, and from all languages, formed the true test of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantic, and were consequently disregarded by more refined nations.

It was about the year 1730 that the prospects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolff opened the way to a better philosophy than had before prevailed. Gottsched, an author and professor at Leipsic, who was greatly honoured by Frederic III. king of Prussia, introduced a better taste of writing, by publishing a German grammar, and instituting a literary society for polishing the language, and promoting the study of the belles-lettres. We may consider this as the epoch from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language upon learned subjects, and to free themselves, in a considerable degree, from that verboseness and pedantry by which they had been characterised. About this time several young men in the university of Leipsic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publishing some periodical works,

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dascow, Bunau, Putter, Gat-
nd Schmidt, excelled in his-
In the composition of *novels* and romances, the Germans are not equal to the English or the French. They do not appear to be so deeply acquainted with human nature, or so conversant in the art of exciting interest. Yet Kotzebue, Wieland, Augustus La-Fontaine, and Kramer, produced some pleasing works in this department; and, if Goethe's "Sorrows of Werter" had a better moral, the work would be more amusing and attractive, if not more pathetic.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Lessing, are familiar with those who are skilled in this branch of literature. In ecclesiastical, philosophical, and literary history, the names of Fabricius, Mosheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in sacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiske, Ernesti, Reimar, Havercamp, Heyne, Wyttenbach, Wolff, and Brunck, have published some of the best editions of Greek and Latin classics.

In the cultivation of the fine arts, the Germans have not been deficient. Their country has produced many excellent painters, architects, sculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if invented in Holland, which is doubtful, was soon after greatly improved in Germany. That country has likewise given birth to some excellent musical composers—Handel, Bach, Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, and Von Weber; of whom Handel stands at the head, having arrived at the sublime of music. The names above mentioned are those of authors who have, most of them, been long deceased. Since their time, every branch of literature has been cultivated with increased ardour and success. To give a mere list of those who have acquired a well-earned reputation would occupy a larger space than our confined limits will afford. That this is a fact will be easily perceived, when we inform the reader that Germany now contains about 10,000 authors, and that not less than 4000 new works are annually published!

UNIVERSITIES.—There are at present in Germany twenty-four universities: Berlin, Kœnigsburg, Breslau, Halle, Bonne, and Greifswalde, in Prussia; Vienna, Prague, Olmutz, Inspruck, and Gratz, in Austria; Munich, Wurtzburg, and Erlangen, in Bavaria; Jena, and Leipsic, in Saxony; Heidelberg, and Freyberg, in Baden; Marburg, in Hesse Cassel; Giessen, in Hesse Darmstadt; Goettingen, in Hanover; Tubingen, in Wirtemburg; Rostock, in Mecklenburg; and Kiel, in Holstein. Of these, the majority are Protestant. Colleges, gymnasia, pedagogies, and Latin schools, are also dispersed over the country; and there are many academies and societies for promoting the study of natural philosophy, the belles-lettres, antiquities, painting, sculpture, architecture, &c.; as, the Imperial Leopoldine Academy of the *Naturæ Curiosi*; the Academies of Science at

Vienna, Berlin, Munich, Gœttingen, Leipsic, Duisburg, Giessen, and Hamburgh. At Dresden and Nuremberg are academies for the fine arts; at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augsburg is the Imperial Franciscan Academy of Fine Arts; to which we may add the Latin and German Societies at Jena. Of the public libraries, the most celebrated are those of Vienna, Berlin, Munich, Gœttingen, Halle, Wolfenbuttel, Hanover, Weimar, and Leipsic. Each of the first four has more than 300,000 volumes; there are thirty-six which have 25,000 volumes, and upwards.

Language.—The German language is derived from the Teutonic, which sprang from the Gothic. It varies considerably in its dialects as spoken in different parts of the country, and is purest in Saxony and Hanover, and in the southern and eastern provinces most corrupted and uncouth.

The German Paternoster is as follows:—

"Unser Vater, der du bist im himmel, geheiliget werde dein nam; zukomme dein reich; dein wille geschehe, wie im himmel also auch auf erden. Unser tæglich brod gib uns heute; und vergib uns unsere schulden, als wir vergeben unsern schuldigern: und fuehre uns nicht in versuchung; sondern erlœse uns von dem bœsen; den dein ist das reich, und die krafft, und die herrlichkeit, in ewigkeit. Amen."

Antiquities.—Some remains of Roman edifices and other antiquities are found in Germany. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and, above all, town-houses, in Germany, are very curious, and impress the beholder with their rude magnificence: many castles have the same appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally consist of a brick wall, bastions or half-moons, and trenches filled with water.

History.—The manners of the ancient Germans are well described by the elegant and forcible pen of Tacitus. They were a brave and independent race of men, particularly distinguished by their love of liberty and arms. They resisted the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin, or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and when it continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of independent principalities, which, however, were occasionally connected by a military union, for the purpose of defending themselves against such enemies as threatened the liberties of all. At length, the Roman power, supported by art and policy, prevailed over a considerable part of Germany, and various portions of the country were provinciated. When the great empire was shattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was overrun by the Franks, about the year 480, and a considerable part of it long remained in subjection to counts and margraves of that nation. Notwithstanding the efforts of particular chieftains or princes to reduce the rest into subjection, a part remained unconquered *until the beginning* of the 9th century: then it was that Charlemagne, one of those eccentric and superior geniuses who sometimes start up in a barbarous age, first extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority, over the whole of this empire. His posterity inherited the whole or various parts of his dominions until the death of Louis III., in 911; at which time the different princes, resuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovingian line, and placed Conrad, duke of Franconia, on the throne. From that time, Germany was considered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according as their interests or their arms prevailed, were called to the throne. Of these, the most considerable, until the Austrian line acquired the imperial power, were the Houses of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of these emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the contests between them and the popes. From these, in the beginning of the 13th century, arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former were attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to disquiet the empire and Italy for several ages. The emperors, too, were often at war with the Turks; and sometimes the German princes (as happens in all elective kingdoms) with one another, about the succession. But what more deserves the attention of a judicious reader than all those noisy but uninteresting disputes, is the progress of government in Germany, which was, in some measure, opposite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire raised by Charlemagne fell asunder, all the independent princes assumed the right of election; and those who were afterward distinguished by the name of electors had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a successor to the imperial throne: they were nothing more than officers of state, or of the king's household. By degrees, as they lived near the royal person, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increased their influence and authority; and, in the reign of Otho II., of the House of Saxony, in 984, acquired the sole right of electing the emperor. Thus, while, in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial or independent barons, was diminished by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors rose upon the ruins of the emperor's supremacy, and of the popular jurisdiction. Otho I. having, in 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his successors should have the power of nominating the pope, and granting investitures to bishops. In 1122, to the disgrace of the imperial dignity, Henry V., a weak and wicked prince, surrendered the right of investiture and other powers; but, when pope Benedict XII. had refused absolu-

a to Louis V. of Bavaria, in 1338, it was de-
red, in the diet of the empire, that the
jority of suffrages of the electoral college
ould confer the empire without the consent
the pope, and that he had no superiority over
emperor, nor any right to reject or to con-
n elections. In 1438, Albert, archduke of
stria, was elected emperor; and that dignity
ntinued in the male line of his family for
years. One of his successors, Maximilian,
rried the heiress of Charles duke of Bur-
ndy; and thus the dukedom, and the seventeen
ovinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to
e House of Austria. Charles V., grandson of
aximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain,
right of his mother, was elected emperor in
e year 1519. Under him Mexico and Peru
ere conquered by the Spaniards; and in his
ign happened the reformation of religion in
veral parts of Germany; which, however, was
ot confirmed by public authority before the
ear 1648, at the close of the thirty years' war,
hen the treaty of Westphalia was concluded.
n the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of
Charles V. was continually disturbed by his
ars with the German princes, and the French
ing, Francis I. Though he was successful
n the beginning of his reign, his good fortune,
oward the conclusion of it, began to forsake
im; which, with other reasons, occasioned his
abdication.

His brother, Ferdinand I., who in 1558 suc-
ceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince
with regard to religion. He had the address
to procure his son, Maximilian, to be declared
king of the Romans, in his own lifetime, and
died in 1564. By his last will he ordered that,
if either his own male issue, or that of his
brother Charles, should fail, his Austrian estates
should revert to his second daughter, Anne, wife
to the elector of Bavaria, and her issue. This
destination is noticed, as it gave rise to the
opposition made by the House of Bavaria to
the pragmatic sanction in favour of the queen
of Hungary, on the death of Charles VI.

The reign of Maximilian II. was disturbed
by internal commotions, and by an invasion
from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576.
He was succeeded by his son Rodolph, who
was involved in a war with the Hungarians, and
in differences with his brother Matthias, to
whom he ceded Hungary and Austria, in his
lifetime. His successor to the imperial crown,
in 1611, was Matthias, under whom the Luthe-
rans and Calvinists were so much divided
among themselves as to threaten the empire
with a civil war. The emperor's endeavours
at last reconciled them; but the Bohemians
revolted, and threw the imperial commissaries
out of a window, at Prague. This gave rise to
a ruinous war, which lasted thirty years. Mat-
thias hoped to subdue both parties; but they
formed a confederacy, called the Evangelic
League, which was counterbalanced by a Ca-
tholic League.

Matthias, dying in 1618, was succeeded by his cousin, Ferdinand II.; but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic the elector palatine, the most powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and son-in-law to his Britannic majesty, James I. That prince was so inconsiderate as to accept the crown; but he lost it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was also deprived of his own electorate, the best part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The Protestant princes of Germany, however, had among them, at that time, many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmness and intrepidity: among them were the margrave of Baden-Durlach, Christian, duke of Brunswick, and count Mansfeld; the last was one of the ablest generals of the age. Christian IV., king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French minister, did not wish to see the House of Austria aggrandized. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Christian, having put himself at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an imperialist of great reputation in war. Ferdinand so grossly abused the advantages obtained over the Protestants, that they formed a new confederacy at Leipsic, of which the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was the head. His victories and progress, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632, have already been related. But the Protestant cause did not die with him. He had bred a set of heroes, such as the duke of Saxe-Weimar, Torstenson, Banier, and others, whose spirited efforts shook the Austrian power, till, under the mediation of the pope and the Venetians, a general peace was concluded at Munster, in 1648.

Ferdinand II. died in 1637, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand III., who died in 1657. Leopold, a prince of little merit or ability, was the next emperor. He had two great powers to contend with—France on one side, and the Turks on the other; and he was a loser in his wars with both. France took from him Alsace, and other territories on the frontiers of the empire; and the Turks would have taken Vienna, had not the siege been raised by John Sobieski, king of Poland. Prince Eugene of Savoy was a young adventurer in arms, about the year 1697. As one of the imperial generals, he gave the Turks the first checks they received in Hungary; and, by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Transylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withstood the power of France, had not King William III. of England laid the foundation of the grand confederacy against French ambition, the consequences of which have been already described. The Hungarians, secretly encouraged by the French, and exasperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were still in arms, under the protection of the Porte, when that prince died, in 1705.

He was succeeded by his son Joseph, who put

the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but, as he was very ill served by Prince Louis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly retrieved their affairs, notwithstanding their repeated defeats. The duke of Marlborough, though he obtained very splendid victories, had not all the success he expected or deserved. Joseph himself was suspected of a design to subvert the Germanic liberties; and it was evident, by his conduct, that he expected England would take the principal part in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The English were disgusted at his slowness and selfishness; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and, leaving no male issue, was succeeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI., whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in opposition to the duke of Anjou.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles at first made a show as if he would continue the war; but he found himself unable, when he was forsaken by the English. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France, at Baden, in 1714, that he might oppose the progress of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a signal defeat from Prince Eugene, in the battle of Peterwardein. They received another, of equal importance, from the same general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the imperialists; and in the following year the peace of Passarowitz was concluded. Charles was continually employed in making arrangements for increasing and preserving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the British crown devolved to the House of Hanover; an event which gave him a decisive weight on the continent, by the connexions of George I. and II. with the empire. Charles was sensible of this, and behaved with such arrogance, that, in 1725, a breach ensued between him and George I.; and, so unsteady was the political system of Europe at that time, that the principal powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contrary to their interest. Without entering into particulars, it is sufficient to observe, that the interest of Hanover was the main object of the British court, as that of the emperor was the establishment of the pragmatic sanction, in favour of his daughter Maria Theresa, he having no male issue. Mutual concessions upon those great points restored a good understanding between George II. and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, allured by the prospect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquished his claims upon the Austrian succession.

The emperor, after this, had very ill success in a war with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himself for the great sacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the House of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead; and he had no general *to supply his* place. The system of France happened at that time to be pacific; and Cardinal Fleury obtained for him, from the Turks, a better peace than he had reason to expect. To pacify the German and other European princes, he gave his daughter in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, a prince who could bring no accession of power to the Austrian family. He died in 1740; and his favourite scheme must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness of the king of Great Britain. His daughter's succession was strongly opposed. The young king of Prussia, with a powerful army, entered and conquered Silesia, which, he said, had been wrongfully wrested from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria set up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic sanction; and in this they were joined by France, though all those powers had solemnly guarantied it. The imperial throne was filled by the elector, who took the title of Charles VII. in January, 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague; and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Prussia, was forced to cede the most valuable part of the duchy of Silesia, by a formal treaty.

The youth, beauty, and sufferings of Maria Theresa, and the noble fortitude with which she bore her misfortunes, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, under whose protection she threw herself and her infant son; and, though they had always been remarkable for their disaffection to the House of Austria, they declared unanimously in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II., at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII. was at this time distressed on the imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his ancestor, in Queen Anne's reign, for siding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almost her own terms; but she haughtily rejected all accommodation, though advised to it by her Britannic majesty, her best and indeed only friend. This obstinacy gave Frederic of Prussia a colour for the invasion of Bohemia, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity; but, though the Prussian monarch, on this occasion, took Prague, and subdued the greatest part of the kingdom, he was not supported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conquests, and retired into Silesia.

In the beginning of the year 1745, the unfortunate emperor died; and the duke of Lorraine, then grand-duke of Tuscany, was chosen to succeed him, by the title of Francis I. This election strengthened the interest of his active and politic wife; but the ill success of the allies against the French and Bavarians in the Netherlands, and the loss of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded her operations against his Prussian majesty. The latter defeated the emperor's brother, Prince Charles of Lorraine, who had before driven the Prussians out of

ad George II., disgusted at the
f the empress, thought proper to
him the possession of Silesia, as
eaty. Frederic, soon after, pre-
ie had discovered a secret conven-
had been concluded by Maria
a the empress of Russia and the
nd, as elector of Saxony, to strip
ominions, and divide them among
Upon this he suddenly attacked
Poland, drove him out of Saxony,
roops, and took possession of Dres-
ie held till a treaty was adjusted
ediation of his Britannic majesty,
e king of Prussia acknowledged
Lorraine as emperor. The war
the Low Countries, not only to
tage but to the discredit of the
d Dutch, till it was finished by the
la-Chapelle, in 1748. By that treaty,
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It was not long before that
alousies were renewed and veri-
e views of the Russian empress
ith those of the empress-queen
of Poland, who were unnaturally
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as excited in the empire, in 1756.
Prussia declared against the ad-
ie Russians into Germany, and his
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n these monarchs were forgotten;
tish parliament agreed to pay an
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ian majesty now invaded Saxony,
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His conduct, on this occasion, is
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e brave Marshal Schwerin was on
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ops were invincible, they were re-
lin by the Austrian general, Daun,
to raise the siege. The operations
ow multiplied every day. The im-
der Count Daun, were formed into
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Daun laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his great victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night, by Count Daun at Hochkirchen, had nearly proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time: that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux-Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Count Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, also by the Austrians.

Many important events which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies, must be omitted on account of the brevity which this compendium requires. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though the war was extremely bloody and burdensome to Great Britain. Great was the ingratitude of the queen of Hungary to his Britannic majesty and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians; but he soon found that they were his most formidable enemies. They advanced, under Count Soltikoff, in a body of 90,000 men, into Silesia. In this distress he acted with a courage and resolution that bordered upon despair; but was at last defeated by the Russians, with a very severe loss, in a battle at Kunersdorff, near Frankfort on the Oder. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues toward peace were apparently shut up. He had lost many brave and able generals, beside those who were wounded and made prisoners. At Landshut, Laudohn defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependance, and thereby opened to the Austrians an easy passage into Silesia. None but Frederic III. would have thought of continuing the war under such repeated losses; but every defeat he received seemed to give him fresh spirits. It is not, perhaps, very easy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, except by the jealousy which the imperial generals entertained of their Russian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but, toward the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau, in which Count Daun was wounded. This was the best fought action in which the king of Prussia had ever been engaged; but it cost him 20,000 of his best troops, and was attended with

no great consequences in his favour. New reinforcements which frequently arrived from Russia, the taking of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed almost to have completed his ruin, when his great enemy, the empress of Russia, died in 1762. George II. had previously resigned his breath. The deaths of those illustrious personages were followed by important consequences. The ministers of George III. were solicitous to put an end to the war; and the new emperor of Russia, who was an enthusiastic admirer of Frederic, became his ally. On the murder of the emperor Peter, however, the Russian army was recalled. His Prussian majesty was so weakened by his losses, that Maria Theresa might perhaps have at last humiliated him, had it not been for the prudent reluctance of the other German princes to see the House of Brandenburg too much depressed. At first the queen rejected all terms proposed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies: but the visible unwillingness of her generals to execute her orders, and the success of Frederic, at last prevailed upon her to agree to an armistice, which was soon followed by the treaty of Hubertsburg, in February, 1763.

On the death of Francis, in 1765, his son Joseph succeeded him. The new emperor had an active mind, and, though not of a warlike character, was encroaching and ambitious; yet, for some years, he exhibited an appearance of moderation, attending with zeal to the concerns of internal policy. The disorders of Poland at length attracted his notice; and he was easily persuaded by the Russian empress to join in the first partition of that defenceless country. After another interval of forbearance, he aimed at the seizure of a great portion of the Bavarian territories, on the decease of the elector without issue; and a war arose, in 1778, from his arrogant and unjustifiable pretensions: but the spirit of the Prussian monarch, whom Joseph was afraid to meet personally in the field, cooled his ardour, and impelled him into a speedy pacification. He afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheldt; but in this scheme he likewise failed. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happiness of his subjects; granted a highly liberal religious toleration, and suppressed most of the religious orders of both sexes, as being utterly useless, and even pernicious to society; abolished the remains of servitude and villanage; fixed the fees of the rapacious agents of law at a moderate amount, granting them a pension in lieu; abolished the use of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peasants and common people laboured. He was a prince who treated his subjects with an ease and affability which are very uncommon in persons of his rank. He loved the conversation of ingenious men, and appeared solicitous to acquire knowledge.

Peter-Leopold, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother Joseph, in 17[illegible] the public praise by repeated in[illegible] deration and solid principles. government of the Tuscan duc[illegible] prudent and beneficent, showed to more just reputation than c[illegible] by the mere splendour of ro[illegible] moderation did not prevent hi[illegible] with a spirit which overawed th[illegible] the Netherlands, and the discon[illegible] rians, into full submission.

The French Revolution now[illegible] attention of the powers of Eur[illegible] conference at Pilnitz, the empe[illegible] Prussia, and the elector of Sax[illegible] deliberated on the critical state[illegible] discussed provisional schemes o[illegible] pold for some time was very irr[illegible] last seemed to be intent on war[illegible] of a pleuritic fever, on the 1st [illegible] in the 45th year of his age.

Francis II. succeeded his fath[illegible] the Austrian inheritance, and, [illegible] July, became head of the empi[illegible] mous election. As he did not[illegible] hostile views against the demo[illegible] France, he exposed himself to s[illegible] of war. His troops were occ[illegible] cessful; but, upon the whole, th[illegible] disastrous to him in point of t[illegible] and ruinous to his finances. Du[illegible] respite which succeeded the pacif[illegible] he sedulously attended to the [illegible] without neglecting the renovatio[illegible] of hostility. His government w[illegible] moderate and equitable; but de[illegible] times led him into acts of tyr[illegible] concern in the final partition of[illegible] that he was not invariably influe[illegible] sense of justice.

The next war in which the em[illegible] was short, but sanguinary. As[illegible] portant incidents of that and[illegible] war have been narrated in our[illegible] history of France, it is unnecessa[illegible] petition of the statement. He did[illegible] by the treaty of Luneville, whic[illegible] a confirmation of that of Campo[illegible] was still a very powerful prince[illegible] regarded by the continental pow[illegible] would give a future check to th[illegible] croachments of Napoleon. Yet [illegible] time so weary of war, that he ma[illegible] sition to the arbitrary dictates [illegible] in 1802, in the settlement of[illegible] Germany. He was jealous of th[illegible] ment of Prussia and Bavaria on[illegible] but was disposed to be content,[illegible] ther Ferdinand was in some de[illegible] When he had remained for several[illegible] spectator of the conduct of Fr[illegible] roused into a new war by the ze[illegible] whom he even suffered to recom[illegible] Mack, an incompetent, if not[illegible] officer, as the chief commander[illegible] In a few weeks, during the autum[illegible]

osses, to which the Austrians were
re severe and afflictive; and the
pairing of the defence of his capi-
be profaned by an insulting foe.
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ssian allies, who had the principal
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ork of Francis, whom the Russian
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tremely onerous to the vanquished
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Hoping to profit by this oppor-
unction, the emperor called all his
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uspicions.
effect of the invasion had *mani-*
fested itself in the opportunity which it afforded for a new coalition, Francis, though he had placed his army on a formidable basis, did not seem disposed to risk a new war with Napoleon; and he suffered the French, in 1813, to harass the Russians and their German associates with all the rigours of hostility, while he was anxiously deliberating whether he should interfere or remain neutral. But the persuasions of his able minister, Prince Metternich, and the suggestions of his generals, at length prevailed upon him to enter into the confederacy. Nothing could be more truly machiavelian than was the conduct of the Austrian cabinet on this occasion. The accession of Austria gave new life and vigour to the continental interest; and a mighty host appeared in the most terrific attitude, ready to take vengeance upon the enslavers and oppressors of Germany. It was not, perhaps, difficult to foresee that the tide would soon turn against the French, in consequence of the transcendent magnitude of the opposing force. They fought, however, without any visible abatement of spirit; and their emperor moved alternately to the centre and the right, against that part of the allied force which Blucher commanded, and that still greater army which the prince of Schwartzenberg led into the field; while his former friend, Bernadotte, the crown-prince of Sweden, threatened his left with an attack. After various conflicts, in which the allies suffered severely, he retired to the neighbourhood of Leipsic, and stationed his troops in a semicircular position round that city. His adversaries coolly surveyed his positions, and derided his means of resistance. After a sanguinary battle of two days, the various assaults were so far successful, that his escape seemed precarious: but he found an avenue for retreat; and, after a very severe loss, he escaped to the Rhine with the shattered remains of his army, after having defeated the Bavarians, who strove to intercept him at Hanau.

The success of the new coalition rescued Germany and Holland from encroachments and usurpations; and the next step, in the progress of victory, was the dictation of peace to France within her own frontiers. This was the object of that march of the allies, which filled the country with alarm, and shook the tyrant on his throne. It was suspected, by some of those politicians who had an exalted opinion of their own sagacity and penetration, that the Austrian emperor, whatever zeal he might affect to display in the cause of national independence, would not proceed to the extremity of deposing his son-in-law, to whose splendid throne his own grandson seemed to have fair pretensions: but, when the obstinacy of Napoleon had constrained the allies to break off all negotiation with him, Francis was not less disposed than his Russian friend, to put an end to that proud and insolent domination which the reviving spirit of Europe could no longer brook.

The two armies, which, in consequence of the

by the defeat from Italy [illegible], a congress convoked by the emperor at Vienna proceeded to the settlement of the affairs of Europe. The deliberations of the princes and plenipotentiaries were disturbed by the return of Napoleon from Elba, who, suddenly appearing in France, re-obtained the throne by the king's retreat. While Francis was diligently employed in military preparations, the usurper was ruined by the magnanimous efforts of the English and Prussians, but principally by the former; and, when the Austrian army began to take an active part in the contest, little remained to be performed, except the adjustment of a treaty for the humiliation of France.

Germany and Italy were the chief countries to which the deliberations of the congress were directed. To some of its acts we have already adverted; and its other resolutions and arrangements will be noticed under their proper heads.

Peace has since prevailed in Germany; and the emperor, aided by the influence of the holy alliance, has overawed his subjects into that humble forbearance which precludes him from the necessity, though not the moral obligation, of performing his promise, with regard to a representative government and a free constitution. But, in Italy, the intrigues of the Carbonari (a society of the friends of freedom) produced revolutions which roused the despot from his dream of security.

In the Neapolitan and Piedmontese territories, even the soldiery joined the people in demanding a reform, and new governments were hastily organized. Francis, apprehensive that the inhabitants of his Italian provinces

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country, but that they shou

' the many advantages that Prussia and Germany, from of a new system of internal pursued the measures neces- oout, with an earnestness that ion, and with a determination,) carry their point.

aties in furtherance of this otiated by Prussia, with the Schwarzburg-Sonderhausen, g-Rudolstadt, in 1818 and 1819, hat there should be a perfect erce between those countries t the duties on exportation, transit, in Prussia and the all be identical; that these ed along the frontier of the contracting parties; and that cipate in the produce of such tion to its population. All equently entered into have this fair and equitable prin- ceptions to the perfect free- all the countries comprised or tariff alliance being con- cles constituting state mo- nd cards in Prussia; 2nd. to produce, burdened with a luty on consumption in one ney pay in another; and, 3rd. ed under patents, conferring certain privileges in the states granting the patents. otions, which are not very e daily decreasing, the most ' commerce exists among the

ien the foundations of the d, it has progressively ex- comprises more than three- erman states, exclusive of lesse joined the alliance in d Hesse in 1831; the king- Saxony, and Wirtemberg, ds, as have Baden, Nassau, e smaller states by which it been joined, with the excep- arg Schwerin, Mecklenburg g, and Brunswick. Hanover thin the league.

encement of 1836, the tariff l Prussia, without Neuchatel, ne small parcels of her terri- y other states; Bavaria and tories; kingdom of Saxony; Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen; duchy of Hesse and Hom- gian states; duchy of Baden ollern; Nassau; and Frank- ccupying a territory of 8252 iles in extent, and having a 34,668 souls.

"Thoughout the whole extent of this immense country, from Aix la Chapelle, on the confines of the Netherlands, eastward to Tilsit, on the confines of Russia, and from Stettin and Dantzic southwards to Switzerland and Bohemia, there is nothing to interrupt the freedom of commerce. A commodity, whether for consumption or transit, that has once passed the frontier of the league, may be subsequently conveyed, without let or hindrance, throughout its whole extent. Instead of being confined within the narrow precincts of their own territories, the products of each separate country of the alliance may now be sent to every one else; each will, in consequence, apply itself in preference to those departments in which it has some natural or acquired advantage; and each will have to depend for its success, not on the miserable resource of customs' regulations, but on its skill and industry. The competition thence arising will be most salutary; and, should the peace of Europe be preserved, we run little risk in saying, that all sorts of industry will make more progress among the states comprised within the tariff alliance, during the next ten years, than they have done during the previous half century.

"An assembly of representatives from the allied states meets annually, to hear complaints, adjust difficulties, and make such new enactments as may seem to be required. The Prussian tariff has been adopted, with certain modifications, and is now the only one in force. The duties are received into a common treasury, and are apportioned according to the population of each of the allied states. In addition to its other advantages, the new system has reduced the cost of collecting the duties to a mere trifle, compared with its former amount; and has enabled hundreds of custom houses, and thousands of customs' officers, to be employed in the different departments of industry.

"The existing discrepancy in the weights and measures used in different parts of Germany occasions considerable inconvenience; and we are glad to observe that the equalization of weights and measures, and their reduction to a common standard in all the allied states, is declared to be one of the objects of the league.

"It is also expressly provided, that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall, in all cases, whether they belong to the public or to private individuals, be limited to the sums required to keep the roads in a proper state of repair; and that the tolls existing in Prussia shall be considered as the highest that are to be levied, and shall not in any case be exceeded."

THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

GERMAN PORTION.

THE name of Austria was formed by the Italian and French pronunciation of the German words *Ostr-Reich*, the eastern kingdom, which name this territory acquired on account of its situation with respect to the western empire established by Charlemagne.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, about 700	between		10. and 26. E. long.
Breadth, about 500			42. and 57. N. lat.

Containing about 237,334 square miles, with 130 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.—The German portion of the Austrian empire is bounded by the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, Switzerland, and Bavaria, on the west; by Saxony, Silesia, and Poland, on the north; by Russia and Moldavia, on the east; and by Walachia, Servia, and Albania, on the south.

DIVISIONS. — The archduchy of Austria; duchy of Styria; kingdom of Illyria; principality of Tyrol; kingdom of Bohemia; margraviate of Moravia and Austrian Silesia; kingdom of Galitzia and Lodomeria, including the Bukowine; kingdom of Hungary; grand duchy of Transylvania; the military frontier; and the kingdom of Dalmatia.

The archduchy of Austria, or Austria Proper, exceeds almost every other province of Germany in the fertility of its soil, the abundance of its pastures, and the salubrity of its air. It is divided by the river Ens into Upper and Lower Austria, and is said to contain 35 cities and 256 market towns. Lower Austria is subdivided into four circles, those of Upper and Lower Wienerwald, and Upper and Lower Mannhartsberg. Vienna forms a separate division. The government of Upper Austria consists of five circles; the Muhl, the Inn, Hausbruck, Traun, and Saltzburg.

Vienna, being the metropolis of the dominions of that prince whose family so long held the imperial supremacy, is generally considered as the capital of Germany. It has a population of about 350,000 souls, and is situated in Lower Austria, on that spot where a branch of the Danube is joined by the little river Wien, which is also the German name of the city itself. On this spot the Romans had a legionary station. The town which they built fell successively into the hands of the Goths and the Huns; and it was afterwards annexed to the dominions of Charlemagne. Under the auspices of the margraves and dukes of Austria, the city was extended and improved, but by slow degrees. It now consists of two parts, *perfectly distinct*. The interior division is surrounded by walls, bastions, and a dry fosse; and the other portion is included within lines of circumvallation, having barriers at all the openings. Of the former, the circumference is about three miles, and that of the latter twelve. The imperial castle or palace is a structure of extraordinary magnitude, rather than of pre-eminent splendour. It is composed of various buildings, which, without aptly harmonizing to the eye of taste, contain large and commodious apartments, richly decorated and splendidly furnished. Connected with it is a riding-school, in which, during the last congress, a kind of tournament was performed by twenty-four knights, all of noble birth, in a style of the most imposing magnificence, and in a manner that served to exemplify the chivalrous spirit which had subverted the domination of the Corsican. Another imperial palace is that of Belvedere, erected by Prince Eugene for his summer residence, in which are 1350 pictures of the Italian, German, and Flemish schools—one of the finest collections in Europe. Many of the mansions of the nobles also embellish the city; and some of their cabinets abound with curious works of art, both ancient and modern. The other remarkable buildings are, the archiepiscopal cathedral of St. Stephen, distinguished by its beautiful steeple and its roof of mosaic work; the fine church of the Trinity, several monastic houses and chapels, the edifice belonging to the university, the town-house, the imperial chancery, the mint, bank, and arsenal. In the old town the streets are narrow, and, from the height of the houses, not sufficiently ventilated; but, in the suburbs, of which there are thirty-four, constituting together the new town, a more open plan of building has been followed, the houses are constructed in a better style, gardens and places of recreation are pleasingly intermingled with the habitations, and ample space is afforded to the industry of artificers and manufacturers. Between the old and new towns, an extensive area is kept entirely free from buildings. In addition to this promenade, there are also the ramparts, which form an agreeable walk; the Volksgarten, (people's garden,) a place of great summer resort, which was made public by the emperor; the Augarten; the magnificent gardens of the nobility, which are thrown open to the people by their owners; and, lastly, the Prater—the Hyde Park of Vienna—which is nearly four miles long. "It is in the Prater," says an animated and intelligent writer, "that the joyous and careless character of the Austrian has full scope for displaying itself. Here pleasure is to be found for every class, and it is agree-

ctory to observe the industrious
ble orders of society amusing
: by side with their superiors.
sight to see family parties, in a
pitch their tent under the
s, enjoy their humble feast
nd sing, while their children
em. No churlish police-ser-
rannic cane, appears to warn
green sward; no portentous
steel traps and spring guns, to
i its threats."
to the trade and manufactures
city has become a very consi-
'e, and may be deemed a ren-
us nations for the purposes of
e most important branch of its
ich is carried on with the sub-
te, who receive glass and hard-
inds of cloth, and many other
rn for cotton, silk, goats'-hair,
fruit, and the wines of Greece.
ufactures are those of plate
, cutlery, gold and silver lace,
ents—particularly those which
horns, and mills for a variety
In the unsettled state of the
ilk manufacture was so little
it 6000 looms, which had been
at Vienna before the French
e reduced to a very small num-
anch of manufacture has since

Upper Austria is Lintz, which
.bitants, and is situated near
of the Traun with the Danube,
r river it has a bridge, 800 feet
place where the meetings of
ates are held. There is a large
rpet and cloth manufactory
established by Maria Theresa.
lace of the Austrian dukes is
d penitentiary. Till recently,
en town; but it is now strongly
w system, invented by Prince
rather, the town and all its
ity are converted into an im-
ost impregnable entrenched
ks consist of thirty-two large
ich mounting ten guns on the
others on the lower story, to

, the most important town in
is Saltzburg, which was for-
l of a duchy and archbishopric
e. It is situated on the Salza,
out 14,000 inhabitants. Here
mperor Charlemagne, the cele-
r Mozart, and last, and least,
nt monarch of Greece; and
died and was buried. The
zburg, and, indeed, most parts
, are remarkable for their pic-
, which equals, and, as some
that of Switzerland.

Styria, situated to *the south of* the archduchy of Austria, is about 125 miles long, and 70 broad. It forms a government, and is divided into the circles of Gratz, Marburg, Cilly, Judenburg, and Bruck. The population of the whole province is at least 924,000. Though a mountainous country, it is well cultivated, and produces every kind of grain. The mountains contain silver, lead, copper, and particularly iron. The iron mines have been worked above 1000 years; yet they continue to be very productive; and the Styrian steel is in great estimation. The chief mines are in the neighbourhood of Eisenerz to the westward of Leoben. Here a bed of sparry ore forms the greater part of a hill called the Erzberg, which is 2840 feet high, and nearly five miles in circumference at its base. The whole produce of this district, in the course of the 18th century, amounted to 65,757,650 centners of ore, each being equal to 123 pounds avoirdupois, which yielded 21,919,210 centners of raw iron. As these mines are now worked with greater attention and skill, they have in the present century been proportionally more productive. The salt-mines of Sandling and Ausee are likewise worked to great advantage. That article is procured in two modes, either as rock-salt in square masses, cut from the solid walls of the pit, or, when it is less pure, by introducing water into chambers formed for the purpose. At Ausee the mine consists of eleven levels or stories, driven into the mountain, the highest of which levels is 2700 feet above the sea. Fine quarries of marble are also found in the limestone districts of this province. The culture of the vine is not perfectly understood by the people; yet, in some parts, great quantities of excellent wine are made. Styria abounds in noble forests, a great part of the timber supplied by which is consumed for fuel, or converted into charcoal, for smelting and manufacturing iron. To convey the wood from the spot where it grows to that where it is wanted, or the rivers down which it is to be floated, slides, called Riesen, are used. These slides are "semicircular troughs formed of six or eight fir trees placed side by side, and smoothed by stripping off the bark, and extending sometimes a length of many miles. They are constructed so as to preserve a gradual descent, are not always straight, but are made to curve round the shoulders of the mountains, being at times carried in tunnels through projecting rocks, and, at others, conducted over ravines and depressions on the tops of tall stems, like the piers of a bridge, until they terminate on the borders of some stream capable of carrying them onwards. The great slide of Alpnach, in Switzerland, was constructed in the same manner; it was, however, a first attempt, and did not succeed. The Austrian forests are everywhere traversed by these contrivances, which form, in fact, a rude railroad for the timber. Let the traveller take heed in passing these slides, after snow or rain *has fallen.* The wood-cutter waits for such

favourable circumstances, when the ground is supported with the roots and trunks of beech, from which the timber, which has been cut many weeks before. The river bears it with the rapidity of an arrow, and it would be certain destruction to encounter one of its current so great is the force that they acquire: but if by chance a log strikes against any impediment in the sides of the bank, it is tossed out by the shock, and either snapped in two the way, or shivered to splinters."

Gratz, the capital, was regularly fortified at the time of the French invasion, in 1797: but its castle was then demolished, and most of the other works were afterwards destroyed by the emperor's order. It stands in a romantic valley, and some parts are well built: it is adorned with handsome churches, and is rich in charitable institutions, and in establishments for education. Among the former, the most remarkable is a comprehensive system for the care of the poor, consisting of seven departments: one is a general hospital; another relates to the comfortable accouchement of unmarried women; the third part of the institution provides for the support of orphans and foundlings; by the fourth, an asylum is established for lunatics; the aged are maintained in the fifth division; and the two last comprise eleemosynary funds connected with the hospital and the almshouse. The principal place of education is the Lyceum, which bears one great character of a university, as it confers degrees in theology and philosophy: but the instruction is not confined to those branches; for medicine, law, and political economy, are also objects of attention. The annexed library consists of 110,000 volumes, which are open to general perusal. An institution, called the Johanneum, from the archduke John, deserves notice for its importance and utility. That intelligent prince, having employed himself in repeated surveys of Styria, had collected a large store of minerals, a great number of botanic specimens, a variety of manufactured products, a large library, and many sets of philosophical instruments; and, for the benefit of the citizens and the provincials, he deposited these accumulations in a spacious house, with a view to the establishment of scientific lectures. Considerable additions were made to the collection by a nobleman named Egger, and other votaries of science; and the institution has diffused information and improvement. In the city and its neighbourhood, several manufactures are conducted with spirit, not only in those branches which are connected with the mineral produce of the country, but in the articles of silk, cotton, leather, paper, and glass. The population of the town amounts to 40,000.

When, after the disastrous campaign of 1805, Napoleon compelled the Austrian monarch to cede the territory to the south of the Save, he gave to the cessions which he obtained in that quarter, the name of the Illyrian provinces. When the decline of war gave th[illegible] to the original possessor, he restore[illegible] the kingdom of Illyria. The part[illegible] that government consists of the du[illegible] Styria and Carinthia Istria, Gori[illegible] city of Trieste. It is divided into [illegible] ments: that of Laybach, which [illegible] circles of Laybach, Neustadt, Ad[illegible] lach, and Klagenfurth, and that which comprehends the city of [illegible] the circles of Gorizia and Istria. [illegible] population of 1,650,000 souls.

The duchy of Carinthia, situated [illegible] west of Styria, is still more mou[illegible] woody than that province, and con[illegible] of iron and lead: but there are mar[illegible] leys which yield wheat and other g[illegible] not sufficient to supply the wants [illegible] bitants. This territory is 100 mil[illegible] and 40 miles in breadth. It is div[illegible] circles of Clagenfurth and Villac[illegible] so named from the chief towns. [illegible] city is small, but not ill built: the [illegible] broad, and some of them open in [illegible] squares. It has some monaste[illegible] escaped the reforming spirit of [illegible] Joseph: a university, a lyceum, a [illegible] the encouragement of agricultu[illegible] useful arts, and an asylum for the [illegible] dren of soldiers. Many of its [illegible] whose whole number is between [illegible] 13,000, are employed in manufact[illegible] fine cloth, ribbons, and muslin. It [illegible] an insalubrious abode, by the vicin[illegible] from which a canal leads to the riv[illegible] which is situated at the confluence [illegible] with the Drave, has some handso[illegible] with 2400 inhabitants, and a brisk [illegible] cularly in iron and steel.

The duchy of Carniola, to the sou[illegible] is also in general mountainous; yet [illegible] yield not only good pasturage, b[illegible] corn, millet, hemp, and the best [illegible] Austrian dominions. In the mo[illegible] mines of iron, lead, and copper; [illegible] stones are sometimes found. The [illegible] mines of Idria, in this duchy, ma[illegible] dered as a natural curiosity. Th[illegible] worked, and are very productive. [illegible] is by stone stairs and ladders, and [illegible] extend to the length of 1580 feet. [illegible] pal rivers are the Save, the Laybe[illegible] Gurk. Various kinds of fruit, as [illegible] walnuts, olives, oranges, citrons, le[illegible] granates, almonds, and figs, aboun[illegible] black cattle and horses are bred in [illegible] bers. The principal manufactu[illegible] those which depend on mineralogy, [illegible] linen, and lace: there are also so[illegible] glass-houses. The inhabitants [illegible] most part, of Sclavonian origin; [illegible] robust and hardy race, less indolen[illegible] Carinthian neighbours.

Laybach is the capital of this p[illegible] the see of an archbishop; but it is [illegible] some town, nor is it flourishing c[illegible]

number of its inhabitants is about 13,000. y carry on, however, some trade in oil, , and cutlery, and manufacture good linen some silken articles. The mountain castle is city has degenerated into a prison.

considerable part of this duchy has lately added to the government of the coast, or maritime provinces—a spacious tract, ex- ing from the Trevigiano to the borders of atia. In the Litorale, as this territory rled, is included the peninsula of Istria, h, before the French Revolution, belonged enice, and the capital of which is Capo ria, a small town on an island in the Gulf ieste, connected with the continent by a e of very uncommon length, and contain- cathedral, several monasteries, a well- ived aqueduct, salt-works, and 5000 inha- ts. Pola, in the same peninsula, is situated a mountain, dignified, as well as the r town, by an episcopate, and rendered ject of curiosity by the remains of a fine itheatre, which was capable of containing spectators; the temples of Augustus and ; the triumphal arch of the Porto Aures, nd other Roman antiquities. The air of is not very salubrious, and the soil is not ost fertile; but it affords good pasturage, ces oil, and supplies ship-wrights with r; and its vineyards annually furnish to the amount of 120,000 eimers—a Ger- measure equal to fifteen English wine- s. In the towns, the people are chiefly lian extraction; but the inhabitants of ral districts are of Sclavonian descent.

counties of Goritz and Gradisca are com- nded within the boundaries of the Litorale. produce corn, wine, and oil; and the owns have some trade and manufactures. , with a population of 9000, is an arch- ric, and Gradisca an episcopate; and the r town boasts of a fine cathedral, and a y and scientific society.

most flourishing town in this maritime s Trieste, which possesses a spacious and harbour, and the advantages of a free Its inhabitants are about 50,000, among are Roman Catholics, Greeks, Lutherans, sts, and Jews. Its manufactures are of silk, velvet, thread, porcelain, soap, paint, and leather; but its chief trade is mission. It supplies the Austrian do- s with almost every article of foreign e, and is, in particular, a great depôt for rchandise of the Levant. Its trade is couraged by the court of Vienna than Venice, though the latter might be ren- more important and beneficial. Fiume, belongs to the district called the Hun- Litorale, is also a free port, and has con- le trade. The town is well built, has abitants, and is adorned with churches eventual structures. Buccari, which is same district, has likewise a thriving In consequence of its commodious e.

The county of Tyrol connects the Austrian territories in Germany with the new kingdom of Lombardy, or, as it is sometimes called, the Lombardo-Venetian realm. It is 150 miles long and 120 miles broad, with a population of about 828,000. It is extremely mountainous, the chain of the Noric or Rhætian Alps running through its whole length, and rivalling the Alps of Switzerland in numerous glaciers. It contains mines of silver, copper, and lead, and produces corn and wine, very fine flax, and silk. The wild animals are bears, wolves, and foxes; and the domestic, horses, black cattle, and sheep. The capital is Innsbruck, or Innspruck, situated in a charming valley on the banks of the Inn. It is a well-built town, with 13,000 inhabitants, but neither very large nor strong. In the castle, the hall and picture-gallery are entitled to the notice of strangers, to whom the library, treasury, and armoury, are also shown among the curiosities of the place. Some fine churches and monasteries likewise embellish the town. The university is less flourishing than it formerly was, being degraded into a Lyceum; but it still presents considerable advantages to the votaries of literature. Manufactures and trade, at the same time, usefully exercise the industry of the inhabitants. Gloves, bonnets, and other articles of dress, are here made, both for immediate consumption and exportation: all kinds of glass are prepared with skill; and the varied produce of the country is sent to many parts of Germany and Italy.

The territories of Trent and Brixen are included in the county of Tyrol; but the bishops are no longer invested with temporal jurisdiction. Trent has acquired fame in ecclesiastical history, by the council which met in one of its churches from the year 1545 to 1562. It is a well-built and picturesque town, with 12,000 inhabitants; but has little trade; and it is rendered a disagreeable abode, by the violent heat of the summer and the intense cold of the winter. Brixen is much less populous than Trent, having only about 3600 inhabitants. In both cities, the people manifest a greater tendency to the manners of Italy than to those of Germany.

The Tyrolese, properly so called, are a brave and hardy race, simple and frank in their manners, and temperate in their habits. When governed with moderation, they are not licentious or refractory; but, when treated with tyrannic cruelty, as they were by the French, and also by the king of Bavaria, during that temporary sway which he obtained over them by his connexion with Napoleon, they are ready to rush to arms, and to take severe revenge for the provocations which they have received. On such occasions, the females partake of the indignation which animates the men, and display the most undaunted spirit. The Tyrolese are formidable enemies; for in the use of the rifle there are few who can equal them. In all these *provinces, the* established religion is the Roman

Catholic, attended indeed with a toleration of other modes of worship. The language, in general, is the German, though impure; but in some parts the Wendish, or Sclavonian, is spoken by the common people; and, in the southern provinces, the Italian, at least a dialect of that language, prevails.

The other countries which compose the Austrian monarchy, and are considered as being out of Germany, will be described separately in order.

REVENUE.—The revenue of the emperor of Austria, derived from his hereditary dominions, did not, in 1806, far exceed £16,250,000 in sterling money, if indeed it amounted to that sum; and it is stated that the exigencies of that year were calculated at £22,000,000. In 1814, the deficiency of regular supply was considerably greater; so that it became necessary to issue an additional number of bank-bills; and the government has sometimes relieved itself by an arbitrary reduction of the value of these bills, to the great detriment of public credit. In 1808, the general funded debt amounted to £75,000,000 sterling, exclusive of the debt of each province, contracted on its own security. The war of 1809, and the succeeding war, greatly augmented the public debt; but it is now in a train of liquidation. The revenue in 1841 was supposed to be between £15,000,000 and £16,000,000 sterling; but the financial affairs of Austria are kept so studiously secret, that it is impossible to obtain any certain information on the subject. It is not altogether creditable to the government, that the contributions to the national treasury are ill proportioned to the means of individuals, the nobles and the clergy being assessed in a partial degree, while the chief burden falls on the middle class.

ARMY AND NAVY.—The military force of Austria, on the peace establishment, in the year 1801, was stated, from official returns, at 328,600 men. It has since, at times, been considerably more numerous, if we include in the calculation all the dependencies of the empire. In 1841, it consisted of 210,000 infantry, 45,000 frontier militia, 39,924 cavalry, and 17,790 artillery. It is only of late years that Austria has aspired to become a naval power. Her present maritime force is 8 sail of the line, 8 frigates, 4 corvettes, 6 brigs, and some smaller vessels. Of the remarkable military system, adopted in Hungary and other provinces, the chief features will be hereafter displayed.

TITLE.—The title of the sovereign of Austria, since his assumption of the hereditary imperial dignity, is as follows:—Ferdinand I., by the grace of God, hereditary Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary, Bohemia, Lombardy, and Venice, Archduke of Austria, Duke of Lorraine, Saltsburg, &c.

BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA.

BOHEMIA, or Boheim, or Boienheim, signifies the home or residence of the Boii, a Celtic nation, who removed into that country from Gaul, before the expedition of The present inhabitants call them from Czech, the name of one of chiefs. They are of Sclavonic o

EXTENT AND SITUATION OF

	Miles.		Deg
Length, 200 }	between	{	12. 16.
Breadth, 175 }		{	48. 33.

Containing 20,000 square miles, inhabitants to each.

Moravia derives its name f Morawa, which runs through it.

EXTENT AND SITUATION OF

	Miles.		Deg
Length, 130 }	between	{	15. 10.
Breadth, 90 }		{	48. 40.

Containing 8200 square miles, inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.—Bohemia is bo north by Misnia and Lusatia; o Silesia and Moravia, on the sout duchy of Austria, and on the west and Bavaria.

Moravia is bounded on the no on the east by Hungary, on Austria, and on the west by Boh

DIVISIONS.—Bohemia is divi sixteen circles of Buntzlau, Chrudim, Kaurzim, Beraun, Ra Leutmeritz, Bidschow, Czaslau, weis, Prachin, Klattau, Pilsen, an The city of Prague is not includ of these circles, but forms a distr

Moravia forms six circles; nar Olmutz, Brunn, Znaim, Iglau, Prerau; which are the names of tive chief towns.

MOUNTAINS AND FORESTS.—Bo rounded with mountains and wo interior it has an undulating many extensive plains. On the is divided from Upper Saxony b birge, and to the north-east fro the Sudetic chain and the Gian on the south-east and south it from Moravia and the archduchy the Moravian heights; and on th for its boundaries the Fichtel m the Bohemian forests.

RIVERS AND LAKES.—Beside th we have noticed in our account the chief rivers of Bohemia are th the Eger, or Egra. The former ri the southern mountains, and, a about 50 miles to the south-east, northward, and joins the Elbe n The latter rises in Franconia, run ward through the territory of B Bohemia, and falls into the Elbe merits. In the county of Glatz first appears, and, when it has t ravia, discharges itself into the D west of Presburg. In Bohemia lakes; but they are not extensiv able.

METALS AND MINERALS.—Bohe

silver, quicksilver, iron, copper, dally tin; also sulphur, saltpetre, smuth, antimony, vitriol, alum, may, indeed, be considered as st favoured countries in Europe, o mineral productions. Above ns and places might be named rorks have been established. s of marble, and many kinds of s, are found here; but, in general, nt in hardness. In Moravia, in unn, are iron-mines and quarries id in the circle of Znaim were -mines: at present there are sulphur, saltpetre, and vitriol.

IL, AND PRODUCE.—The climate warm, pleasant, and not insalu- l is in general rich, but in some

It is very fertile in corn, in len and orchard fruits, and ex- Moravia resembles Bohemia in l, and produce; but agriculture itood and conducted in the latter

he wild animals of Bohemia are volves, foxes, martens, badgers, while the tame quadrupeds are eep, and an excellent breed of oods abound in game and wild via is found a species of leopard dog, but thicker, called rysowe nts.

AND NATIONAL CHARACTER.— of Bohemia was estimated by at 2,806,493, and that of Moravia it the present amount is about e former country, and nearly latter. The Bohemians of a in their persons, habits, and ible the Germans; but the rest ave a greater similarity to the id Sclavonians. Two-thirds of are of Sclavonic descent: the they call themselves is Czeches. nely fond of music and singing, ral, remarkable for intelligence memory. For ages, there was, no middle state of people; for a sovereign, and every tenant a II. generously discharged the ants, on the imperial demesnes, of villanage in which they had id so unjustly retained; and he les to follow his example. His e not, in this instance, attended obedience; but, from the in- lity of the times, slavery is now ning.

Bohemians, at present, are not her for arts or arms, they for- ished themselves as the most rs of civil and religious liberty ness the early introduction of eligion into their country, the s which they gave to the Aus- id their generous struggles for independence. But, as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit, they were at length overawed into subserviency; and, indeed, their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection.

The Moravians are partly of German and partly of Sclavonian origin. A small tract, near Olmutz, is occupied by the Hannacks, who are supposed by the native statistic writers to be the unmixed descendants of the earliest inhabitants of this country. They are apparently a Sclavonic tribe. Their manners are simple and unaffected: they are remarkably sober and temperate; and, if they are liable to the reproach of indolence, it is palliated, as they allege, by the fertility of their soil. Their young women are distinguished by the grace and elegance of their forms, and the neat adjustment of their dresses, which are very picturesque; and the men also are gay in their summer clothing; but, in the winter, they wear an ill-looking fur cap, and sometimes throw over their shoulders a brown woollen cloak, but more frequently the undressed skin of a sheep or a wolf.

CHIEF TOWNS.—The capital of Bohemia is Prague, situated almost in the centre of the kingdom, on both sides of the Moldau. It is more than twelve miles in circumference, and contains about 119,000 inhabitants, who occupy four towns, or divisions of the city. The most ancient part stands in a valley near the river: it has broad streets, and some churches of curious architecture. That which is called the new town has the greatest number of houses, most of which are well built; it also exhibits the arsenal, and the Wischerad, an ancient fortress. The royal and archiepiscopal palaces, and the chief public buildings, are in that division which is denominated Hradschin. The cathedral is a fine structure in the Gothic style, beautifully placed on the steep side of the western hill, overlooking the river, the magnificent bridge, and the greater part of the city. It contains four angels of cast silver upon two altars, the silver tomb of St. John Nepomuc, a number of revered relics, and the monuments of many of the Bohemian kings. The bridge, which is 1790 German feet long, is adorned with the statues of twenty-nine saints —an attraction which occasions the frequent resort of Catholics, who implore the favour of those supposed mediators between God and sinful men. In that which is called the old town, the university, founded in 1348 by the emperor Charles IV., displays its venerable buildings, which, however, in comparison with former times, are nearly deserted by the votaries of learning. The church of the Holy Cross, famous for its columns, cupolas, and paintings; the churches of St. Michael and St. James and the Clementine college, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, but now comprehending five places of worship, a medical apartment, a room consigned to mathematical and philosophical

pursuits, an observatory, a valuable library, a printing office, and an elegant theatre, are also among the ornaments of this division. The Jews, who form about a tenth part of the population of Prague, are crowded in wretched habitations, which are considered as a part of the old town; they were formerly separated from it by six gates, which were shut at night, but the gates have been removed, and the richer Jews have now houses in the better parts of the town. They are allowed to have synagogues; and they share in the general trade, which, notwithstanding the inland situation of the city, is far from being inconsiderable.

Olmütz was regarded as the capital of Moravia, before it was eclipsed by the fame of Brünn. It is a strong town, with nearly 20,000 inhabitants, but is unpleasantly situated among the marshy branches of the Morawa. The buildings are massive and substantial; but they are too lofty and very inelegant, raised for the most part upon square buttresses, with arcades. It has a university, which was re-established in 1827. Its trade is inconsiderable. The celebrated Wallenstein was educated at the college of Nobles in this town.

Brunn, which, including the garrison of 3000 men, has 40,000 inhabitants, is now the station of the chief public offices connected with the Moravian government; but the states of the province meet alternately at this town and at Olmütz. The fortifications of Brünn are very ancient, and were formerly important; but the bastions have been suffered to fall into decay, and the fosses and other parts are occupied by dye-works and tan-pits. The castle of Spielberg, on a lofty hill, was formerly the citadel, but it was dismantled by the French, and is now used as a state prison. Beside the religious edifices, the most considerable buildings are the meeting-house of the states, the townhouse, and the palace of Prince Lichtenstein. The manufactures are well conducted and flourishing; and that of fine woollen even begins to rival the broad cloth of England; so that Brünn is considered as the Austrian Leeds.

Manufactures and Commerce.—A great variety of useful articles are fabricated in these provinces. Linen is manufactured to a large amount; cotton and silk stuffs are neatly wrought; the woollen branch is rapidly increasing; hats, paper, leather, glass, wooden articles, and musical instruments, are also produced by the ingenious and industrious artisans. In addition to these articles of traffic, great quantities of metals, vegetable products, and cattle, are exported; and the balance of trade is considerably in favour of the citizens and provincials; but it has been remarked, that "the non-residence of the land-holders, who are at the same time proprietors of the manufactures, prevents the country from reaping the benefits that might be derived from this favourable balance, as the profits, instead of adding to the general capital, are for the most part squandered in the Austrian metropolis."

Constitution and Governme times, the Bohemians enjoyed t of a representative government; b rent freedom is now merely nor the states of the realm are suffe and offer humble advice to the They consist of four orders—t nobles, knights, and burgesses— leges are superseded by that des regulates the affairs of the count hemian chancery at Vienna, and terial council at Prague. The pre council is called the superior bur circle has a separate court of jud which an appeal lies to the supr of Prague. The political and judi of Moravia are regulated in a sim

Revenue and Army.—The Bo nue is said to exceed £2,250,000 ste part of which is appropriated to t garrisons. About 50,000 men con litary establishment of Bohemia c and about 15,000 are maintained out of a revenue which is less tha

Religion.—The established re hemia is the Roman Catholic; y many Protestants among the in the north-eastern parts, who, sin of Joseph II., have been tolerate exercise of their worship. The Moravia is in like manner Cath there are many Lutherans; and s ber of the Moravians have embr cular system, which they have pr their zealous missionaries in vari the globe.

The manners and practices of which Count Zinzendorff was t founder, deserve more particular n are neither Lutherans nor Calvin tertain some of the opinions of sects. No regular priests belong ternity; but the most respectable nately perform the sacerdotal d therly love unites all the members munity in the closest links of fri each village which they inhabit, a is chosen from the elders, and is the direction of their affairs, unde of a committee of the district. ' more to manufacturing industry than to agriculture; and their prof sited in a general fund, out of w maintained on a footing of equ the old and infirm live as comfo young and able-bodied; and the of rich and poor are wholly unkn them.

Universities.—Bohemia poss versity—that of Prague, 26 gymna schools, 3 philosophical and 3 seminaries, several institutions, school for educating teachers, 40 h and 2556 common schools. Mor university of Olmutz, gymnasia in and about 1500 schools of an inferi

ia.—The language of Bohemia is a
he Slavonic; that of Moravia differs
from it; but German is very com-
:en in both countries, and most of
are acquainted with the French

.—The Boii were driven out of
r the Marcomanni; and the country
erwards a province of the Ostro-
nbards, Thuringians, and Franks,
i it was overrun by the Slavi.
ne and some of his successors made
nhabitants tributary; but they soon
eir independence, though they con-
preserve a certain connexion with
i empire. They were governed for
ries by dukes; but the royal dig-
ranted in 1061 to Ladislaus, by the
enry IV. In 1208, Otho IV. ad-
king of Bohemia, as a privileged
the dignity of an elector of the
n the death of Wenceslaus V., in
ale line of the Sclavonian kings
he crown devolved to the House of
. Of this family was the emperor
, by whose wisdom the state of the
s improved. His son Sigismund
is character by suffering the re-
hn Huss and Jerome of Prague, to
eath by an iniquitous sentence of
of Constance; and he was exposed
per of losing the Bohemian crown
which arose with the Hussites. He
ded by his son-in-law, Albert of
descendant of Rodolph count of
The throne was next possessed by
e son of Albert; but, on his death,
e states of the realm afterwards
eir right of free election, by choos-
Podiebrad, a native nobleman, for
On the decease of Louis, who fell
e of Mohacz, in 1526, Ferdinand of
ring espoused Anne, the sister of
h, asserted his pretensions to the
the states, influenced by the great
i brother Charles V., and not aware
rary character of the new candi-
l him, in 1527, for their sovereign-
r their kindness, he governed them
of iron, in consequence of their
ied to join him in a war against
ant princes of Germany; and he
declared Bohemia an arbitrary,
ringdom. His son, the emperor
II., and his grandsons, Rodolph
s, had sufficient power to prevent
ion from the sovereignty. In the
i last of those princes, the states
o accept his nephew Ferdinand as
s Protestant subjects, complaining
agement of the privileges granted
y, invited the elector palatine to
e Austrian prince. He yielded to
nations; and soon felt the effect of
nce, being defeated in the battle of
dispossessed *even of his electoral* dominions. Bohemia then became what Ferdinand I. had declared it to be; and it has from that time been a mere appendage to the Austrian monarchy.

Moravia was formerly inhabited by the Quadi, who were overpowered in the sequel by Slavonian adventurers. During three centuries, it appears to have formed an independent kingdom; but it was subdued by the Bohemians about the year 1050, and has subsequently followed the fate of their realm.

THE KINGDOM OF GALITZIA AND LODOMERIA.

The name of this kingdom is derived from the names of two principalities of which it anciently consisted; the one of which was called Galitz in Russian, and Halitz in Polish, the other Volodimir, Vladimir, or Lodomer, by the Russians. The kingdom now consists of that part of the spoliation of Poland which fell to the share of Austria, with the addition of the Buckovine.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, about 300	between	18. 54. and 26. 37. E. long.	
Breadth, about 200		47. 10. and 50. 50. N. lat.	

Containing 32,508 square miles, with about 140 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries and Divisions.—Galitzia is bounded, on the north, by the republic of Cracow, Poland, and Russia; on the south-east by Moldavia; on the south and south-west, by Transylvania and Hungary; and on the west, by Hungary, and Austrian and Prussian Silesia. It is divided into nineteen circles: Wadovicze, Bochnia, Sandecz, Tarnof, Yaslo, Rzeszof, Lemberg, Przemysl, Sanok, Sambor, Stry, Stanislavof, Kolomea, Brzezan, Zloczof, Zolkief, Tarnopol, Czortkof, and Czernovitz: the latter circle is formed of the Buckovine, which was formerly called Austrian Moldavia.

Mountains, Rivers, and Lakes.—The principal mountains are the Carpathian, or Krapack, which stretch along the whole of the southern frontier, and send out numerous branches. The Buckovine is, in fact, covered with offsets from this elevated range. The loftiest peaks are the Babia Gora, which is between 5000 and 6000 feet above the level of the sea; the Rohicz, which is 7230; and the Great Kryvan, which is about 8300. The most note-worthy rivers are the Vistula, which has several considerable tributaries; the Dniester, and the Pruth. In the Carpathians there are numerous small lakes, which have the singular name of Eyes of the Sea. The largest is the Fish Lake, 4500 feet above the sea level. In the neighbourhood of Lemberg, and towards the eastern frontier, there are also several lakes. There are about 30 acidulous, chalybeate, and sulphuretted springs.

Metals and Minerals.—Iron is frequent *in Galitzia, especially* in the neighbourhood of

wheat, rye, oats, and barley are the principal kinds of grain, and the total produce is estimated at 7,200,000 quarters; of which rye constitutes 1,560,000 quarters; barley, 2,071,000; oats, 2,900,000; wheat only 670,000; and maize, 22,220.

ANIMALS.—The wild animals are bears, wolves, lynxes, foxes, roebucks, and hares; the tame animals are horses, oxen, and sheep.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, EDUCATION, AND RELIGION.—The population is about 4,600,000, of which about 2,900,000 are of Polish descent; a large majority of the rest are a rude race, called Ruthenes or Russniaks, and the remainder are Moldavians, Jews, Germans, and Hungarians. The scholastic establishments are too few in number for their purpose. The whole do not amount to 1400; and not more than one out of eight children attends a school. The major part of the Galitzians are Roman Catholics; the rest are Greek Nonconformists, with a few Armenians and Protestants.

GOVERNMENT.—The civil administration of the kingdom is carried on by a board of provincial administration, which is established at Lemberg, and to which all the nineteen Galitzian circles are subordinate. The court of appeal, the chief criminal court, and the head quarters of the commander-in-chief, are also in the same town.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.—The manufactures of Galitzia are yet in an infant state. The materials for their own clothing are in general made by the country people. There are manufactories for spinning and weaving flax, hemp, and wool; a few paper mills; and

money, wax, tallow, and leather, are cipal exports; the imports are chiefl produce and manufactured goods.

THE KINGDOM OF HUNG

THE name of Hungary has been usual from the Huns, who anciently poss country; but Mr. Gibbon finds its that of the Ugri, or Ugours, a Tarta who migrated from the confines of C after overrunning a great part of established themselves in this coun 10th century.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 320	} between	{	14. and 25.
Breadth, 210		{	44. and 49.

Containing 87,812 square miles, with inhabitants to each.

DIVISIONS AND BOUNDARIES.—The of Hungary consists of Hungary Pr vonia, Croatia, and five districts, den the Hungarian Litorale, Jazygia, I Great Kumania, and the Heyduck Hungary Proper is divided into fou two named from the Danube, and tw Theiss, which are subdivided into 46 Slavonia and Croatia form each three This tract of country is bounded on by Moravia and Galitzia, on the east sylvania, on the south by the milita of Slavonia and Croatia, which se from Turkey, and on the west by Illyr and Lower Austria. In common Hungary is usually distinguished i and Lower.

detached mountains are found in the country. The grand chain extends in a semicircular form, from the mountain of Javornik toward the north-west; it afterwards bends to the south-east. Near the centre of the chain is the Lomnitz peak, the highest point of the whole mass, about 8640 feet above the level of the sea. The Kryvan is nearly as high; but even these portions of the mass are not so elevated above moderate temperature, as to exhibit glaciers or any other tokens of perpetual frigidity. They are rarely visited, except by the hunters of the chamois, or by some adventurers who, in the hope of finding gold and precious stones, despise the dangers of the ascent. Among the detached mountains are those of Matra, (near the centre of the kingdom,) Avas, and Farkas. In the Carpathians, and in some other mountains, there are numberless caverns, some of which are beautifully adorned by stalactites, while others contain the fossil remains of those enormous animals which had possession of the globe before man was in existence.

Rivers, Lakes, and Mineral Springs.—The principal rivers are the Danube, Theiss, and Drave. The first enters the country near Presburg, passes through Raab and Komorn, divides Buda from Pesth, and then runs to the southward until it reaches Slavonia. The Theiss rises in a link of the Carpathian chain, receives the Koros and the Maros, and falls into the Danube, near Belgrade. The Drave forms a boundary between Hungary and various parts of Croatia and Slavonia, and joins the Danube below Essek.

Some considerable lakes are found in this country, particularly that which bears the name of Balaton or Platten. It is not very deep, for the depth of it rarely exceeds 27 feet; but its length is computed at 48 miles, while its breadth varies from 4 to 9. Its shores are in general low; but in some parts they are precipitous. It abounds with fine fish; and the shores are frequented by the white pelican, the bittern, and many other species of wild-fowl. The next in magnitude is that of Neusiedl, the length of which is about 24 miles, and the breadth from 3 to 7.

Mineral springs are particularly numerous in the northern parts of Hungary; and, in the Saros county alone, above seventy-two are mentioned by those who have made inquiries respecting their number. Some of these springs are hot, and others cold and acidulous. Of the former, the most remarkable are at Pesth and Gunswardein: of the latter, the most frequented are those of Fured, Bartfeld, and Radoblan.

Metals and Minerals.—Hungary contains mines of gold, silver, lead, copper, iron, very rich antimony, coal, salt, and alum. Tin is the only metal which it does not possess. The gold-mines are at Kremnitz, about 40 miles to the south of the Carpathian mountains; and the silver at Schemnitz, about 20 miles farther to the south. The mine of Catharina-Stollen is the richest, and not only yields the more valuable metals, but also produces excellent copper. In the mining district of Schemnitz there are five principal mineral courses, which run almost parallel to each other nearly east and west, and are connected by various branches. They have been explored to the depth of 300 fathoms. Each course has scattered veins of rich ore, from two to four inches in thickness, opening here and there in cavities coated by crystals of the ore, with quartz, calcareous spar, &c. In this part there are twelve royal mines, beside many which belong to private individuals, who are obliged to dispose of the ore to the government at a fixed rate. The country is intersected at different levels by the galleries of mines, forming a stupendous subterranean tract, which to strangers would be a labyrinth, but which is defined and divided with little difficulty by the crown miners, and those who work for private proprietors. In the Schmalnitz mining district, the chief produce is copper, with which silver is sometimes intermixed; but there are also mines of very good iron, and a mine has been discovered at Czerweniza, containing that beautiful gem, the opal, which has not been found in any other country. In the Nagy-Banya division, some gold-mines are worked, without producing any great quantity of metal. The mineral produce of the Banat is not considerable, as it comprehends very little copper, less silver, and no gold. In the mines, forges, and works of these four districts, about 50,000 persons are employed. To promote the skilful management of these pursuits, a college has been organized at Schemnitz, where lectures are given by intelligent chemists and mineralogists; and it is expected that all who wish to become officers of the mines, or to direct the operations, should study for three years, and obtain certificates of their proficiency.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.—The climate of the southern part of Hungary is rendered unhealthful by its numerous lakes, stagnant waters, and marshes; but, in the northern part, which is mountainous and barren, the air is pure and wholesome. Few countries can boast a richer soil, than that plain which diffuses itself to a wide extent between Presburg and Belgrade, and produces abundantly corn, maize, grass, tobacco, saffron, asparagus, melons, potatoes, hops, pulse, millet, and fine fruit of various kinds.

In speaking of the produce of this kingdom, the culture of the vine seems to require particular notice, because wine is a valuable article of exportation. The vines are planted both upon stony hills and in fertile valleys: in the former situation, their vegetation is feeble, but when they have received due attention, they yield rich and generous wine; in the latter position, they produce a much greater quantity of fruit, which, however, makes very inferior wine. The propagation of this plant is effected in *three modes*. Cuttings, or small twigs, are

collected in the spring, bound together, and put into the earth in some shady place, where they take root; and, in the month of June, they are planted out in their proper places; or a branch is bent down, inserted in the ground, and, when it has taken root, separated from the parent stem; or the whole old stock is laid down, and the branches are so distributed as to give new trees in the direction required. Above 200 different sorts of wine are reckoned. That of Tokay is the best: but there are many less palatable sorts which pass under that denomination; and the wine of Menes is thought by some to be scarcely inferior to Tokay. Not content with procuring wine from the fresh grape, ausbruch (a sweet liquor) from the raisin, brandy from the skin, and syrup from the unfermented juice, the Germans and Hungarians have even endeavoured to procure oil, for burning and for other purposes, from the stone; an attempt which, though it has not completely succeeded, has not entirely failed. A million of acres are dedicated to the cultivation of the vine, and the annual produce, even in middling years, is estimated at 96,000,000 gallons.

ANIMALS.—The horses of Hungary have been praised as an excellent breed; but it appears that they have not justly obtained their high reputation; though it must be allowed that they are strong, and capable of bearing great fatigue. Uncommon pains have been recently taken to improve the breed; and some noblemen have introduced horse-races on the English plan. The horned cattle are large, active, and vigorous: they are of a greyish white, with large wide-spreading horns, and are among the finest in Europe. The original breed of sheep had coarse hairy wool, and upright spiral horns; but, by crossing and varying the stock, particularly with merinos, that breed has been greatly diminished. Buffaloes are not uncommon in this country; and they are used, like oxen, in agriculture. Among the wild animals are wolves, bears, and boars; but the two last are very rare. Innumerable herds of swine are bred in the forests. Game, and wild and tame fowls, are abundant. The bustard, once an inhabitant of England, is still to be seen in flocks of 40 or 50, on the Hungarian plains.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—Near Szadelo, about 30 miles from Kaschau, is an extraordinary cavern, of such extent that it is reported by the natives to reach several miles under the hills, and has never been completely explored. It includes within it different caves and passages, which contain numerous stalactites of various sizes. "It is such a labyrinth," says Dr. Townson, "that I firmly believe that a man, once lost in it, though he might have lights and food enough to last him a month, would not be able to find his way out." And Kovatinsky, a German writer, says that it is of such astonishing length, that two members of the Royal Society of London, who were sent some years ago into Hungary, to and other curiosities, after rer three days, could never get to th find an opening.

Near Szilitz is another celeb about 100 feet in breadth, 150 feet 25 feet in height. From the ro hangs an immense icicle, or rath of icicles; and in one corner is a ice. This ice, it is said, thaws when the ground without is cover and freezes again amidst the heat But this is an exaggeration, in cc the observers depending too m feelings; the cave, probably, alw the same temperature, which ha to be that of the freezing point.

POPULATION.—Before the Tu possession of Constantinople, l one of the most populous and flou doms in Europe; and, if the Hot should give the proper encourag inhabitants to clear their fens, and natural advantages of their coun become so again. Of late years m ments have been introduced, and t of the country is consequently in 1834, the population of Hungary joining provinces, Transylvania r was 11,404,350. It is probably n 12,000,000 at the present time.

NATIONAL CHARACTER, MANNE TOMS.—The Hungarians, in their well made; and their fur caps, the coat girded by a sash, and the clos which is so contrived as to buck arm, so that the right hand may l liberty, give them an air of milit They shave their beards, but pr whiskers on their upper lips. Thei are the broad-sword, and a kind besides their fire-arms. The lad koned more handsome than those and their sable dress, with long their stays fastened before with gc diamond buttons, are well known t and English ladies. Both men an what they call the mine-towns, w even sheep-skin dresses. The im rooms are miserable hovels, and ev seldom to be met with. The hogs, the chief animal food for the peasa poultry, frequently live in the same with their owners; but there are m which afford superior accommo allow a proper distinction betwee ings and brutes.

The diversions of the Hungarian warlike and athletic kind. They ar a spirited and magnanimous people cestors were so jealous of their lib rather than be tyrannized over by of Austria, they often put thems the protection of the Ottoman com fidelity to Maria-Theresa, notwiths provocations they had received from

ıe remembered to their honour. qually faithful to her grandson ng the frequent wars which he ith the French.

e population of Hungary consists lled by the natives Czygani, who l, less squalid and thievish than hich wander over Great Britain. a and her son Joseph endeavoured m by various ordinances, which had some effect, as the nomadic gypsies are now rarely found in he Jews are far more numerous y than the supposed descendants ns or the Hindoos; and they are y the same illiberal and over- it which the Israelites in other it. Emigrants from Wallachia, pring, may also be mentioned abitants of the Hungarian realm. to more than 500,000, while the were only 192,000. They under- ture of the vine better than the the peasants; and a great num- illy employed in metallurgic

ıs and Edifices.—Buda, by the d Ofen, is the seat of the Hun- nent; but the cities of Buda and considered as one, for they are l by the Danube, over which lge of boats about 1100 feet in intended to replace this bridge or stone. Buda now contains habitants, but Pesth has at least ida, the Hungarian regalia are e crown, in the year 1784, was nna by order of Joseph II. But ave so great offence, and excited scontent, that it was sent back 90, where it was received with ivagant testimonies of joy, the id suburbs being illuminated. s sent, in the year 1000, by Pope Stephen, king of Hungary, and mitation of that of the Greek of solid gold, weighing 9 marks ornamented with 53 sapphires, e emerald, and 338 pearls. Be- ıes, are the images of the apos- chs. The pope annexed to this patriarchal cross, which was d to the seven towers, the eagle, d moon, which are displayed in ngary. At the ceremony of the ishop carries it before the king. is derived the title of Apostolic which was renewed in the reign sa.

fortress of Buda, which occu- k, contains the palaces of the several nobles, many churches forms within itself a complete town is situated at the foot of the western bank of the river; ro other divisions of *Buda, one* of which is almost entirely peopled with Rascians, a distinct Slavonian community.

Pesth, which is the central point both of inland and foreign trade, was a place of little importance till the reigns of Maria-Theresa and Joseph II.; but it is now annually increasing in its extent, and displays many good streets and handsome houses. It has four fairs in the year, which rival the most frequented fairs of Germany; and, as in those of England, various entertainments and diversions are mingled with the concerns of traffic. While they last, it is calculated that 20,000 strangers and 14,000 waggons pass the outer lines. It has also two theatres, one for German pieces, and the other for the native drama: one building is large and elegant, the other small and contemptible. A national library was formed in this city, in 1804, by the liberality of Count Szecheny: the subsequent donation of a cabinet of natural history has extended the utility of the scheme; and a palace has been purchased for the reception of whatever may conduce, with the former contributions, to the formation of a literary and scientific repository. There is likewise a university at Pesth, founded on a liberal plan, without requiring any of those tests which would confine its benefits to the votaries of the established religion. It is attended by about 1000 students, and the professors and their assistants amount to 90.

A short distance from the town is the Rakosfeld, a plain on which the Hungarian Diet was anciently held in the open air. One hundred thousand persons were sometimes present, all of whom dwelt in tents till the business of the diet was concluded. The first diet held here was that of 1458, which elected Matthias Hunyades as king. The Rakosfeld is now annually used as a race-course.

Presburg, the former capital, contains 35,000 inhabitants. It stands on a hill of moderate elevation, which may be considered as the commencement of the Carpathian chain, overlooking that extensive plain through which the Danube flows. Dr. Bright says, "The town is insignificant: many of the streets are steep and narrow; the good houses are few; and the shops bear a poor and retail character:" but Professor Sennowitz declares, that it is handsome and well built. It has the honour and benefit of a royal Catholic academy and a Lutheran gymnasium; but it has very little trade, being merely a market for wine, and for the interchange of the produce of different parts of Hungary. The remains of the royal palace, which was accidentally destroyed by fire, in 1811, stand on the top of the hill above the town.

Debretzin, in the circle beyond the Theiss, is the most populous town in the whole kingdom, with the exception of Pesth. It is occupied by 45,375 persons; yet they are so inattentive to their own accommodation, that the *town scarcely* exhibits one large or respectable

mansion; for almost all the habitations are thatched cottages. It is a place of great trade; but it is destitute of that bustle and animation which extensive business is apt to create. "The blank walls," says Count Bathyani, "the dark retail shops, the sellers of tobacco-pipes, the smokers, and the dogs, the stillness which reigns in the midst of the daily business, bring to the mind a lively recollection of the dwellings of our eastern neighbours. You are induced to believe that the women are intentionally concealed. The black handkerchiefs, with which they cover their heads, resemble hats, and their blue pelisses, approaching to the uniform of the buzzar, almost disguise their sex. The men are covered with large cloaks, generally of a dark blue, and look under their broad hats as from beneath an umbrella; and the appearance of the multitude, in other places so varied, is here uniform and melancholy." The inhabitants in general live in rural simplicity, estranged from the luxury and dissipation of great cities. The town is famous for its bread, soap, saltpetre, and tobacco-pipes; and literature is not neglected amidst the concerns of trade; for, besides a large Catholic school, there is a reformed or Calvinistic college, which is well frequented.

Except Buda or Pesth, Temeswar, which has about 13,000 inhabitants, is the handsomest town in Hungary. It is the seat of a council of finance, and the residence of a Greek bishop. Gran, with a population of 12,000 souls, was till lately more distinguished by being the see of the Hungarian primate, than by beauty of structure or commercial importance. A splendid cathedral was, however, commenced in 1821, which, when completed, will redeem Gran from the disgrace of having no edifice worthy of notice.

The most populous towns in Hungary, besides those already mentioned, are Ketskemet, 35,786 inhabitants, Zombor, 21,086, Maria-Theresianastadt, 34,924, Neusatz, 20,321, in the Cis Danubian circle—Stuhl-Weissemburg, 20,069, in the Trans-Danubian circle—Miscolez, 27,638, in the Cis-Theiss circle—Szegidin, 32,209, and Hod-Mezo-Vasaherly, 25,806, in the Trans-Theiss circle.

Manufactures and Commerce.—Notwithstanding an ample provision of raw materials, the manufactures of the Hungarians, for a long period, were few and inconsiderable. Maria-Theresa seems to have been the first of their sovereigns who took serious measures for the promotion of that branch of industry and profit. She sent for a number of artisans from the Netherlands, and particularly encouraged silk-weaving and the woollen and cotton branches; but these arts did not greatly flourish, with all her care and attention. The linen which is made in Hungary is of a coarse kind; the cotton articles are not so skilfully wrought as to invite orders from other countries; and the woollen fabrics, though they are improving, are greatly *inferior to those of Moravia*. Glass and earthenware are well manufactured; a kind of felt is made for hats, impenetrable to the rain; common paper is produced in sufficient quantities, while the finer sorts are imported. Various articles in iron and steel are fabricated, but neither with skill nor in abundance. The exports chiefly consist of horses, cattle, swine, corn, wine, tobacco, hides, tallow, saffron, honey, wax, and the produce of the mines; and, in comparing the value of these with the imports, which consist chiefly of manufactures, the balance is usually found to be one third in favour of Hungary.

Constitution and Government.—The Hungarians have preserved the remains of various checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, which consists of two tables or houses; the first composed of magnates, or the great officers of the crown, princes, counts, barons, archbishops; and the second, of the abbots, prelates, and deputies from the chapters and each of the fifty-two *gespanschafts*, or counties, into which the kingdom is divided. These houses, however, form only one body, as their votes are taken together. The diet, beside being convened on all great national events, ought to meet at stated times. Under Matthias Corvinus and Ferdinand I. it was decreed that the meeting should be annual; and, under Leopold I., that it should be triennial; which was confirmed by Charles VI., and is still considered as the constitutional period. But sovereigns and their ministers often wish to shake off these encumbrances; and, from 1764 to 1790, no diet was holden, though many important affairs had happened within that period. This assembly met in 1808; and the number of the nobles and deputies who were present amounted to 696; but it does not appear that any great national benefit, or any improvement in the state of their country, resulted from their deliberations. The influence, indeed, which the emperor derives from his general power, enables him to govern Hungary by the medium of a chancery at Vienna, without the necessity of consulting the diet.

The privileges enjoyed by the Hungarian nobles are infinitely greater than a just or well-constituted government may be thought to require. They hold courts for the decision of points connected with their estates, or with the cultivators of the land; they are allowed to exercise high authority, yet not so unlimited as it formerly was, over the peasants: and they are free from all taxes except such as they think proper to impose upon themselves, while the unfortunate rustics or labourers may be plundered without mercy or moderation. Every county has its ruling assembly, in which the nobles, prelates, and deputies of the royal free towns, as the privileged corporations are styled, regulate provincial affairs, and harass, if they do not always oppress the peasants. From the lord's court, in case of delinquency, an appeal lies to the county court, to the judicature of the district, the royal tribunal at Buda, and finally

lf, without whose sanction no
nt can be inflicted, although
s are for many years immured
unfeeling nobles, into whose
no inquiry is instituted.
ıe Hungarian revenue, it is
£3,500,000 and £4,000,000,
crown lands, the mines and
upon merchandise, the taxes
and the free towns, the annual
anded by the court, and other

ıperor can bring into the field,
000 or 80,000 Hungarians in
y, but seldom draws out of it
e infantry consists of twelve
ıvalry of ten, which are light-
nown in modern times by the
. Their expedition and alert-
found so serviceable in war,
powers in Europe have troops
same name. Their foot are
nd wear feathers in their caps,
number of enemies they pre-
d: both horse and foot are an
very good at a pursuit or in
ındering a country, but not
troops in a pitched battle.
ıay summon the Hungarian
ıe field and defend their coun-
is called an "insurrection,"
high clergy are not exempt.
wars in which Hungary was
ed, principally against the
ice was a severe obligation.
to the field a number of com-
ıed to his estate. The arch-
ıd the bishop of Erlau, brought
of colours, and under each
the archbishop of Kalotscha,
ops, 1000 each. In the battle
bishops were left on the field.
of this kind were summoned by
000, and in other years of war;
ıes, beside the amount which
eat volunteer force, well armed
came forward from the free
ileged districts. In time of
ling force consists of twelve
ntry, and ten of hussars, form-
ate above 60,000 men.
ıe established religion of Hun-
ıan Catholic; but the Protes-
plete toleration. They have
ım of public worship, with
ls, and their own schools and
rning, and are admitted to all
s, and to a seat in the legisla-

e archbishoprics; Gran, Erlau,
The bishoprics are those of
Vaitzen, Funfkirchen or Five
rim, Gross-Wardein, Csanad,
rg, Neusohl, and Rosenau.
re founded in 1777.
p of Gran, by virtue of his ecclesiastical character, is lord-lieutenant of the county, primate and chancellor of Hungary, has the exclusive right of crowning the king, and can create nobility in the archiepiscopal territories. His annual revenue is about £36,000 sterling, while that of the archbishop of Kalotscha is not more than £5000. Beside the diocesan prelates, there are at present 16 bishops who have no revenues, 22 abbots, 124 titular abbots, 41 provosts with revenues, 70 who have merely the honour of the title, 207 prebendaries, 67 honorary canons, 2782 priests, 448 local chaplains, and 1928 assistants. About one half of the population is Catholic.

The members of the Greek church are also very numerous in Hungary. They are divided into two branches — those who have so far united themselves to the Catholics, as to acknowledge the supremacy of the Romish pontiff, while they retain some of their peculiar ceremonies; and those who have refused to enter into this union. Even the latter have been admitted to an equality of civil rights with the members of the regular establishment. Their numbers amount to about 2,000,000.

The claims of the Protestants to the full rights of citizens were allowed by the treaty of Vienna, in 1606, and by that of Lintz, in 1645; but the injustice of the government violated or eluded those engagements. After a long interval of discouragement and depression, both Lutherans and Calvinists found a protector in the emperor Joseph II., and a still greater friend in his brother Leopold, who, in 1791, gratified them to the extent of their wishes. In consequence of this liberal policy, the Lutheran churches have been more than doubled since that time, having risen from the number of 213 to 450; and those of the other branch of Protestants have also been more generally diffused over the country. The Calvinists are the most numerous: they were estimated, twelve years ago, at 1,338,623, while the Lutherans did not exceed 838,000. The ministers of these persuasions have not, in general, a great provision for their support; but they endeavour to narrow the circle of their wants, and to conform their desires to their circumstances. The majority of the Catholic priests have a yet smaller income, notwithstanding the formation of a fund for their relief, out of the estates which belonged to the monasteries suppressed by Joseph, and out of the contributions demanded from every new bishop.

Universities.—The sole university of Hungary is that of Pesth, which has an annual income of £20,000 sterling, a fifth part of which is allotted to pay the salaries of the professors. The seminaries at Raab and Caschau have likewise been styled universities; but they are rather academies founded by the Jesuits. At Funfkirchen, a university was built and endowed by Louis I., in 1364, which at one time was attended by 1000 students; but it was ruined after the battle of Mohacz, and this town *did not again flourish* as a place of education

before 1694, when the Jesuits erected a college, which, by their zeal and learning, was soon brought into high repute. There are also many gymnasia, a lyceum at Erlau, and schools in every parish. Yet, in point of education, Hungary is in a very backward state.

Language.—As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Slavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects. The Hungarian Proper is radically different from the Slavonian, and has been supposed to be a branch of the Finnic. The upper and middling classes of people speak German and Latin, though with the latter they continually mix words that can only be understood by those who are acquainted with the Hungarian, Slavonian, or German languages.

The Lord's Prayer in Hungarian is as follows:—

"Mi atyank ki vagy a mennyekben, zentelssek meg a te neved; jojjon el a te orzagod. Legyen meg a te akaratod, minr a menyben, ugy itt e foldonnis. A mi mindennapi, kenyerunket ad meg nekunkma; es botsasd meg a mi vetkeinket, mikeppin miis megbotsatunk azoknak a kik mi ellenunc vetkeztenek; es ne vigy minket a kesertethe: de zabudlts meg minket a gonosstol; mert tied az orssag, a hatalom, es a dirsoseg mind orokke. Amen."

Antiquities. — Many Roman antiquities, such as military roads, ruins, and coins, have been found in Hungary and other parts of the ancient province of Dacia. About twenty miles from Belgrade are the remains of a magnificent Roman bridge, and of a Roman road formed along the face of a precipice. The road was originally of wood, and was suspended on beams, which were let into the rock. Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage; and there are still extant, in the cabinets of the curious, complete sets of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been discovered in this country than perhaps in any other in Europe.

History.—The Huns, after subduing this country in the middle of the 3rd century, communicated their name to it; it being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were succeeded by the Goths; these were expelled by the Lombards, and they by the Avari, who were followed by the Slavi in the beginning of the 9th century. Near its close, the Ugours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took possession of the country. Hungary formerly comprehended an assemblage of different states. The greater part of it was afterward governed for a century by dukes, the first of whom was Orpad, about 887. One of his descendants, called Stephen the Holy, who was canonized in 1083, for his virtues, assumed the royal title, and eclipsed the fame of his predecessors by the strength of his mind, the extent of his knowledge, and his zeal for the diffusion of Christianity. He was also a spirited warrior, and compelled the Transylvanians and Bulgarians to abstain from incursions, and respect the superiority

racter. When he had fixed the tr
his realm, the establishment of a c
occupied his attention; and, in
sanctioned in an assembly of his
clergy. He was succeeded, in
nephew Peter the German, as he
only son. The tyranny and cruelt
king excited such a warmth of gen
tion, that he was driven from the t
the prince who superseded him, w
for his inhumanity by his own
and Peter was restored by the assi
emperor Henry III. As his disposi
been improved by adversity, his co
conduct occasioned his second de
he was deprived of his sight, in 1046
a descendant of the ancient duke
cured his own election to the sovere
prince, being involved in a disp
brother Bela, was defeated and sla

After various reigns, of which fe
or authentic particulars are reco
laus, in 1077, ascended the throne
he extended his realm by conque
blished his fame by political ab
Stephen he received the honour
tion. Coloman reigned with less
and Stephen II., after signalizing
in war, evinced his mental weakn
doning the duties of his station,
into a monastery. Other prince
some are praised by historians,
censured, governed Hungary duri
ages. At length Andrew II., s
Jerusalem, became king, and
many years in unmolested peace.
tranquillity, he engaged in a crusa
the kingdom to the risk of misgove
commotion. After his return fro
he framed a new system of law; b
dently confirmed and augmented t
of the nobles, without sufficient
for the liberty and welfare of the
died in 1235, after a reign of 30 years
grandson, Andrew III., called the V
line of Orpad terminated in 1301; t
deemed a point of little moment,
assumed the privilege of monarchi

After the successive choice of
and a Bavarian prince, Charles Ro
House of Anjou, obtained the cro
He was victorious in war, humane
rate in peace. His son Louis, d
the Great, distinguished himself
of exemplary justice, which he p
Naples, where the king his broth
murdered by Joan, the wanton an
queen. He put some of her acc
death; and, when he might have pla
on the Neapolitan throne, conten
with the revenge which he had ta
remarkable expedition. Louis wa
reign of Poland. Sigismund of L
who had espoused Mary, a tempo
the daughter of Louis, was chos

l for 50 years, also occupying, erable part of that time, the of Germany, but not with high utation. His successor was ian, who endeavoured to secure is infant son, Ladislaus; but obility made choice of another name, who was then king of onarch having lost his life in the Turks, in 1444, his young declared king; during whose iades, vaivode of Transylvania, led Hungary and its depen- the encroaching infidels; who er, prevented, by all the efforts s, from gaining possession of

Ladislaus was followed by a for the crown, which was be- hias, the son of Huniades, a ability, who made some bold holly without effect, for the he nobles. As Uladislas II., d not display that vigour which to maintain the superiority predecessor, the aristocratic

This contest for power filled a commotion; and, in the reign Turks were encouraged by the disorder, and by the ambition im at an important conquest. my of those barbarians rushed nd triumphed in the field of the king lost his life. The session of Pesth, after the of the inhabitants: but he without securing the city by n Zapolya, vaivode of Tran- d by his influence the vacant nother powerful candidate also pretending that his marriage of the late king gave him a

This was Ferdinand, king of se attempts for the establish- tensions induced the reigning e the aid of Solyman. Pesth the Turks from the Austrian ve it up to John, who exercised ntil the year 1540. After his ks seized the most consider- ie realm, while the aristocratic dinand governed the rest in

f Hungary, between the Chris- nfidels, continued far beyond e 17th century. The Turkish aken off by the spirit of the who recovered Buda and Pesth, he sway of Leopold I. Joseph, e, was crowned king of Hun- d the diet even recognized the sions of his family. Yet the particularly the Protestants, discontent; and, as Ragotski, n, had fomented the disorders the reign of Ferdinand *III.*, Tekeli, a Hungarian noble, now followed a similar course, in concert with the Ottoman cabinet. Again was the realm invaded by the Turks, who retook the counties to the eastward of the Theiss: but the victory obtained at Zenta, by Prince Eugene, Leopold's illustrious general, checked their career; and the treaty of Carlowitz, concluded in 1699, left the Austrians in possession of all Hungary except the Banat, and also of Transylvania and Slavonia. When a new war had arisen from the perfidy of the Porte, the battle of Peterwardein cooled the military rage of the barbarians; and other proofs of the Austrian superiority in arms produced a pacification, by which the Banat was restored to the Hungarian realm. The subsequent history of this kingdom being intimately connected with that of Germany, we may here close the separate sketch.

TRANSYLVANIA, SLAVONIA, CROATIA, DALMATIA, AND THE MILITARY GOVERNMENT.

TRANSYLVANIA, which forms a government, divided into twenty-five counties and districts, is bounded on the north by the Carpathian mountains, which separate it from Galitzia, on the east by Moldavia, on the south by Walachia, and on the west by Hungary. Its length is about 180, and its breadth 120 miles: it contains nearly 14,000 square miles, and is surrounded by high mountains, through which there are only sixteen passes. Its produce, vegetables, and animals, are nearly the same with those of Hungary. The mines of gold, iron, and salt, are the chief sources of wealth in this country. To the north-east of Deva is a mine which contains gold, mingled with antimony, arsenic, lead, and iron. There are none but domestic manufactures. The air is temperate and salubrious; the soil is, in many parts, fertile in grain, and is tolerably well cultivated. Many vineyards pour forth their luxurious stores, which, however, do not please strangers like the wines of Hungary: they have also the defect of not keeping.

The Transylvanians are a mixed race, consisting of Magyars, Szeklers, (probably descendants of the Huns,) and Saxons. The latter settled in the country between the 10th and 12th centuries. There are also many Walachians, Armenians, &c. It is remarkable that the Walachians, in this province, exceed the number of the Transylvanians, properly so called; and though, according to the laws of the country, they are not entitled to the rights of free citizens, that prohibition is not rigorously enforced. Many free families are dispersed over the country; and the rest of the race are not oppressed by the government, but acquire consequence and property in various modes, particularly by the breeding of cattle. They are of a short stature, but of a strong and compact frame, with expressive features. The women are more industrious than the *men; they* spin even while they are going to

market, with a basket upon the head, and manufacture the greater part of their own apparel and that of their families.

The great landholders enjoy the remains of feudal authority; and the government has an air of moderation, being conducted in concert with a regular diet, which, however, is more influenced by the crown than a national assembly ought to be. The seat of power is Hermannstadt, which contains about 18,000 inhabitants, and is a large, strong, and well-built city. Klausenburg is situated on a river called the Little Szamos, in a romantic valley, encompassed by high mountains. The greater part of the town was consumed by fire in 1798; but the mischief was gradually repaired. The present town is built in a quadrangular form, and contains some fine churches and elegant streets. About 20,000 persons compose the population. Kronstadt, the most populous, industrious, and commercial city in Transylvania, has a population of more than 25,000 souls.

Transylvania is part of the ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms before they could be subdued. It was overrun by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. The present inhabitants retain the same military character. The population of the country was estimated, in 1834, at 1,963,435. The military force consists of about 20,000 men, whose loyalty and courage are undisputed.

Hermannstadt is the only bishopric. Liberty of religious worship is a fundamental article of the constitution. The members of the Greek and Roman Catholic churches are in number 1,400,000; the Lutherans, 550,000; Socinians, 40,000. Stephen, king of Hungary, introduced Christianity into the country; and it was afterwards governed by a Hungarian viceroy. The various revolutions in the government prove the impatience of the people under slavery; and though the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, gave the sovereignty of Transylvania, as well as Slavonia, to the House of Austria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal aristocracy, which their sovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or pretended oppressions of the nobility, 16,000 men assembled, and committed great outrages on those whose conduct had been obnoxious to them: but, being disappointed in an attempt upon Klausenburg, they promised to separate, and to retire in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vassalage. Lenient terms were granted to them; and, with the punishment of a few, the insurrection was suppressed.

SLAVONIA is about 180 miles in length, and 80 in breadth, and contains 9000 square miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the east, by the Save on the south, and by Styria on the west. The reason why *Hungary*, Transylvania, Slavonia, and the *other countries* subject to the House of Austria in these parts, contain a surpris of people, differing in name, lan manners, is because liberty here m stand against the Roman arms, wl grees forced the remains of th nations they had conquered into t ters. The thickness of the woods, t of the rivers, and the strength of tl favoured their resistance; and the ants, notwithstanding the power of Austrians, Hungarians, and Poland the same spirit of independence. \ garding the arrangements made b reigns of Europe, they are quiet government that leaves them most That they are generous as well as bra from their attachment to the House since it is well known that they pre pragmatic sanction, and kept th crown in that family.

The Slavonians are zealous Roma since 1827, they tolerate the Protest bers of the Greek church, and Je however, they do not suffer to h offices. They are more industrious Hungarians, and apparently more c profiting by the advantages with wh has favoured their country. The cl are Posega, Essek, Vukovar, Carlo Peterwardein; of which the second i populous, as its inhabitants are abou number. Essek and Peterwardein strongly fortified, particularly the fo culture of tobacco flourishes gre Posega, and the produce is not infer lity to that of Hungary. The m county in this province is Sirmia, wh great quantities of grain, and feed tude of cattle and swine. An excelle red wine is made near Carlowitz; a also an important article of traffic.

CROATIA is bounded on the north Styria and Hungary, on the east by on the west by Illyria, and on the Turkish Croatia and Dalmatia. It hilly country; for not only mo chains run through the province, insulated elevations are dispersed Many of the valleys are wholly cl the streams which traverse them are find subterraneous outlets, and often the neighbouring country. The wi Bora, which blows from the north or n is a scourge to the country. It bri sive cold, and is so violent as to c stones to a considerable distance. iron and copper are found in the m but they are not so productive as th be rendered by diligent exploration a working. At Radoboi a large bed where sulphur often comes pure in veins. Coal is found in various pa soil is in general barren; yet some very fertile. The kinds of corn mo vated are maize, barley, buck-whea and oats. Pasturage is not followed

few sheep, and their wool
ie horses are small and
› the worst breed in North
there is an abundance, as
ıuntains are covered with
rade is not very consider-
r in other articles. Agram,
habited by 18,500 persons:
overnor, the commandant,
nd the tribunal of the dis-
a castle, which overlooks
ıented as a place of female
town has only 4750 inha-
:quently neither large nor
r here add, that the Croats
: in war, but indolent in
ınners are simple and un-
their bigotry keeps pace

VERNMENT, partly border-
ists, as might be supposed,
ned men. When the Turks
›f Hungary, it became the
Austrian government to
on that side against a re-
ent; and it was therefore
e which separated the two
placed on a secure basis,
service the indispensable
lands in the bordering
ıolden. This system was
ıut, after it had long pre-
e neglected, as no longer
owever, the whole scheme
l improved; and the mili-
ling from the Bukovine to
rmed a line of about 500
›th of infantry and cavalry
:iplined; and four circles
eing under the command
ubject to the supreme di-
of war at Vienna. About
kept in readiness for the
ıtry; and the inhabitants
districts were bound to
service, not only by con-
personal labour in such
anders might point out.
re devolved to the crown,
by purchase or exchange,
whose proprietors the em-
an authoritative influence,
ın the old feudal tenure;
s were consigned to the
triarch, who superintended
provided for the support of
atriarchs were assisted by
an agricultural officer in
, with eleven corporals,
veys of the district; and a
the captain, some inferior
'families, decided disputes,
ustice in ordinary cases.
subdivided into the Tran-
rontier, the Banat and Sla-
e Warasdin *territory, and* | that of Carlstadt; and the population of the whole is said to amount to 1,102,000.

DALMATIA extends along the coast from the vicinity of Fiume, so as to include the northern part of Albania; and it also comprehends Morlachia, of which Segna is the capital. This is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and situated near the sea, in a mountainous and barren soil. Here are twelve churches and two conventual foundations. The governor resides in the old palace, called the Royal Castle. Ottoschatz is a frontier fortification on the Gatzka. That part of the fortress where the governor and the greatest part of the garrison reside, is surrounded with a wall and some towers; but the rest of the buildings, which are mean, are erected on piles in the water, so that one neighbour cannot visit another without a boat.

Carlo-pago stands at the foot of a craggy mountain, near the strait which separates the isle of Pago from the continent. It has two harbours, constructed by the order of Joseph II.; and the inhabitants carry on some trade in wood, salt, honey, wax, and fish.

To the southward of Morlachia, the country is mountainous, but fruitful. Spalatro has a fine harbour, and is the see of an archbishop. It exhibits, and is partly built from, the interesting ruins of the palace of Diocletian. It has 8000 inhabitants, and carries on a considerable commerce. In its vicinity are the ruins of the city of Salona, which was destroyed in the seventh century by the barbarians. Many curious relics of antiquity have been dug up from among them. Zara is another considerable town, the capital of Dalmatia, so well fortified that it is deemed almost impregnable. It has 8000 inhabitants. Sebenico is likewise a strong town. The natives of this part of Dalmatia carry on a considerable trade, and are said to be the best mariners of all Italy. The Dalmatians, who are 365,000 in number, resemble the Slavonians in their manners, and speak a similar language. They profess the Roman Catholic religion.

In this part of Dalmatia is the small aristocratic state of Poglissa, formerly under the protection of Venice, but now under that of the Austrian government. This state contains about 21,000 inhabitants, and its chief magistrate bears the title of *welike cnes*, or great lord, and is chosen annually from some noble Hungarian families which are settled there.

In proceeding to the southward, we approach the ill-peopled territory of Hertzgovina, of which Castel-Nuovo, a place of considerable strength, is the most important town. This district was never fully subdued by the Venetians; nor does it appear that the authority of the Austrian emperor is generally acknowledged by the provincials, some of whose tribes are in an unsettled state.

To the north-east of Hertzgovina is the territory of Montenegro, inhabited by a remarkable community, partly of Grecian, and partly

of Slavonic origin. Its population, having been frequently diminished by war and famine, scarcely exceeds 55,000. The men are in general tall and well formed, uncommonly brave, and high-spirited; they endure hardships without repining, but will not submit to an insult. They are hospitable and friendly, and, with occasional exceptions, just in their dealings. They attend more to pasturage than to agriculture, which they leave chiefly to the women. They employ themselves only in such manufactures as appear to them to be absolutely necessary, and they have much less trade than they might easily command. Few of them can either read or write; yet they cultivate both oratory and poetry. They have no regular code or system of law; but the chiefs try offenders and decide civil causes, with the allowance of an appeal to the bishop. The Turks claim authority over the Montenegrins, but do not take very active measures to subdue them, being content with desultory hostilities. The Russians profess to be the protectors of the state, and allow a pension to the bishop, but do not arbitrarily interfere in the government, which is at present exercised by the prelate, with the aid of a temporal governor. The established religion is that of the Greek church; but, in many of the villages, the inhabitants follow the Catholic system. Gnegussi is the seat of the governor, and Cethigné that of the bishop; but both places are ratne than considerable towns. The house in the most irregular way, almost ev keeper being his own architect. M pets, spread out upon the floor, serve paltry stools, and sometimes large the substitutes for chairs; and tabl from being in general use. The chu monasteries, however, being deemed greater care and attention, are wel foreign artisans.

Near the Albanian frontier is small but strong town, environed heights, which even obscure the fa About thirty-five miles from this to the city of Ragusa, which was forme dependent republic. Its harbour, the isle of Croma, is safe and commod its fortifications enabled it, in 1806, to a vigorous siege from the Montene were assisted by a Russian armame would not have so effectually resiste not been garrisoned by the French. merce, which once employed 363 ve much declined, but is believed to b covering itself. It has about 6000 in

The Austrian provinces which what is called the Lombardo-Vene dom will be described under the "Italy."

THE PRUSSIAN MONARCHY.

The name of Prussia is derived from its ancient inhabitants, the Borussi, or Porussi; so called from the Slavonic word *po*, near, and *Russi*, signifying the people who lived near the Russians.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length . . .	690	between	6. and 23. E. long.
Breadth, from	120 to 272		49. and 56. N. lat.

Containing about 110,170 square miles, with a population of 136 to each.

Boundaries.—The Prussian monarchy is now so extensive, as to stretch, with little interruption, from the borders of Lithuania to the Rhine and the Moselle. It may be considered as composed of two parts, the eastern and the western. The eastern, which is the most extensive, is bounded on the north by Mecklenburg and the Baltic; on the east by Russia; on the south by Poland, Austria, the kingdom of Saxony, and some other states of less consequence; and on the west by Hesse Cassel, Hanover, and Brunswick. The western portion has for its limits on the east, Hanover, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, Hesse Darmstadt, and some small states of the German confederacy; on the south, France; on the kingdoms of Belgium and Holl on the north, Hanover. The disp between the length and breadth of the territory has caused it to be compa ribbon.

Divisions. — The Prussian mon divided into eight provinces, which divided into twenty-five governments *Prussia Proper*. Governments, Kö Gumbrinnen, Dantzic, Marienwerde *sen*. Governments, Posen and Bro 3. *Pomerania*. Governments, Stettin Stralsund.—4. *Brandenburg*. Gove Potsdam, and Frankfort on the *Prussian Saxony*. Governments, M Merseburg, Erfurt.—6. *Silesia*. Gove Breslau, Liegnitz, Oppeln.—7. *W* Governments, Munster, Minden, Are 8. *Rhenish Prussia*. Governments, Colo seldorf, Coblentz, Treves, Aix-la-Chap principality of Neufchatel, which noticed under the head of "Switzerla belongs to the king of Prussia. The tion of the monarchy, exclusive of Ne in 1840, was 14,906,991. That of Neuf 1837, was 58,616.

e east of the Elbe, (Prussian
part of Silesia, we find, on
tories which may be ranked
it of Germany. The long
is level, exposed to inunda-
id has no good port. The
part of the monarchy, that
th sides of the Rhine, which
ed in 1814, is generally fer-
mountainous; it is traversed
es, of no great altitude, of
e Eifel, the Westerwald, and
the vicinity of the Weser:
districts are level. The
and products of Prussia will
the respective provinces.

UCTS, &c. — The principal
are iron, copper, zinc, and
nd on the coast of the Bal-
d agriculture have attained
perfection in most of the
lly in those of the Rhine,
a. The number of horses is
00, that of horned cattle at
of sheep at 12,500,000. The
ly cultivated in Rhenish

e is, as may naturally be ex-
able difference in the tem-
russian provinces. In the
the mean temperature of
ometer in the year is 49½ de-
warmest month 64 degrees;
sion, 48 degrees and 65 de-
eastern, 43 degrees and 62½
older months, the mean tem-

in which more than 2,000,000 of scholars receive education. Prussia has not hitherto been fertile in literary men. The celebrated Humboldt, and a few others, have, however, acquired a well merited reputation.

The language of Prussia is the German; but, in the territory acquired from Poland, the Polish, as may be expected, prevails.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT. — His Prussian majesty is absolute through all his dominions. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of state; namely, the great master, the great burgrave, chancellor, and marshal. There are also some other councils, and thirty-seven bailiwicks. The provincial states consist of counsellors of state, and of deputies from the nobility and commons. Beside these institutions, Frederic III. erected a board of commerce and navigation.

REVENUE.—Frederic I. had a scanty revenue, not perhaps exceeding £1,500,000 sterling. His son increased it to about £2,000,000; and the great Frederic is said to have derived, from his augmented dominions, £5,500,000. The extravagance of his successor dissipated more than the regular produce of his resources, and consequently involved the nation in debt. The late king and his people were so severely harassed, and so shamefully plundered by the French, both before and after the peace of Tilsit, that the revenue must have been reduced to a very small amount, while the public debt was enormously augmented. The baron Bignon calculates the encumbrance of the nation, at the time of the pacification of Paris, in 1814

ARMY.—Since the time of that elector who became the first king of Prussia, and who, even in time of peace, maintained an army of 100,000 men, the government of that country has exhibited a form, perhaps more decidedly military than that of any other state in Europe. The late king, in the year 1805, is said to have had 250,000 men ready for action, when the Austrian emperor was exposed to such danger, as to require the aid of every prince who had any regard for the welfare of Germany and the independence of the continental powers. According to the present system, every Prussian is bound to military service, first, in the standing army; next in the landsturm, or militia; and, lastly, in the landsturm, or levy in mass. The whole force which this arrangement would enable Prussia to bring into the field in time of war is more than 500,000 men; but the peace establishment does not amount to quite one-fifth of that number.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.—There are six orders of knighthood: the order of Concord, instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. The elector Frederic, in 1685, instituted the order of Generosity. The knights wear a cross of eight points, pendent to a blue ribbon. The same prince founded the order of the Black Eagle, in the year 1700, the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, being limited to thirty. The knights wear on the left side of the coat a silver star, in the middle of which is a black eagle, with the motto *Suum Cuique*. The order of Merit was instituted by Frederic III., in 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country. That prince likewise established the orders of St. Stephen and St. John.

HISTORY.—The ancient history of Prussia is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The early inhabitants, the brave and warlike descendants of the Slavonians, refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, endeavoured to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland; and they continued independent and pagans, till the knights of the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their conversion by the edge of the sword. A long series of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Prussia were almost exterminated by the religious knights, who, after committing the most horrible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. In 1466 a peace was concluded between the knights and Casimir IV., king of Poland, who had undertaken the cause of the oppressed people; by which it was agreed, that the part now called Polish Prussia should continue a free province, under the king's protection, and that the knights and the grand master should possess the other part, acknowledging themselves vassals of Poland. This gave rise to fresh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unsuccessfully, to throw off their vassalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, the last grand master of the Teutonic order, laid aside the habit of his order, embraced Lutheranism, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which he was acknowledged duke of the eastern part of Prussia, but was to hold it as a fief of Poland. In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deservedly called the Great, shook off the Polish yoke; and he and his descendants were declared sovereign lords of this part of Prussia.

As the Protestant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg followed that persuasion, the Protestant interest favoured them so much, that Frederic, the son of Frederic William the Great, was raised in 1701 to the dignity of king of Prussia, in a solemn assembly of the states, and soon after acknowledged as such by all the powers of Christendom. His grandson, Frederic III., in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this prince's talents for government, but expatiates on those of his own father, Frederic William, who succeeded in 1713. This prince, who was endowed with strong natural abilities, but was of a brutal nature, considerably increased the revenues of his country, too often at the expense of humanity. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is said to have left £7,000,000 sterling in his treasury; which enabled his son, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful exertions by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the age. The new monarch improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and distinguished himself as a poet, philosopher, and legislator. Some of the principal transactions of his reign have been already related in our sketch of the history of Germany. In 1783 he published a rescript, signifying his pleasure that no kneeling should in future be practised in honour of his person; assigning for his reason, that this act of humiliation was due to the Divinity alone; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him, in 1782, in draining marshes, establishing manufactures, settling colonies, relieving distress, and in other purposes of philanthropy and policy. He died in 1786, after having preserved his dominions in peace, with only a slight interruption, from the year 1763.

Frederic William II., (or Frederic IV.,) the nephew of the philosopher, commenced his reign with a reform of abuses; but he did not uniformly act the part of a patriot. Indolence and love of pleasure diverted his attention from public duties, and he quickly lost the reputation which he was beginning to acquire. The spirit which he displayed, however, in the cause of his brother-in-law, the prince of Orange, for whom he procured, by the reduction of Amsterdam, a considerable augmentation of power, was applauded by the princes of Europe. He

ished himself by his early display
: the French revolutionists, whom
ush in one campaign; but this ex-
nfortunate, and he retreated with
and dispirited army. In 1794,
ved a subsidy from Great Britain,
of acting with vigour against the
nployed his troops in subduing
nich realm he added a consider-
o the share seized by his uncle.
this iniquitous success, he con-
with France; but he did not long
uptuous repose which he wished
r he died in November, 1797.
same name, ascended the throne.
for many years, studiously ob-
m of neutrality, which exposed
oquy of the zealots. He seemed
ake up arms, in 1805, when the
e engaged in a new war with
ie suffered that opportunity to
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r, he met with that ill success
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t submitted to it with philoso-
s, waiting for an opportunity of
ion and of just revenge. In this
rative insignificance he remained
urs; and his disgrace seemed to
by that subserviency which ren-
ally of France, in 1812, against
end, the Russian emperor. He
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ith such a reverse of fortune in
expedition, as would encourage
o form a new confederacy against
ievolent monarch must have felt
et at the loss of so many of his
as perished in that rash enter-
the result seemed to portend the
vader, Frederic resolved to take
him. For several years, he had
as far as the jealous vigilance of
would allow him, to keep up a
among his people, and to prepare
pline for a future war. In the
against France, they had not
eir former reputation: but their
as fervent as that of their sove-
e foes they were ready to wreak
ge. They displayed great cou-
anguinary conflicts of the year
ed the dangers and glory of that
was followed by the reduction
when the war again broke out,
the success of the *British arms*
at Waterloo. By these services they procured for the king, not merely a restitution of territories, but a greater extent of dominion than he had ever before possessed.

Since that period, Prussia has not been engaged in any contest, and has continued steadily to advance in prosperity. For a considerable time the withholding of a constitution and a national representation, both of which boons Frederic William, during the struggle against Napoleon, had promised to his subjects, excited much dissatisfaction. But the grant of provincial assemblies, the respect felt by the Prussians for the character of the monarch, the general equity of his government, and the hope, perhaps, that their wishes would ultimately be complied with, at length overcame their angry feelings. After a reign of 43 years, checkered by extraordinary vicissitudes of fortune, Frederic William III. died on the 7th of June, 1840, in his 70th year, and was succeeded by his son, the present monarch.

Frederic William IV. was born October 15, 1795, and married, in 1823, Elizabeth Louisa, daughter of the late king of Bavaria; by whom he has no issue.

Prussia Proper, from which the whole kingdom derives its name, is the most easterly of all the provinces. On the north it is bounded by the Baltic and a part of Russia, on the east by Lithuania, on the south by a part of Poland and Silesia, and on the west by Brandenburg and Pomerania. Its principal rivers are the Niemen or Memel, the Pregel, the Passarge, and the Vistula. At the mouths of the Vistula and the Memel, singular havens, called by the Germans Haffs, are formed by long narrow tracts of land. This tongue of land in the Frisch-haff, at the mouth of the Vistula, is 50 miles in length, and from 3 to 7 miles in breadth. It is said to have been thrown up by tempests, about the year 1190. The other haff is called the Kurisch-haff. There are a great number of lakes in Prussia Proper. The largest of them are the Spirding and the Great Mauer, the former of which is 70 square miles in extent, and the latter 40.

Königsberg, the capital of Prussia Proper, is partly situated on an island formed by the Pregel, over which it has seven bridges, and partly on the main land. With its suburbs it is 7 miles in circumference, and contains about 70,000 inhabitants. Many of its houses are large and elegant, and some of the public buildings are stately and magnificent. It has a university, which is well supplied with professors; several other respectable seminaries, and many well-conducted charitable institutions. The majority of the inhabitants are Lutherans; but Calvinists, Catholics, and Jews are mingled with them. They carry on a great trade; yet only small vessels can reach the town; and, therefore, it has been found expedient to make use of Pillau, a town 30 miles distant, as the port of Königsberg. In 1817, *1098 vessels* entered that harbour for com-

mercial purposes: 309 of these were the ships of Prussian subjects, 144 were British, and 269 sailed from Dutch and Belgian ports. In some of the subsequent years, the number exceeded that amount.

Dantzic, (Danzig or Gdansk,) one of the most commercial cities in the north of Europe, and one of the strongest fortresses in Prussia, is situated on the Vistula, about 3½ miles from the Baltic. It is 2½ miles in circuit within the walls, and has nine suburbs. The population is 62,000. Dantzic is the seat of a provincial administration, and has many schools and public institutions. "There are yards and slips for ship-building; sugar-refineries, spirit and liqueur-distilleries, breweries, copper-works, and manufactories of silks, woollens, linens, leather hats and gloves, soap and starch, earthenware, arms, steelware, hats, tobacco, &c. Independently of these branches of industry, the town has a very considerable trade with the adjacent provinces and foreign ports, and exports large quantities of corn, timber, pot and pearl-ashes, quills, brandy and spirits, wool, flax, hemp, &c." The value of exports is estimated at about £830,000; of imports, £275,000.

Marienwerder, the seat of the government of the same name, stands on the Vistula. The cathedral is the largest church in the kingdom of Prussia, being 320 feet long. It appears by its strong breast-works to have formerly served as a fortress. Here is also a spacious palace, built in the Gothic style.

Elbing, which is also in West Prussia, near the Frisch-haff, is a thriving commercial town. Before the English established their magazines there, as a company of merchants, the town had not an extensive trade; but, from that time, its traffic gradually increased. About 24,000 persons compose the population.

Memel, situated at the extremity of East Prussia, near the entrance of the Kurisch-haff, surpasses Elbing in the quantity and value of its exports, among which timber is a leading article. It has 9000 inhabitants. The town is rendered defensible by strong works; the houses, if not generally handsome or elegant, are sufficiently large and commodious; and the harbour is considered, by many merchants and mariners, as the best in the Baltic.

Posen.—The grand duchy of Posen is bounded, on the north, by the province of Prussia; on the east, by the kingdom of Poland; on the south, by Silesia; and on the west, by Brandenburg. Its chief rivers are the Wartha and the Netze. The Goppio is the largest of its lakes. The country is level, and the soil is generally fertile. The whole province formed a part of Poland, before the infamous partition of that unfortunate kingdom. It had a population of 1,169,000 inhabitants in 1837, which, as the province has for some years been in an improving state, is probably considerably increased.

Posen, the capital, is situated at the confluence of the Loyna with the W contains about 53,000 inhabitants, least one-sixth are Jews. Works been in progress for making this cit of the first class. Three importar annually held here, and the place manufactories, breweries, distilleri has also several public institutions ings, and 26 churches, 22 of which the Roman Catholics. Of the sacr the most remarkable are the cathed church of St. Stanislaus. Posen is most ancient of the Polish cities erected into a bishopric as early a century, by the emperor Otho I. It wise a member of the Hanseatic lea

Bromberg, on the banks of the Br the tributaries of the Vistula, is the the northern half of the grand duch It has about 7000 inhabitants, is well has various manufactories, among an extensive sugar-refinery, two toba factories, and several oil and flour- carries on a brisk export and transit

The other towns of any note are G inhabitants; Inowratzlaf, 5100; S 4000; Lissa, 8667; Rawitsch, 8316; 4500; Krotoschin, 6337; Fraustadt, Kempen, 6154.

Pomerania, the least populous of the Prussian provinces, is bound north by the Baltic, on the east b Proper, on the west by Mecklenbur the south by Brandenburg. It is unbroken level, and chiefly sand. Its river is the Oder, which falls into t Stettin. It has several lakes, but o size; the largest is that of Madine.

Stettin, the capital of Pomerania, on the Oder, and has about 34,000 in It is a strongly fortified and highly cial town. It is the outlet for the tures of Silesia, and the depôt for t goods for the supply of that provin Brandenburg. Its outport is Swine mouth of the Oder, where vessels to ascend the river unload their car lighters. Literature is promoted a inhabitants by a gymnasium, to attached a museum, an observato library; and it may be added, to th the opulent Pomeranians, that the in for the poor are numerous and libera

Stralsund, formerly the capital o Pomerania, with 17,000 inhabitants, on the shore of the Gollen strait, and surrounded by water. This place able for the siege it sustained again stein, and its defence by Charles X now strongly fortified. It carries siderable commerce.

On the other side of the Gollen the isle of Rugen, the largest of th islands, which is remarkable for its pi scenery. It contains many vestiges of

Colberg, which has about 7000 in

uated half a league from the mouth
reante, is a strong place, memorable
eges which it so courageously sus-
he seven years' war, and in 1807.
the chief place of a government, is
t the foot of a hill called the Gollen-
gues from the Baltic, and has about
itants. On the summit of the Gollen-
monument, to the memory of the
ns who fell in the campaigns of 1813

:NBURG, which formerly gave its name
:torate, has not exactly its ancient
he Altmark and a portion of the Neu-
: been severed from it, and Lower Lu-
some Saxon districts have been added
the north, it is bounded by Mecklen-
Pomerania; on the east by Prussia,
of Posen, and Silesia; on the south
, Saxony, and the Anhalt princi-
nd on the west by the province of
id Hanover. It is watered by the
Oder, the Wartha, the Havel, the
l various other rivers, by means of
l connecting canals, it has an excel-
nal navigation. There are many
nome of them are of great extent:
em may be mentioned those of
g, Scharmutzel, Soldin, Ferbbellin,
n.
he capital of the kingdom, is an ag-
five towns and four suburbs, com-
: of the finest cities in Europe. The
founded, in 1163, by the margrave
e others at much later periods. The
general are broad and regular, and
: either built of stone, or stuccoed in
of it. Palaces, churches, and other
ldings, are so dispersed as to prevent
ued a uniformity, but preserving the
e of being parts of one great plan.
e, which is navigable, flows quite
ie city, forming, by a division of its
island, on which the second town of
is situated. In this part stands the
magnificent edifice consisting of four
: was erected at different times, and
mpleted till within the last quarter
y. The round tower is still shown
f the original building. The entrance
the triumphal arch of Severus, and
ents are finely adorned and superbly
Near this structure is a stately
ich was opened for the Calvinists in
third town exhibits the palace of
s of Prussia, a splendid and well
senal, and various public offices. In
part of the city, the former palace
lenry, now the seat of the university,
miration; and, in the same division,
al Catholic church, the building ap-
to the royal academy of sciences,
pera-house, also claim particular
ie fifth town, which is the most
ontains the great edifice assigned to
of judicature, several fine churches
and palaces, large public schools, and commodious manufactories. In a square, belonging to this portion, are five statues of celebrated generals, namely Schewerin, Ziethen, Keith, Seidlitz, and Winterfeld; that of Ziethen is the most striking and elegant. But to enumerate all the embellishments of Berlin would require a volume. The literary and scientific establishments are numerous. The city is surrounded by a slight wall and by palisades, and has fifteen gates; one of which, resembling the Propylæum of Athens, is a species of colonnade, beautifully embellished, terminating a handsome street, and bordering on a well-wooded park, which was formerly enclosed for the chase, but is now rendered subservient to the general health and amusement of the citizens. The population is about 270,000. Berlin is one of the principal Prussian manufacturing towns. China, silks, mixed silks and cottons, woollens, cottons, ribbons, gunpowder, cast-iron ware, paper, and tobacco and snuff, are among its products.

Potzdam, which has a population of about 34,000 inhabitants, has been called, and not unaptly, the Prussian Versailles. It stands on the left bank of the Havel, at the point where the river expands into a lake. It was the favourite abode of Frederic the Great, who, after the peace of Hubertsburg, built a palace in this town, combining elegance with grandeur. Some of its churches, the town-house, and most of its private houses, are handsome buildings. In the neighbourhood is Frederic's favourite palace of Sans Souci. Potzdam has manufactories of silk, cotton, linen, woollen, hosiery, hats, and various other articles.

Frankfort on the Oder has a population of 22,000 inhabitants, and, in consequence of its situation on a navigable river, which communicates with the Elbe and Vistula by canals, it has a considerable transit commerce. It has also three large annual fairs, which are thronged with commercial agents. A few miles from Frankfort is the spot where the sanguinary battle of Kunersdorf was fought in 1759.

Brandenburg, which has 13,000 inhabitants, and is the seat of considerable commerce, stands on the banks of the Havel. It is the oldest town in the province; and its church of St. Katherine is worthy of notice.

PRUSSIAN SAXONY.—This province, a considerable part of which consists of cessions made in 1815 by the Saxon monarch, is bounded on the north and north-east by Brandenburg, on the south-west by the kingdom of Saxony, on the south by Gotha, Reuss, Weimar, and Hesse Cassel, and on the west by Hanover and Brunswick. Its principal rivers are the Elbe and the Saale. The soil is fertile and well cultivated; it possesses mines of copper, antimony, iron, and cobalt. Large quantities of salt are made from the saline springs. It has extensive manufactures of porcelain, earthenware, tobacco, brandy, woollens, linen, calico, and leather.

Magdeburg is a fortress of the first order

siderable proportion of the inhabitants, whose number, including the garrison, is 52,000.

Halberstadt and Quedlinburg, in the government of Magdeburg, are two considerable towns, the former of which has 19,000 inhabitants, and the latter 12,200. Halberstadt is remarkable for its cathedral; and Quedlinburg is the birthplace of Klopstock the poet.

Halle, on the right bank of the Saale, has 25,000 inhabitants, and is celebrated for its university, its charitable institutions, and its saline springs. The latter have been known from time immemorial, and produce annually 11,000 tons of salt. The labourers employed in them are a peculiar race, called Halloren, and are believed to be descended from the ancient Wends, and to have preserved the physiognomy, customs, and dress of their ancestors.

Wittenberg, on the Elbe, a fortified town, with 7000 inhabitants, has been denominated the Protestant Mecca, because it was there that Luther began his opposition to the church of Rome. He and Melancthon are both buried in the Schlosse Kirche of this town. Eisleben, where Luther was born and died, is not far from Wittenberg, and contains 7000 inhabitants. The university of Wittenberg has been transferred to Halle.

Erfurt, an important fortress of the second rank, has little worthy of notice, except its cathedral, with its enormous bell, and Luther's cell in the Augustine convent. The university was suppressed in 1816. Erfurt, which, at the close of the 16th century, had 60,000 inhabitants, has now only 24,000.

Mulhausen and Nordhausen, in the govern-

is sandy, and therefore not very fr
this deficiency is compensated by t
of the other and larger part of Silesi

Silesia is said to contain 180 cities
and 4000 villages: but this is an ag
ggeration. The capital is Breslau
at the confluence of the Oder with
river Ohlau, which runs through sev
streets. It is a large well-built and
city, containing about 90,000 inhabi
third of whom are Catholics, while r
of the other two-thirds are Lutheran
Protestants have only nine churches
Catholics have twenty-six. Breslau
of a Catholic bishop, whose ecclesias
diction extends over the whole of Sil
cathedral was founded in 1170, an
several magnificent chapels, which
to the body of the church by differen
The principal Protestant place of
the Lutheran church of St. Elizab
has the highest tower in Prussia; it
altitude of 364 feet. In the library
to this church is what may be cons
curious manuscript: to the naked
pears to be a drawing with a pen of
de Medici, upon a half-sheet of fo
but, on examining it with a magnif
it is found to be a copy of Ovid's A
perfectly legible, and the five books
contained within a compass of ten
length and three in width. Bresl
university, which was founded in 1
emperor Leopold: about 1000 studen
belong to it.

Schweidnitz is a handsome tow

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ame subject to the kings of
he death of the emperor Charles
e king of Prussia claimed cer-
ies of Silesia, and supported his
rfully by his arms, that the
greater part of Upper Silesia,
r of Glatz, were ceded to him by
Breslau, and have ever since
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losophical faculties.
hich formerly had a university,
gloomy-looking town, with be-
7000 inhabitants. The cathedral
structure. Minden, near which
1759, gained a splendid victory,
wn, with about 8000 inhabitants.
athedral, and was the residence
the early German emperors.
chief place of one of the West-
phalian governments, has not more than 4000 inhabitants. In its old castle the judges of the Secret Tribunal used to hold their sittings. Bielefeld, which has 6000 inhabitants, is the centre of the Westphalian linen manufacture, especially of damask and fine linen. The great battle between Arminius and Varus is supposed to have been fought on the banks of the Senne, in this neighbourhood.

Rhenish Prussia.—This province, which is traversed by the Rhine, consists principally of the duchies of Juliers, Cleves, and Berg, a part of Gueldres, and the electorates of Cologne and Treves, the county of Saarbruck, and some other territories of less extent. It is bounded on the north by Westphalia, on the east by Nassau and Hesse Darmstadt, on the south by France, and by districts belonging to Bavaria, Saxe Coburg, and Hesse Homburg, and on the west by the grand duchy of Luxemburg, Belgium, and the Netherlands. Its chief rivers are the Rhine, the Moselle, and the Lippe.

Cologne is a large city, if we regard its circumference, which extends almost to 7 miles: but a considerable part of the included space is laid out in gardens and vineyards. The view of it, at some distance, is grand and imposing. "Its fortifications, in the form of a crescent, upon the left bank of the Rhine," says a tourist, "its lengthened quay, and its impressive assemblage of towers and spires, fix the attention and gratify the beholder." But, in traversing the streets, the disappointment is severe. Melancholy traces of decay are visible in almost every part. "There are one hundred edifices," says the same writer, "appropriated to public worship; but there is hardly a single dwelling to be found in a state of complete repair." The cathedral is a vast and magnificent edifice; but, though its foundation is attributed to the 13th century, it is still unfinished. The Prussian government has, however, resolved to complete it. The population of Cologne has increased of late years, and now amounts to 65,000 persons, besides 3700 in the suburb of Deutz. Few places, even in the poorest countries, had so many beggars in proportion to the mass of the community; for it is affirmed, that the mendicants who infested the narrow and gloomy streets amounted to 12,000, notwithstanding the existence of many establishments for the relief of the poor. But this nuisance is now daily diminishing, in consequence of the increasing commerce and prosperity of the city, which has recently been made a free port, and is now becoming the largest and wealthiest city on the Rhine.

Bonn, which is situated on the left bank of the Rhine, has 12,000 inhabitants. Its university, which is one of the most flourishing in Germany, has about 900 students. Dusseldorf, on the right bank of the Rhine, is a very commercial city, with 32,000 inhabitants. It has many charitable and educational institutions. All the valuable paintings, which were the glory of its gallery, have, with one exception,

been removed to Munich. It has however a school of painting, which was founded in 1808, under the direction of the celebrated artist Cornelius.

Aschaffenburg on the Maine, a town which was the residence and favourite city of the present sovereign. It contains 12,000 inhabitants, and is situated in a valley near the Maine. The town is Roman, which was found there, and which is now in the museum. The town is also remarkable for its manufactures of cotton, which are the principal branch of industry. The annual production of these goods is said to be not less than 2,000,000 florins. There are many manufactories of cotton, woollen, &c. and the Turkey-red dye which is exported to a great amount from Great Britain to be dyed here, and then returned. In fact, the whole of the surrounding country is very productive in cotton, and is covered with factories of various kinds.

Coblentz, at the confluence of the Moselle with the Rhine, is the capital of Rhenish Prussia, and, including the garrison, has a population of about 16,000. It is fortified, and, on the other side of the Rhine, are so strong as to be an out-fortification. Coblentz is beautifully situated, is an exceedingly picturesque town, and carries on an active commerce with the surrounding countries.

Aix la Chapelle, which contains 40,000 inhabitants, and is celebrated for its warm springs, was known to the Romans, under the name of Aquis Grani, but owes its eminence to Charlemagne, who was born and died here. It was formerly regarded as the capital of the empire, and, till 1558, the successors of Charlemagne were crowned here. Three congresses, those of 1668, 1748, and 1818, have been held in this city. The town-hall, and the cathedral, in the latter of which is the tomb of Charlemagne, and a variety of relics, are the principal buildings. Cloth and needles are the chief manufactures of Aix la Chapelle.

Treves, or Trier, is situated on the right bank of the Moselle, in a fertile and beautiful valley, surrounded by low hills, which are covered with vines. Though, perhaps, its claim to have been in existence 1300 years before Rome was founded, may be justly considered as absurd, there can be no doubt that it is the oldest city in Germany, and that it was in a flourishing state when Julius Cæsar led his armies into this quarter. At present it is in a depressed condition. Among the objects worthy of notice at Treves are the cathedral, Our Lady's church, and the numerous Roman antiquities. The population is about 17,000 in number.

THE KINGDOM OF BAVARIA.

Boundaries.—This kingdom consists of two very unequal portions, separated from each other. The first, surrounded by Austria, Saxony, the two Hesses, Baden, and Wurtemberg, consists of the largest part of the ancient circles of Bavaria and Franconia, with part of Suabia. The other, situated on the banks of the Rhine, between France, Hesse Homburg, Hesse Darmstadt, [illegible] a portion of the ancient duchy of Deux Ponts, and a district called, jointly by France in 1814.

Divisions.—Bavaria is divided into eight provinces, namely, the Isar, containing [illegible]; Lower Danube, 23 districts; Upper Danube, 16 districts; Regen, 11 districts; Upper Main, 14 districts; Lower Main, 12 districts; Rezat, 8 districts; the Rhine, 12 districts. The area is about 29,425 square miles; and the population nearly [illegible].

Surface, Lakes, &c.—Its principal rivers are the Danube, Main, Isar, Lech, and Rednitz. In the mountainous parts of the south are several considerable lakes, among which are the Chiemsee, Wurmsee, and Ammersee. The lake of Constance lies partly in Switzerland.

Government.—The government is monarchical: the crown hereditary, descending to males, and in default of them, to females; male descendants of the female line. The legislative power is vested in two chambers, the senate and the deputies, conjointly with the king. The senators sit for life, or in some cases, hereditarily: the deputies sit for six years, unless when the king dissolves the chamber sooner. Liberty of conscience, of the press, of opinion, and equality in the eye of the law, are the rights of every citizen.

Sovereign.—Louis Charles Augustus, born 25th of August, 1786, married, in 1810, to Princess Charlotte of Saxe Altenburg, by whom he has issue, Maximilian Joseph, prince royal, born 1811; Matilda Caroline, 1813; Otho, king of Greece, 1815; Luitpold Charles, 1821; Adelgusta, 1823; Hildegarde Louisa, 1825; Leopoldina Amelia, 1826; and Adalbert Charles, 1828.

Principal Towns.—Munich, the capital of Bavaria, is situated on the banks of the Isar, in the midst of an extensive and infertile plain, nearly 1600 feet above the level of the sea. It has a population of about 95,000 souls. Since the beginning of this century it has nearly doubled in magnitude, and has nearly doubled the number of its inhabitants. The present monarch is an enthusiastic admirer of the fine arts, and has done wonders in the embellishment of his capital. Some of the first structures, and finest collections in Europe, are to be found in Munich. Among the edifices may be mentioned the royal palace, the sculpture and picture galleries, and the new churches. The collection of paintings in the Pinacothek, or picture gallery, is in good order; and the library, which contains 600,000 volumes, is, in point of extent, the largest in the world. The art of lithography was invented at Munich, by Sennefelder.

Passau, at the confluence of the Inn with the Danube, and the Ilz, has a populatio

markable for its commerce,
s picturesque site, and the
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d on the right bank of the
rly a free city of the empire,
806, was the place where the
s assembled. It has about
It is greatly declined from
ity, and has a gloomy air.
ch was begun in 1263, is one
hic churches in Germany.
omer, who died here of a
small circular temple as a
six miles from Ratisbon, on
he Bavarian monarch has
d temple, called Valhalla,
glory of the great men of

Regnitz, is a handsome city,
inhabitants, and is situated
try. Its cathedral, which
eminence, and is in the
f architecture, is a magnifi-
Bamberg was formerly the
ecclesiastical principality.
suppressed in 1803.
ch once had 70,000 inhabi-
lls, has now but 40,000, and
commerce has dwindled al-
It is, however, an exceed-
ity, with many noble edifices;
the town-hall, and various
e birthplace of Hans Sachs,
ator, Behaim; Peter Vischer,
lbert Durer, the celebrated
ing of Durer still exists, and
ciety of artists.
ier city which has declined
reatness, is situated between
he Lech, and has 37,000 in-
al memorable diets of the
here in the 16th century.
k-jobbing is now the prin-
ried on at Augsburg, which
ne of the principal of the
y-markets. The city pos-
ancient structures. "The
on the walls of almost every
ing, give it," says Beckford,
lich pleases on the score of

e-Mayn, which was formerly
ecclesiastical principality,
habitants, and has a strong
her side of the river. The
yal palace, and the noble
d, sick, and poor, are worthy
pearance of Würzburg, when
tadel, is extremely striking

DOM OF WURTEMBERG.

urtemberg is bounded on the
ad duchy of Baden and the
dia; on the east by the king-
m the south by the kingdom of Bavaria, the lake of Constance, and the duchy of Baden; and on the west by the grand duchy of Baden.

DIVISIONS.—This kingdom is divided into four circles: of the Neckar, the Schwartzwald, or Black Forest, Jagst, and the Danube. It has a population of about 1,700,000 souls, of whom about one-fourth are Catholics.

RIVERS.—Its rivers are the Neckar, the Danube, the Kocher, the Jagst, and the Tauber.

GOVERNMENT.—A constitutional monarchy. The present monarch, in May, 1817, granted a charter, by which two chambers were established, the nobles and the commons, to be convoked every two years, and to possess the privileges necessary for preserving the rights of the people.

SOVEREIGN.—William I., born September 27, 1781; married first, in 1816, Catherine, daughter of Paul, emperor of Russia; and, second, in 1820, Pauline Theresa, daughter of the late duke of Wurtemberg. By Catherine he has issue, Maria Frederica, born in 1816, and Sophia Frederica, born in 1818. By Paulina, he has Catherine Frederica, born in 1821; Charles Frederic, prince royal, born in 1823; and Augusta Wilhelmina, born in 1826.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.—Stuttgart, the capital of the kingdom, is situated in a picturesque valley, on the Nusenbach, near its confluence with the Neckar, and has 35,000 inhabitants. It has some fine buildings, among which are the old and new palaces, and one magnificent street, King's Street; but the greatest part of it is in a very humble style of architecture; so that it has been sarcastically characterized as "a large village, with a fine street and a palace." There are several public institutions, and the library, which contains 200,000 volumes, is said to have the largest collection of Bibles in the world; consisting of 8544 volumes, in sixty different languages.

Heilbronn, with 11,000 inhabitants, occupies a beautiful site on the right bank of the Neckar. It is an industrious and commercial place, and in the vicinity are immense quarries of stone and plaster of Paris. The church of St. Kilian, a beautiful structure, with a tower 220 feet high, is the most remarkable edifice. The William canal, which was opened in 1821, facilitates its trading intercourse with the Neckar and the Rhine.

Ludwigsburg, which has 11,000 inhabitants, stands in a fertile plain, near the Neckar, and was founded by Duke Eberhard Lewis, who intended to make it his capital. It has a college, military school, arsenal, and cannon-foundry. The deserted palace, which is one of the largest in Germany, contains an indifferent picture gallery. About six miles from Ludwigsburg is the village of Marback, in a cottage of which, still existing, the poet Schiller was born.

Tubingen, situated on the Neckar, has 8000 inhabitants, and is celebrated for its university, and its numerous scientific and literary esta-

blishments. The number of students in the university is between 7000 and 8000: it was founded as far back as the year 1477, and among its earliest professors were Reuchlin and Melancthon. It has a library of 140,000 volumes.

Ulm, on the right bank of the Danube, formerly an imperial city, and now the chief place of a circle, contains 14,000 inhabitants, and has a tolerable share of commerce. One of its exports will appear strange to an English reader. It consists of that species of snail called the edible snail, of which, after being fattened, 4,000,000 are annually sent to Vienna and other parts, where they are regarded as a great delicacy. At Vienna, a plate of snails costs as much as a plate of veal. The cathedral of Ulm is one of the six finest Gothic cathedrals in Germany. The tower has an altitude of 237 feet. Ulm is the place where, in 1805, the imbecile Mack, at the head of an army of 20,000 men, in a strong and well provided fortress, capitulated without an attempt at resistance.

THE KINGDOM OF HANOVER.

Boundaries.—It is bounded on the north-west by the German Ocean; on the north by the Elbe; on the east and south-east by Prussia and Brunswick; on the south-west by Hesse Cassel, Lippe, and Prussia; and on the west by Holland. The area of the kingdom is 14,570 square miles, and its population, in 1839, was 1,722,107.

Divisions.—The kingdom is divided into six prefectures or governments, and a district called the Mining Intendancy of Clausthal, on the Upper Hartz. The governments are Hanover, Hildesheim, Luneburg, Stade, Osnabruck, and Aurich, in the principality of East Friesland.

Rivers.—The rivers of Hanover are the Weser, the Ems, the Elbe, and some minor streams, such as the Aller, the Ilmenau, and the Leine. The only large lakes are the Steinhudermeer, the Dummer Sea, and the Witten Sea. In East Friesland is a subterraneous lake, called Jordan, which is so thickly matted with vegetation, that waggons can pass over it.

Government.—The kingdom is governed by a monarch. A new constitution, establishing two chambers, the members of the second chamber to be elected for six years, and to meet annually, was sanctioned by the late William IV. of England. When the present sovereign ascended the throne of Hanover, he abolished that constitution, and has since reigned despotically, to the infinite disgust of his subjects.

Sovereign. — Ernest Augustus, son of George III. of England, born June 5, 1771, married, in 1815, Frederica Louisa, a widow, and daughter of the duke of Mecklenburg Strelitz, by whom he has issue George Frederic, prince royal.

Principal Towns.—Hanover, the capital of the kingdom, is situated on the Leine, and has 27,400 inhabitants. It consists of three parts, one of which, the old town, is ill built, and has crooked and narrow streets, but the are in a more modern style. It has or manufactures. There are a few public edifices, and several bene other institutions. Rather less t from the town is the deserted palac hausen, the most remarkable object with which is, a jet d'eau, which th a height of 120 feet a column of wa as the body of a man.

Göttingen, a town on the Leine, inhabitants, and has little that is notice except its celebrated univer was founded, in 1737, by George I about 1200 students. The library versity contains 300,000 volumes, manuscripts.

Luneburg, on the Ilmenau, has bitants, carries on a considerable has salt-pits, which are among the ductive in Europe. Osnabruck, inhabitants, claims notice only on its fabric of coarse linen, and its h the place where the negotiations fo of Westphalia were partly carried o heim, an ancient town, with 13,000 i has a remarkable cathedral, with bronze gates, and contains one of idols called Irmen Saule, which is greenish stone. Emden, a seaport c laert gulf, is an important comme and contains 11,000 inhabitants. It rous manufactures, and various sc stitutions.

THE KINGDOM OF SAXO

Boundaries.—On the north this bounded by the Prussian governmer seburg, Frankfort, and Lignitz; on Lignitz and a part of Bohemia; on by Bohemia and the Bavarian cir upper Mayn; and on the west by and by the domains of Reuss, Saxe and Saxe Weimar. Its population, 1,687,141: it is one of the most den lated countries in Europe.

Divisions.—Saxony is divided in cles — Misnia, Leipsic, the Ersge Voigtland, and Lusatia.

Rivers.—The principal river is The others are the Black and White Muldau, and the Pleisse.

Government.—A monarchy, wit sentation in two chambers. The the chambers is necessary for the altering laws; but, in cases of emer king may issue ordinances, the res for which rests upon his ministers.

Sovereign.—Frederic Augustus, b 1797; married, first, to the archduche of Austria, who died in 1832; and, s 1833, to Maria Anna, daughter of the l Bavaria; by neither of whom is there

Principal Towns.—Dresden, the an object of general admiration. "T art," says Dr. Neale, "beauty and gra

in forming one of the finest scenes
l in any inland city of Europe. In
sition, Dresden has greatly the ad-
r Berlin, being situated in a fertile
banks of the Elbe, surrounded by
hills, covered with vineyards and
nd enlivened with villas and farm-
a very picturesque manner." It is
for its palaces, churches, and chari-
ations, and is the school of Germany
re, painting, enameling, and other
rts. Three towns form the aggregate
orned with architectural objects of
The royal palace, which embellishes
n, is a magnificent structure, but is
guished by its collection of pictures,
l cabinet, than by its external beauty.
nion of many persons of taste, the
ig ornament of the city is the church
ustus III. erected for the Catholic
he form is oblong, with semicircular
ell-tower is finely proportioned, and
elevation of 450 feet; the roof is en-
by a double balustrade, which sup-
olossal statues of saints. To the
e church are annexed four elegant
th nine altars, over the chief of which
ption of the Virgin Mary is beauti-
ented by the genius of Mengs. The
oration which prevails throughout,
id imposing.
e of Dresden is very considerable,
he produce of the country. Among
il manufactures are those of porce-
linen, and woollen; its dyed stuffs
at request; and it has extensive
for bells and cannon. The popula-
0.
in Upper Saxony, is situated in a
id fertile plain on the Pleisse, and
out 47,000 inhabitants. It has large
dilt suburbs, with handsome gardens.
:ations seem rather calculated for
ion of the inhabitants, than for de-
: streets are clean, commodious, and
and many of the houses are both
legant. Leipsic has long been dis-
for the liberty of conscience allowed
of different sentiments in religion.
university, the oldest in Germany,
of Prague, which is still very con-
rith six churches for the Lutherans,
ig the established religion,) one for
sts, and a chapel in the castle for
e Romish church. The academical
nprehends about 30,000 volumes.
a library for the magistrates, con-
bout 36,000 volumes, and near 2000
s; to which are added cabinets of
ies, and medals, with many curio-
t and nature. The exchange is an
lding. Next to Hamburgh, this is
mmercial city in Germany. It suf-
violence and rapacity of the French,
it a seat of war in 1813; but it has
ered from the shock. Its various manufactures flourish; its three fairs are still greatly frequented; and it has a more extensive trade in books than any other continental town. At the Easter fair, 600 booksellers sometimes assemble here to settle their annual accounts and purchases.

Chemnitz, which has a population of 23,000 souls, is the chief manufacturing town in Saxony. Its cotton fabrics, especially stockings, compete with those of England in foreign markets. It also supplies a considerable part of the continent with spinning machinery. Chemnitz was for four centuries a free imperial city.

THE SAXON DUCHIES.

The Saxon Duchies, which are possessed by the Ernestine branch of the Saxon House, are four in number: Saxe-Coburg Gotha, Saxe-Meiningen, Saxe-Altenberg, and Saxe-Weimar. A brief description of them will suffice.—1. The duchy of Saxe-Coburg Gotha is in the southern part of Thuringia, and has an area of about 790 square miles, with 139,000 inhabitants. Both divisions of the duchy have representative constitutions. Agriculture is the main occupation of the people; but in Gotha there are many manufactories of linen, woollen, cotton, and metals. The two principal towns are Coburg and Gotha, the former of which has 9500 inhabitants, and the latter 13,000.—2. Saxe-Meiningen. This duchy is composed of the ancient duchy of the same name, the principalities of Hildberghausen and Saalfield, and a few districts. It has an area of about 882 square miles, and a population of 152,640 souls. Agriculture is its most important branch of industry, but it has a tolerable portion of manufactures. There is a single representative chamber in this duchy. The capital is Meiningen, which has 6000 inhabitants.—3. Saxe-Altenberg, with an area of 483 square miles, has 122,717 inhabitants. The natives of this duchy are excellent agriculturists. Manufactures are few, and chiefly of woollen cloths, stockings, and wooden wares. The representatives of Altenberg are twelve in number, and constitute one chamber, the president of which is nominated by the duke. Altenberg, which has 13,763 inhabitants, is the capital.—4. Saxe-Weimar, a grand duchy, has an area of 1404 square miles, and a population of 247,603 persons. It is situated on the northern frontiers of the Thuringian forest. Manufactures have gained little ground in this country. Wool is the chief article of commerce. Saxe-Weimar has a representative constitution; the deputies sit in a single chamber. Its principal towns are Weimar, with between 11,000 and 12,000 inhabitants; Jena, with 6000, and a celebrated university; and Eisenach, with 9340.

The Grand Duchy of Baden is bounded on the north by the grand duchy of Hesse and the kingdom of Bavaria; on the east by the kingdoms of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, and the principalities of Hohenzollern; on the south by the lake of Constance and the Rhine, which separate it from Switzerland; and on the west, by

the Rhine, which flows between it and France. It is divided into the four circles of the Lake, and of the Upper, Central, and Lower Rhine, and has an area of about 5700 square miles, and a population of 1,296,967 souls. It is generally hilly, but the soil is productive, and agriculture is in a flourishing state. Here are but few manufactories. Its chief rivers are the Danube, which rises in it, the Rhine, the Neckar, the Mayn, and the Kintzig. The mineral springs of the grand duchy are numerous, and in high repute. Besides that part of the lake of Constance which is called the Unter Sea, there are several lakes, among which are those of Mockinger, Illmen, and Schlucht. The grand duke exercises the executive and judicial powers, and shares in the legislative with an upper and lower chamber of representatives. Its principal towns are Carlsruhe, Mannheim, Heidelberg, Freyberg, Constance, and Baden. Carlsruhe, the capital, has 22,000 inhabitants, was founded in 1715 by the margrave Charles, and is built in a fan-like form, all its main streets terminating at the palace. It has several public institutions, and a library of 90,000 volumes. Mannheim, at the confluence of the Neckar with the Rhine, was formerly the capital of the palatinate, and is now the finest and the most populous city in the grand duchy. It has 24,000 inhabitants, and is regularly built. Formerly it was a fortress of considerable strength; but all the works have been destroyed, and gardens and walks have assumed their place. The town carries on a considerable traffic. Large quantities of the metallic composition called similor are made in this place. Freyberg, the former capital of Brisgau, has 14,000 inhabitants, a celebrated university, and a noble Gothic cathedral, the tower of which is 380 feet high. Heidelberg, on the Neckar, has 13,000 inhabitants. Its university has long been famous. On an eminence, above the town, are the extensive and grand ruins of the electoral castle. The famous Heidelberg tun, which will hold 800 hogsheads, is still to be seen in a cellar under the castle, but it has been empty ever since 1769. Constance, on the lake of the same name, which once had 45,000 inhabitants, has now only 4500. It has a handsome cathedral. Here was held the famous council which deposed Popes Benedict XIII. and John XXIII., and murdered John Huss, and Jerome of Prague. Baden, celebrated for its hot baths, has only 4000 permanent residents; but it is sometimes annually visited by 12,000 persons, in quest of health or pleasure.

ELECTORAL HESSE, or HESSE-CASSEL. This electorate is bounded on the north by the Prussian government of Minden, and the kingdom of Hanover; on the north, by the Prussian government of Erfurt, the grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar, and the Bavarian circle of the Lower Mayn; on the south, by the same circle, and the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt; and on the west, by the same grand duchy, and the principality of Waldeck. It has an area of 4350 square miles, and a population souls. It is divided into the provinc and Lower Hesse, Fuldau, and Ha are subdivided into twenty-two c rivers are the Fulda, Werra, Mayn, an agriculture is productive; but its ma are inadequate to supply the home tion. Hesse-Cassel has a liberal co with only one chamber. The elector hereditary in the male line. Its la are Cassel, Marburg, Fulda, and Ha sel, the capital, is situated on the has 29,000 inhabitants. The old to bank of the river, is close and dir upper town is well built and airy. Th palace is but an indifferent edific surpassed by the museum, which library of 90,000 volumes, a cabine sities, and collections of antiquities history. Three miles from Cassel mer palace of Wilhelmshohe, the which are remarkable for their wa among them is a fountain, which jet of water a foot in diameter, to nearly 200 feet. Hanau is the seco point of magnitude. It stands nea tion of the Kintzig with the May about 15,000 inhabitants. It is the facturing town in the electorate, a brics of wool, cotton, silk, porcelain, in gold and silver. Near this place rians were defeated by Napoleon, attempted to cut off his retreat afte of Leipsic. Fulda, on the river o name, has 10,000 inhabitants. In th is the tomb of St. Boniface, the apo many, who was slain by the Frisi Marburg, on the Lahn, contains souls, and is the seat of a univer church of St. Elizabeth is an admir men of the early pointed Gothic the painted glass windows of the cl tremely beautiful.

THE GRAND DUCHY OF HESSE D —This territory is divided into t nected parts, by the province of Ha belongs to Electoral Hesse. The may, however, be considered as its b on the north, the duchy of Hanau toral Hesse; on the east, the latte Bavarian circle of the Lower May grand duchy of Baden; on the sou state, and the Bavarian circle of and on the west, the Prussian gov Coblentz, the duchy of Nassau, th district of Wetzlar, and governmen berg. It is divided into the princ Starkenburg and Upper Hesse, the which has 14 districts, and the lat the province of Rhenish Hesse, whic of 11 cantons. Its area is about 8 miles, and its population is 811,500 agriculture is in a good state; its ch factures are woollens, cottons, line and hardware. Its rivers are the Rh Lahn, and Nahe. The duchy has a

been pronounced by some architects practicable. Mentz, situated on the posite to the confluence of the Mayn river, has 33,000 inhabitants. For- was the capital of an electorate. It is by works of uncommon strength, and ie three fortresses which belong to the Confederation; the other two are g and Landau. The cathedral is a of more antiquity than beauty, and ed severely from war. One of its 360 feet high. Mentz has a respect- e of commerce. Guttenberg, one of ants to the invention of printing, was , and a fine bronze statue, in honour las been erected in an open space he theatre. Worms, once a flourish- opulous city, and the seat of many now only 8000 inhabitants, and grass in its streets. Its principal building thedral. Giessen, which has 8000 ts, is pleasantly situated on the Lahn. university, instituted in 1607, with students, and other institutions for ion of knowledge. Offenbach is a manufacturing town, which carries siderable export trade in jewellery, d varnished ware. It has 8000 inha-

UCHY OF NASSAU is encircled by Prussia, the Hessian states, and the of Frankfort-on-the-Mayn. Its area ly estimated, but appears to be about e miles, and its population is 391,651. ed into three provinces, Wiesbaden, parts of it out of thirty-five, having been made productive. Wood is one of its staple products; the mines, too, are worked to considerable advantage. Brunswick is governed by a limited monarchy, and has two chambers of representatives. The two most important of its towns are Brunswick, on the Ocker, with 36,000 inhabitants, and Wolfenbuttel, on the same river, with 8300. Brunswick has a magnificent palace, a museum of paintings, antiquities, and natural history, and a cathedral. Wolfenbuttel, which is seven miles from Brunswick, has a noble library of 200,000 volumes, in which are preserved Luther's Bible, with notes in his own handwriting, his wedding ring, portrait, and other relics of the great reformer.

MECKLENBURG.—The territory thus named comprises two duchies, Mecklenburg-Schwerin and Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the first of which is far superior in magnitude to the second. The whole country is bounded on the east by Pomerania and Brandenburg; on the south by Brandenburg and the principality of Luneburg; on the west by Lauenburg and the territory of Lubeck; and on the north by the Baltic. Its area is 5880 square miles, of which 4788 belong to Schwerin, and 1092 to Strelitz. The duchy of Schwerin has 494,530 inhabitants; that of Strelitz 89,528. The principal rivers are the Warnow, Trave, Peene, and Stepenitz; the lakes are numerous: the largest are the Muritz, the Tollen, the Schwerin, and the Plauen. The duchy of Schwerin is divided into five circles, and that of Strelitz into two. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in agricul-

FREE CITIES OF THE GERMAN CONFEDERATION.

LUBECK, once the proud head of the Hanseatic Confederacy, is now eclipsed by the commercial fame of Hamburgh. To strangers the rooms are still shown, in which the directors of that far-famed league (noticed in our Introduction, p. 83.) held their meetings. The town has some communication with the German Ocean by means of flat-bottomed boats, through the rivers Steckenitz and Elbe; but its chief trade is carried on by the medium of the Baltic. One proof of its decline is the low rate at which even capital houses may be procured, while at Hamburgh a paltry habitation bears a high rent. The government is in the hands of the Lutherans, whose intolerant spirit, which injured the interest of the city, is now allayed by the increasing liberality of the times. It has 47,000 inhabitants.

Frankfort-on-the-Mayn is situated in a spacious and fertile plain, on the borders of Franconia, with rising ground in the surrounding distance, and mountains toward the north-west. Saxenhausen, on the opposite bank of the river, is considered as a part of the city; and both divisions contain 65,400 inhabitants. The fortifications, which are now destroyed, were regular; but they did not protect the town against the violence of the French revolutionists, who repeatedly plundered the magistrates and the inhabitants. It was the usual place of the imperial election and coronation; but that privilege is superplaces of resort—render it one of agreeable abodes for a stranger, in th Germany. The most striking edifice town-house, the exchange, the arse and orphan-house. The principal ch ing a massy Gothic structure, has an aspect: but it is built of brick, and steeple, which, like the tower of Pis clined from its perpendicular, is cons wood, sheathed with copper. The which Klopstock resided thirty years, is No. 232 in the Konigstrass, or Kin Many charitable institutions reflect h this city. The foundling hospital, cular, is well endowed, and judicio ducted. The great hospital is capabl taining between 4000 and 5000 patie the great convenience of the poor, a been long established for the loan upon pledges, at a very low rate of and a public granary is kept up, fro in times of scarcity, corn is sold at a price. The trade of this city was gr jured by the oppressive sway of the and the sugar-refineries, and the ma of silken stuffs, were nearly ruined: many years past, they have been advancing to their former state. Con promoted by the smallness of the levied by the ruling power. Corn, ya tin, copper, coined gold and silver, ar are free from duty on importation; a manufactured articles of the city ar from duty on exportation. On the 5t 1842, Hamburgh was threatened wi

bishop's see, in 788. Under its cathedral is a vault, which has the singular property of preserving from decomposition the bodies which are interred in it. Bremen is remarkable for its cleanliness, in which it vies with Dutch towns. Olbers, the astronomer who discovered the planets Vesta and Pallas, is a native of this place. The river near the town being too shallow to admit of large vessels, they were long obliged to unload at the port of Brake, in Oldenburg; but the Bremeners, in 1827, bought from the Hanoverian government a piece of ground, on which they constructed a port, called Bremerhafen, around which a town is rapidly rising. From 1000 to 1200 vessels annually enter the port of Bremen: the property which they bring is estimated at the value of £2,000,000.

SWITZERLAND.

Switzerland was considered by the Romans as a part of Gaul, and inhabited by the Helvetii on the west, and the Rhæti on the east. The modern name seems to be derived from that of the canton of Schweits, one of the earliest in forming the league by which the liberty of the country was asserted against the dukes of Austria. While it was under the French yoke, it bore the name of the Helvetic Republic.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 230	between	6. and 11. E. long.
Breadth, 190		47. 45. N. lat.

Containing 13,900 square miles, with about 80 inhabitants to each.

Boundaries.—It is bounded on the north by the circle of Swabia in Germany, on the east by Tyrol, on the south by Italy, and on the west by France.

Divisions.—Switzerland, before the year 1798, was divided into thirteen cantons; namely, Zurich, Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schweits, Unterwalden, Zug, Glarus, Basil or Basle, Freyburg, Soleure or Solothurn, Schaffhausen, and Appenzel. Beside these there were certain districts and towns which were the subjects of the cantons, and some small states who were their allies. New arrangements were made, in 1802, after that partial insurrection which was soon suppressed by the power of France. Nineteen cantons were then formed by the order of Bonaparte, the new ones being Argovia or Aargau, the Grison territory, Ticino, St. Gall, Thurgau, and the Pays de Vaud. When the Swiss were restored to a state of nominal independence by the allies, a new division was adopted by the congress of Vienna; or we may rather say, that three cantons were incorporated with the rest; namely, the republics of the Valais and Geneva, and the principality of Neufchatel. The last-mentioned territory, with the county of Valengin, had been subject to the kings of Prussia from the year 1707, when it was ceded to Prussia by the states, on the failure of the line of princes: but, the present monarch being rendered very powerful by the result of the Anti-Gallican league, he condescended to allow this petty state to be added to the Swiss confederacy; though he still holds a paramount authority over it.

Face of the Country—Mountains.—The face of Switzerland is in general so mountainous, that even the parts of it accounted level abound with such eminences as in other countries would be called mountains. Nature seems here to have formed everything on her grandest scale. The towering summits of stupendous mountains, dreadful precipices, glaciers which resemble seas of ice, rocks in the most varied and fantastic forms, excite astonishment and awe; while occasional contrasts are afforded by undulating and wooded slopes, verdant vales, and scenes of cultivation. From the south-west to the north-east a mountainous chain pervades the country. The most conspicuous heights are the ridges of Mount Jura, which the Swiss share with the French; the Finster Aar-horn; the Jung-frau, or Virgin; the Eiger; the Schreck-horn; the Twins; and St. Gothard: but all these are inferior in height to Mont Blanc, which, though it borders on Switzerland, is situated within the frontiers of Savoy.

Lakes.—The principal lakes of Switzerland are that of Constance, also called the Boden Sea, which is about 45 miles in length and 15 in breadth; and the lake of Geneva, about 40 miles long, and 10 at its greatest breadth. Other lakes are those of Neufchatel, Lucerne, Zurich, Thun, Bienne or Biel, Brientz, and Wallenstadt. The picturesque beauties of some of these lakes, particularly that of Geneva, are admired by all persons of taste.

Rivers.—The Rhine, which is the fourth in rank of European rivers, is the chief river of Switzerland. It is formed by the confluence of three streams. One, called the Fore Rhine, rises in two small lakes, on a mountain called Badus, a part of the St. Gothard chain; the second, named the Middle Rhine, originates in Mount Luckmanier, and, after a course of 24 miles, joins the former near Disentis; and the third, the Hinder Rhine, rises in the Vogelsberg. The first two and the last unite near Coire, and the river then becomes navigable for rafts. It proceeds to the northward, and passes through the lake of Constance, whence it flows to the westward until it reaches Basle. It then takes a northerly course, separating Suabia from Alsace; receives the Maine near Mentz, and the Moselle near Coblentz; and, near

Fort-Schenck in Guelderland, is divided into two branches; one of which, called the Wahal, is joined by the Maes at the isle of Bommel, while the other, flowing to the right, proceeds in two channels, one only retaining the original name of the river. At Ilerstede another disjunction takes place, one stream being called the Leck, the other the Crooked Rhine. This forms two subsequent divisions, namely, the Veent, and the Proper Rhine. One falls into the Zuyder-Zee; the other, traversing South Holland in a scanty stream, joins the sea at Catwyck.

The Rhone rises in Mount Furca, from the foot of a glacier, runs impetuously to the lake of Geneva, and, having passed through that body of water without appearing to mix with it, pursues its course amidst a romantic country into France. The Aar makes its first appearance in a valley at the foot of Mount Schreckhorn, passes through the lakes of Brientz and Thun, and falls into the Rhine near Zurzach.

Metals and Minerals.—The mountains contain mines of iron, crystal, virgin sulphur, and springs of mineral waters. Copper and lead are also found, but not abundantly; and quarries of rock-salt are met with, particularly in the Pays de Vaud.

Among the mineral waters, the most celebrated are the hot baths of Pfeffers, between Sargans and the Rhine, recommended for various chronical disorders. These baths are one of the greatest natural curiosities of the country. They are situated at the bottom of a terrific ravine, through which flows the river Tamina. On one side it is approachable by a bridle path, conducted down an almost precipice in a series of zigzags. On the other, the traveller, after a long and steep descent, reaches a wooden hut, containing a sort of crane, by which provisions are lowered down to the establishment, consisting of two buildings, looking like cotton factories, which he sees at a depth of 600 feet perpendicular below him. The only mode of reaching the baths from this side is by a staircase, formed partly of trunks of trees, attached to the face of the cliff, and partly by steps cut in the rock, and situated about 100 yards higher than the crane. At the bottom of the ladder, the Tamina is crossed by a natural bridge of rock, beneath which the river forces its way out of sight and hearing. Ten minutes' walk below this point lie the baths, two large buildings connected together by a chapel. They are built on a narrow ledge of rock, a few feet above the roaring Tamina, and so deeply sunken between the rocks, that they may be said to be half buried; so that, in the height of summer, the sun appears above them only from ten to four. To visit the hot spring, which supplies the baths, and is at some distance, is a service of danger, the approach to it being much more difficult than the descent to the baths themselves. This approach is along a sort of shelf, suspended by iron stanchions to the roc
than three planks wide, and gen
A few yards from the entrance,
darkened by the overhanging r
den chill of an atmosphere neve
sun's rays, the fearful rushing
the torrent, 30 or 40 feet below,
position of the rocks above, and
and quivering of the narrow pl
you tread, protected by no railin
are enough to cause a slight s
one who is possessed of stron
shelf of planks extends nearly a
from the baths. At its extremit
of a cavern in the rocks, rises

Climate, Soil, and Agric
the mountainous nature of this
which the Alps form an amphit
than 100 miles, the frosts are ve
of the eminences being scarcely
snow. In summer the inequa
renders the same province very
seasons; on one side of the m
habitants are often reaping,
sowing on another. The valley
warm and fruitful, and well cul
regard to fertility, the canton
superior to most of the others
Appenzel is particularly ba
scarcely a field of corn. It o
served, that the agriculture of S
been considerably improved b
Fellenberg, who keeps a gre
Berne, for the promotion of tha
for general education.

There is, perhaps, no countr
except Holland, where the adva
of unwearied and persevering in
remarkably conspicuous than
In passing over the mountainou
veller is struck with admiratio
serves rocks that were former
planted with vines, or aboun
pasture, and marks the traces
along the sides of precipices
horse could not even mount the
difficulty. In short, the inhab
have surmounted every obstruc
situation, and climate, have t
way, and to have spread fertil
spots of the country, which Na
have consigned to everlasting b
feet of the mountains, and som
very summits, are covered with
fields, meadows, and pasture g
parts of this country are more
ing almost entirely of barren a
rocks, some of which are cont
with snow or ice. The valleys
mountains appear like so many
lakes; and, from the latter, va
ice frequently fall down into th
spots beneath. In some parts
lar gradation from extreme wi
cultivation; in others the tran
abrupt and striking. Sometim

ed mountains, richly clothed
tudded all over with hamlets,
he clouds, pastures which ap-
in the air, exhibit the most
cape that can be conceived;
ces appear rugged rocks, cata-
clad mountains of a prodigious
varieties are found within a
the Valais, than in any other
t territory, contrasts between
it imposing, the most savage,
greeable, everywhere present

AND ANIMALS. — Switzerland
, barley, oats, rye, flax and
apples, pears, grapes which
wine, nuts, cherries, plums,
he parts towards Italy abound
onds, figs, citrons, and pome-
ost of the cantons have timber.
h, and fowl, there are found in
er and more inaccessible parts
bouquetin, or goat of the rocks,
s, whose activity in scouring
and craggy rocks, and in leap-
cipices, is hardly conceivable.
h animal is of so hot a nature,
nts of some of these moun-
bject to the pleurisy, take a
ixed with water, as a remedy

The chase of the chamois is
rment; and even the great dan-
s it does not sufficiently check
any of the hunters lose their
cipitous rocks; and, when the
d difficult, some of the rash
sh by the united attacks of

The marmot is also hunted,
ger than the chamois, because
much entangle the chasseur
bices. Wolves likewise haunt
re are also yellow and white
rinter sometimes come down

NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.—
itzerland abounds in natural
inually presenting precipices,
, and cataracts. The glaciers
ds of ice, which usually rest
ine: being pushed forward by
their own weight, and weakly
rugged rocks beneath, they
by large transverse crevices,
ppearance of walls, pyramids,
stic shapes, observed at all
all situations, wherever the
nd 30 or 40 degrees. In tra-
glaciers, a long pole spiked
oes guarded by spikes of the
considered as indispensable
; but even these will not
adventurer.
lpine passes in this country
grand. Those of St. Gothard
are the most frequented. The
is 8300 feet above the level of
the Mediterranean; the latter, 6600 feet. To lessen the dangers of these terrific spots, roads have been formed along the edges of precipices, bridges have been thrown over frightful chasms, and tunnels cut through rocks; and the seeming obstacles interposed by Nature have been removed by the skill and boldness of art. From the baths of Leuk, the pass over the Gemmi is extremely hazardous; and, in descending, the path hurries the adventurer down the almost perpendicular side of the mountain.

Near Schaffhausen is a tremendous cataract, down which the Rhine dashes headlong from a height of 50 feet. Viewed in front, it appears divided into three cascades, by two craggy rocks. The foaming waters shoot over, join themselves, separate, and change their forms with such rapidity, that the eye is unable to follow them. The spray which rises from the bottom is so rarefied, that it is carried away by the wind like dust; and it occasionally exhibits rainbows of exquisite beauty. Beautiful cataracts are to be found in many of the mountainous parts of Switzerland. One of the most remarkable is the Staubbach, which falls between 800 and 900 feet. By the resistance of the air, the water is converted into spray, like dust, whence the name of the cataract, which means dust-fall.

Near Rosiniere is a famous spring, which rises in the midst of a natural basin of 12 square feet. The force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies: it is clear as crystal, and its depth is unfathomable—probably the end of some subterraneous lake, that has never found an issue for its waters.

Among the artificial curiosities may be mentioned an extraordinary hermitage, two leagues from Freyburg, formed by the hands of a single hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years. It contains a chapel; a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height; a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhausen was a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, admired for the singularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already destroyed several stone bridges of the strongest construction, when Grubenman, a carpenter of Appenzel, offered to throw a wooden bridge of a single arch across the river, which is 365 feet wide. The magistrates, however, required that it should consist of two arches, and that he should, for that purpose, employ the middle pier of the old bridge. He was obliged to obey, and thus exercised his skill: the sides and top were covered, and the road, which was almost level, was not carried as usual over the top of the arch, but (if the expression may be allowed) let into the middle of it, and therefore *suspended*. A man of the slightest weight felt it

tremble under him, though waggons heavily laden might pass over without danger. If we consider the boldness of the plan and construction, it must appear extraordinary that the architect had not the least tincture of literature, was totally ignorant of mathematics, and not versed in the theory of mechanics. The bridge was finished in less than three years, and cost about £9000 sterling. It was destroyed, in 1798, by the French invaders.

A still more wonderful bridge is the suspension bridge, at Freyburz, which was opened in 1834. Before it was erected, the only way of entering Freyberg, from Berne, was by descending, in numerous zigzags, down a steep hill, crossing the river three times, by three low bridges, and then ascending a hill of equal steepness. An hour was then required to traverse a distance which is now accomplished in two minutes. The bridge, by which this saving of time and toil is effected, is the longest and loftiest of the kind in the world; its length is 905 feet, its breadth 28, and its altitude 174. It is supported on four iron cables, each of which consists of 1056 wires. These enter the ground obliquely for a considerable distance, pass through vertical shafts cut in the rock, and filled with masonry, and are attached by their extremities to enormous blocks of stone. The structure was formed and put together by workmen only one of whom had ever seen such a bridge before. The time employed upon it was three years, and the expense was £25,000. Before it was opened to the public, the most severe trials of its stability were made. It is ascertained that it is capable of supporting thrice the weight which is likely ever to be brought upon it. The passage of two or three heavy carriages across it, does not produce the slightest apparent oscillation.

At the famous pass of Pierre Pertuis, the road is carried through a solid rock near 50 feet thick; the height of the arch is 26 feet, and its breadth 25.

At Lucerne is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, executed by General Pfeffer. It is a model in relief, and well deserves attention. It is about 12 feet long, and 9½ broad. The composition is principally a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, and a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trodden upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they appear in nature. Not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees, are distinguished, but also the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan comprises mountains, forests, lakes, towns, villages, and even cottages. The general took his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which is about *1460 feet above* the Mediterranean. This model conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another, as if the story of the Titans were realized, and they had succeeded in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa. There is also at Zurich a model of this romantic country, more curious and accurate than that of which the people of Lucerne boast.

Population.—The population of Switzerland has been much overrated by some writers. It was computed, in 1799, that the number of people in Switzerland, including the allies of the cantons, amounted to 2,000,000, of which the Bernese territory contained more than a sixth part; and a later estimate swelled it to 2,250,000; but, by an enumeration, made towards the end of 1837, it appears that the total inhabitants of the twenty-two cantons were at that period only 2,188,009.

National Character—Manners—Customs.—The Swiss are a brave, hardy, industrious people; remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general simplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankness, with a love of freedom, are the most distinguishing characteristics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A striking proof of the simplicity and openness of manners of this people, and of astonishing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who says, that on each side of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any passengers who wish to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandise, and deposit the price, for which the owners call in the evening. The Swiss are in general an enlightened nation; the common people are more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and artless good breeding is particularly conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of content which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish them from those nations who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottage convey the liveliest image of neatness and simplicity, and strongly impress upon the observer a pleasing conviction of the ease and comfort of the inmates. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture-ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. The chalets, or mountain-houses, being much larger

as than the cottages or huts, rticular notice. They are not same plan; but many of them in the following manner:— r the ordinary fir are fixed into ie sides of the house are formed i and durable timber connected s. The sloping roof is com- ningles, intermingled with flag- und floor is occupied by horses, en, cows, sheep, and goats, and or a store-room. An outside to the first floor, which is more abited by the family. A work- ted up, and even a library is pendage of the establishment. rever, be owned with regret, ience of the great influx of tra- is character has been much de- : cannot be denied," says Mr. the character of the majority asantry, whose habitations are i the neighbourhood of the main lers, or of the particular points hich they lead, is most con- in such parts it is not only vain id those simple and guileless in time past were associated of the inhabitants of these that even common morality is ion. There is a disposition in those who have been at all ex- tion, to take advantage of the avellers, to make the most ex- ds, and to go to the greatest in the system of extortion and n in those parts of the country profligacy of the cases brought excited the attention, and pro- illance of the magistrates, and quence, a kind of just price has various articles, opportunities dily seized upon to turn a dis- when it can be done without

ws are in force in most parts of id no dancing is allowed, ex- ular occasions. Silk, lace, and ticles of luxury, are prohibited cantons; and even the head- dies are regulated. All games lso strictly forbidden; and, in e person who loses a sum ex- illings of our money, incurs a e. The diversions of the Swiss, hiefly of the active kind; and, not wasted in games of chance, employ a part of their leisure g, to the great improvement of lings. The youth are diligently as exercises, such as running, ring the hammer, and shooting oss-bow and the musket. The ersons, resemble the Germans, are rather comely than hand-

The inhabitants in some parts of this country, particularly in the Valais, are subject to goitres, or excrescences of flesh, that grow from the throat, and often increase to an enormous size; and, what is more extraordinary, idiotism also abounds among them. It was concluded by many observers, that the excrescences in question arose from the use of snow water; but, as they are found in the environs of Naples, and also in the island of Sumatra, this opinion has given way to a more probable conjecture, importing that, where goitres are common, the springs are impregnated with a calcareous matter called tuf, which, though apparently dissolved, may be introduced in impalpable particles into the glands of the throat. Judging from some accounts, we might suppose that the natives, without exception, are either idiots or goitrous; but, in fact, the Valaisans in general are a robust race; and all that with truth can be affirmed, is, that goitrous persons and idiots are more abundant in some districts of the Valais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been asserted that the people respect these idiots, and even consider them as blessings from heaven, and as souls of God without sin; and this opinion has a good effect, as it disposes the parents to pay greater attention to such helpless beings. These idiots are suffered to marry, as well among themselves as with others. This practice ought not to be tolerated by the government, as idiotism may thus become hereditary.

Chief Towns and Edifices.—Berne, pleasantly situated on a declivity near the Aar, which almost surrounds it, is a neat and handsome city, the streets being wide and long, and the three principal ones having piazzas or arcades on both sides. In 1836, it had 22,751 inhabitants. It is fortified on the western side with a wall, fosse, and bastions. The cathedral, founded in 1421, and finished in 1457, is a stately Gothic edifice; and the other churches do not disgrace the general beauty of the town. The university consists of an elementary school, a classical school, and an academical institution, to which belong professors of philology, mathematics, divinity, law, and medicine. The museum contains one of the best collections, of Swiss natural productions, which is to be found in the country. The town is not enlivened with the bustle of trade, or dignified by parade or splendour of living, though many of the citizens are rich.

An almost equally populous town is Basil or Basle, which has 21,240 inhabitants, and also has a much greater share of trade, as all merchandise from Germany, Holland, and other parts of the continent, must pass through it. It is famous for the manufacture of ribbons; other silken articles are also neatly fabricated by the inhabitants, who are likewise employed in the cotton and linen branches. It is not a fine or handsome town, though its cathedral and some other buildings are worthy of notice.

The town-house, which stands in the market-place, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city, but met with so little patronage that he was forced to leave it. The situation of Basle is pleasing; the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower towns; and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Basle is remarkable for its cleanliness, in which it rivals a Dutch town.

Zurich is also a manufacturing and commercial town, one of the first in Switzerland, and a depôt for articles from Italy and the Netherlands. It is not in general well built; but it has many edifices of rich and respectable appearance, and a cathedral with two square towers, surmounted by octagonal spires. In this church may be seen the monument of Lavater, the celebrated physiognomist, who was killed upon the bridge in the town, in an insurrection of the people, by a French soldier. He was born here, as were also Gessner the poet, his namesake the naturalist, and Pestalozzi. The Wasser-kirch, or Water Church, is converted into a public library, in which, among many valuable manuscripts, are some letters, written in a style of pure Latinity, by Lady Jane Grey, the unfortunate and innocent usurper, to Bullinger, the reformer. In this town the reformation was preached by the celebrated Zuingli, in 1519. Several literary and scientific societies are established here; and among its inhabitants are some men of learning and research, and many who unite polished manners with strict integrity; yet they are not, in general, so social or well-bred as the people of many other towns, and their custom of separating the sexes, in their conversational meetings, cannot be approved by the admirers of the fair. A university was established here, in 1832. Zurich has 14,500 inhabitants.

Lucerne, which has 7500 inhabitants, is the capital of that state which was regarded as the head of the Catholic cantons. It borders upon the northern extremity of a lake which abounds in picturesque scenery: the Reuss flows in a broad and rapid current through the town, where it is crossed by two bridges, which, with the lofty mountain of Pilate in the distance, with woods, meadows, and pastures on one side, and some fine buildings on the other, form an agreeable assemblage of objects of considerable diversity and interest. As the Reuss flows into the Rhine, the inhabitants trade with Germany; and, as the town is on the road to Mount St. Gothard, they have also a great intercourse with Italy.

Soleure, which is also the capital of a Catholic canton, and is situated on the Aar, has only 4250 inhabitants, and is more remarkable for its antiquity than for the general beauty and elegance of its buildings: yet it has a fine church and college, formerly belonging to the Jesuits, a very large monastery of the Cordeliers, and a handsome town-house. It occupies a *hill, sloping* toward the Aar, and was strongly fortified; but, in 1835, the works v Kosciusko, the celebrated patriotic l ral, resided here during the latter life, and here he died.

Freyberg is one of the most pictur in Switzerland. The road from Ber ing round the shoulder of the stee looking the valley of the Saarine, traveller suddenly in view of its anti ments and numerous towers, cro summit of a precipitous rock on t side of the gorge." It was to obta passage over this valley that the bridge, which has already been men constructed. Freyberg was found it has about 8500 inhabitants. Th the cathedral, is one of the finest it has 64 stops, and 7800 pipes, son are 32 feet long.

Lausanne, the capital of the cant the lake of Geneva, has 14,120 inhab cathedral contains many curious ant ments. Here are also an old castl a cantonal museum, and other pub tions. Gibbon, the historian, resi town for several years. The neighb Lausanne abounds in walks of rur turesque beauty.

Neufchatel, the capital of a canto under the dominion of the king stands at the foot of the Jura mou has nearly 6000 inhabitants. The institutions of this town are on a s scale, in consequence of large e having been bequeathed to them b natives of the place. Wine is the ch of the canton; and clocks and w main articles of manufacture.

Geneva is far more populous than capitals of the old cantons; for about 30,000 inhabitants. It is situ south-western extremity of the Le "Two rapid streams," says a mod "issue from this point of the lake, a a small island between, unite into pitous current called the Rhone, have passed through the town, wh on both sides, but with its princi toward the south. There is a large s is distinguished by the singular c of arcades raised as high as the houses, and dissimilar from the rows having the whole space perfectly the bottom to the top." The house are built of freestone, with limes ments; and most of the streets ar well paved. The public structure and commodious rather than magni university is well frequented, and th are usually selected for merit, no by interest and cabal. The pub founded by Calvin, contains 40,00 and is rendered more useful than m tions of that kind, by the permission ing books—a more encouraging pr that of obliging the votaries of li

study within the walls of the building. Among the manufactures of Geneva, those of clocks and watches are particularly celebrated; but an Englishman may affirm, without that excess of national vanity which would deviate from truth, that his countrymen are still more expert in the fabrication of those useful and ornamental articles. Rousseau, Necker, Sismondi, Decandolle, and many other eminent men, were born at Geneva.

MANUFACTURES — COMMERCE. — Linen, dimity, lace, stockings, gloves, handkerchiefs, ribbons, silk, woollen cloth, and printed cotton, are common in Switzerland; and the inhabitants, notwithstanding their sumptuary laws, fabricate silk and velvet. Swiss manufactures, especially of linen and cotton, have made great progress of late years; so that they appear as rivals of the English fabrics in foreign markets. It is in the north and west cantons that manufacturing industry is most active. The Swiss export horned cattle, horses, sheep, cheese, butter, leather, linen, lace, wrought cotton and silk, and watches. They import corn, flax, silk, cotton, spices, and salt, beside various manufactured goods.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.—The old constitution and government of Switzerland were very complicated, as the cantons, though belonging to the same body, were partly aristocratic, and partly democratic. Every canton was absolute in its own jurisdiction; but those of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, were aristocratic, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Those of Uri, Schweitz, Unterwalden, Zug, Glarus, and Appenzel, were democratic. Basle, though it had the appearance of an aristocracy, rather inclined to a democracy. But even these aristocracies and democracies differed in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real interests of the people appear to have been much attended to; and they enjoyed a degree of happiness not to be expected in despotic governments.

The confederacy, considered as a republic, comprehended three divisions. The first was the Swiss, properly so called; the second the Grisons, or the states confederated with the Swiss for their common protection; the third consisted of prefectures, each of which, though subject to the other two, by purchase or otherwise, preserved its particular magistrates. Every canton formed within itself a little republic; but, when any controversy arose that might affect the whole confederacy, it was referred to the general diet, which sat at Baden, where, each canton having a vote, every question was decided by the majority. This assembly consisted of two deputies from each canton, beside one from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bienne. It was observed by Mr. Coxe, before the French Revolution broke out, that there was no country in which happiness and content more generally prevailed among the people; for, whether the government was aristocratic, democratic, or mixed, a spirit of liberty pervaded and actuated the several constitutions; so that even the oligarchic states (which, of all others, are usually the most tyrannical) were here peculiarly mild; and the property of the subject was securely guarded against every kind of violation. A harmony was maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their sumptuary laws, and equal division of their fortunes among their children, seemed to ensure its continuance. There was no part of Europe which contained, within the same extent of region, so many independent commonwealths, and such a variety of governments, as were collected in this remarkable country; and yet, with such wisdom was the Helvetic union composed, and so little were the Swiss actuated by the spirit of conquest, that, since the complete establishment of their general confederacy, and till the unprovoked invasion of their country by the French, they scarcely ever had occasion to employ their arms against a foreign enemy, and had no commotions among themselves, except such as were soon happily terminated.

In the year 1798, Switzerland, obliged to yield to the intrigues and arms of France, abolished the old constitution, and framed another on the French model; by which the whole country was declared a republic one and indivisible, and the government vested in two councils and a directory. But, in 1802, this constitution was likewise abolished by the authority of the first consul of France, and another presented for acceptance, which the majority of the Swiss rejected, as still more repugnant to their political principles and habits than the former. Their opposition was so determined that they had recourse to arms; and the first consul thought proper to withdraw his constitution, and offer them a new one, which they consented to accept. By this, as under the original constitution of Switzerland, each canton had its distinct internal government, which, in seven of them, (Schweitz, Appenzel, Glarus, Unterwalden, Uri, Zug, and the Grisons,) was of the democratic kind, all the male inhabitants above twenty years of age having voices in the landesgemeine, or assembly, in which all laws and regulations proposed by the magistrates and public officers were discussed. The governments of seven others, Berne, Zurich, Soleure, Freyburg, Lucerne, Basle, and Schaffhausen, were of the aristocratic form, being administered by a great and little council, the composition and privileges of which varied in the different states. The five new cantons which were then organized by the French were likewise aristocratic, and governed by two councils. The general government of the country was administered by a diet, to which each canton sent a member, and which assembled annually at Freyburg and other principal towns in rotation. The president of the diet acted as the chief magistrate, and was styled *Landamman of Switzerland*. The diet decided on war

and peace, and concluded treaties of alliance and commerce; but, on these subjects, it was necessary that three-fourths of the cantons should concur. In 1815, some modifications were made. But the greatest change was produced by the political events which took place in 1830. Since those events the democratic cantons remain as they were, excepting that of Schweitz, the exterior bailiwicks of which claim the same rights as the rest of the canton. Two representative democratic cantons, the Grisons and the Valais, have modified some parts of their administration; six representative cantons have enlarged their representation, by admitting a greater number of electors, and lowering the qualification: three representative cantons, each of which had a preponderant chief town, have been obliged to admit into the council a part of the country population; and four aristocratic cantons, Berne, Freyberg, Lucerne, and Soleure, are become representative. Basle has, in fact, been divided into two independent cantons, known as Basle City and Basle Country; Liestall is the chief place of the latter.

Revenue.—The revenue of Switzerland, before that country was oppressed and plundered by the French, was estimated at £1,150,000 sterling, and it appears to be now less than £1,000,000. It is derived from the profits of the demesne land, a tenth of the produce of all the lands of the country, customs and duties on merchandise, the revenues arising from the sale of salt, and some occasional taxes. Beside this general revenue, a fund is raised by every corporation for the relief of the poor.

Military Force.—No permanent army is kept on foot by the Swiss cantons; in the whole of the twenty-two cantons not more than 1200 or 1300 men, including gendarmes, are retained in arms. Each canton, however, must keep its contingent in readiness to march; the total number of which, for the whole country, is 33,758 men. An equal number forms the reserve contingent. The levy in mass would, it is estimated, produce 203,000 men. It is required that every burgher, peasant, and subject, should exercise himself in the use of arms, appear on the stated days for shooting at the mark, furnish himself with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder and ball, and be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiss engaged in the service of foreign princes and states, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments: in the latter case the government permitted the enlistment of volunteers, though only for allied states, or those with which they had entered into a previous agreement on that article. No subject, however, was to be forced into foreign service, or even to be enlisted, without the concurrence of the magistracy. At present there are about 18,000 Swiss in the service of the Netherlands, the two Sicilies, and Spain.

Religion.—Though all the Swiss cantons *form one* political republic, they are not united *in religion*. The inhabitants of the cantons of Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Unterwalden, Zug, Freyburg, and Soleure, are Catholics; those of Berne, Zurich, Basle, and Schaffhausen, Calvinists; and those of Appenzel and Glarus, of both religions. With regard to the new cantons, we may observe, that the Leman or Pays-de-Vaud, and the Ticino, are Catholics; while the Grisons, Argau, St. Gall, and Thurgau, are of both religions. The Catholics are under the jurisdiction, in ecclesiastical matters, of the bishops of Basle, Lausanne, Sion, and Coire, and the abbots of St. Gall and Einsiedlen. The Valais, though formerly the scene of cruel persecution on account of its affection to Protestantism, is Catholic. The people of Neufchatel are chiefly Calvinists; but all sects of religion are tolerated; and the new canton of Geneva is likewise a Calvinistic establishment. These differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which seem now to have subsided. About 12 parts in 20 of the Swiss are supposed to be Calvinists.

Ulric Zwingli, or Zuinglius, born at Wildhausen, was the apostle of Protestantism in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few speculative points; so that Calvinism may be said to be the religion of the Protestant Swiss. But this must be understood chiefly with respect to the mode of church government: for, in some doctrinal points, they are far from being universally Calvinistic. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and, though they are ardently attached to the interests of civil liberty, their sentiments on the subject of religious toleration are, in general, much less liberal.

Literature.—Schudi is mentioned by M. Simond as the earliest and best historian of Switzerland: he died in 1572. Calvin, whose name is so well known in all Protestant countries, instituted laws for the city of Geneva, which are deemed wise and judicious by the learned natives. He was, however, a native of France. The ingenious and eloquent Rousseau was a citizen of Geneva. Rousseau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a prose-writer only; but the French admire him as a poet. His opera of the "Devin de Village," in particular, is much esteemed. M. Bonnet, and MM. de Saussure and De Luc, also deserve to be mentioned with applause. Haller, a native of Berne, deserves the highest eulogy as a poet, physiologist, and philosopher. Gessner, the ingenious author of the celebrated romance of the "Death of Abel," Sismondi and Muller, excellent historians, Necker, the statesman and author, Pestalozzi, the founder of a new system of education, and several other able writers, were also natives of Switzerland.

Universities and Schools.—The university of Basle, founded in 1459, has a very curious botanic garden, which contains the choicest exotics; and, adjoining to the library, which

some valuable manuscripts, is a
ill furnished with natural and arti-
sities, and with a great number of
paintings. In the cabinets of Eras-
nerbach, which also belong to this
there are no less than twenty
ces of Holbein. The other univer-
h indeed are commonly only styled
academies, are those of Berne, Lau-
ch, and Geneva.
re numerous in Switzerland: they
ee descriptions, for reading and
r various languages, and for arith-
;eometry. To those of the first class
are not merely requested but obliged
ir children.
E. — Several languages prevail in
l; but the most common is Ger-
: Swiss who border upon France
ipure French, as those near Italy do
talian.
TIES.—Some Roman antiquities are
his country; but they are not nu-
he ruins of Cæsar's wall, which ex-
iles, from Mount Jura to the banks
eman, are still discernible. Many
s of antiquity have been discovered
aths of Baden, which were known
oans in the time of Tacitus. Swit-
sts of many fine religious buildings,
rous cabinets of valuable manu-
iques, and curiosities of all kinds.
:.—The present Swiss and Grisons
scendants of the ancient Helvetii,
Julius Cæsar. Their mountainous
situation formed a better security
iberties than their forts or armies.
nued long under little more than a
ubjection to the Burgundians and
till about the year 1300, when the
lber: I. treated them with so much
at they ventured to remonstrate
e cruelty of their governors. This
y to double the hardships of the
d one of Albert's Austrian governors,
the wantonness of tyranny set up a
le, to which he ordered the natives
much respect as to himself. The
illiam Tell being observed to pass
without taking notice of the hat,
an excellent marksman, the tyrant
l him to be hanged, unless he should
pple upon his son's head, at a certain
rith an arrow. Tell cleft the apple;
Giesler desired him to explain the
f another arrow which he saw stuck
, he bluntly answered, that it was
or the governor's heart, if he had
son. Tell was immediately ordered
risoned; but, making his escape, he
is opportunity, shot the tyrant, and
he foundation of Helvetic liberty.
rs, however, that, even before this
evolt of the Swiss from the Austrian
ad been planned by some noble
long them. Their measures *were so* just, and their course so intrepid, that they soon effected a union of several cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppression, sought first an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, and Unterwalden, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent success of their arms against the troops of the duke of Austria, insensibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They first conquered Glarus and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itself in 1353; Freyburg and Soleure in 1481; Basle and Schaffhausen in 1501; and Appenzel, in 1513, completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, this confederacy was declared to be a free and independent state. The Grisons and other neighbouring communities afterwards entered into an alliance with the cantons, without being considered as component parts of the republic.

The Swiss continued to preserve their independence, and to enjoy freedom and comfort, while other parts of Europe were harassed by war, or subjected to an oppressive yoke. Disputes and commotions sometimes arose in the cantons: but they were quickly allayed and repressed. In the year 1715, the Catholic states of the union allied themselves with France, and, after a long interval of tranquillity, a new confederacy was formed with the same kingdom, in 1777; in which the Protestant cantons were no longer unwilling to join.

Near the close of the year 1797, Switzerland fell a prey to the rapacity and ambition of France. The emissaries and partisans of the domineering republic had prepared the way for the subjugation of the country, by exciting among the people a spirit of discontent against the government, especially in the aristocratic states. That the aristocracies of Switzerland were not entirely blameless in their conduct toward their subjects is certain: but, if the power of the state, and its very moderate emoluments, were in some, or perhaps the majority, of the cantons, monopolized by a few families, it must still be remembered that their authority was, on the whole, exercised with moderation, and that the people were contented and happy. The real views of the French directors, in the attack upon Switzerland, however they might endeavour to colour them, by pretending that they were invited by the people, and that their sole aim was to assert the cause of general liberty, were to give employment to, and procure pay and plunder for, their armies; and to secure the command of a country, the possession of the important posts of which, in case of a renewal of hostilities with the empire, would both secure their frontier, and enable them to attack with much greater advantage.

The first act of hostility on the part of the French was the seizure of the Helvetic part of *the bishopric of* Basle, of which they took

possession under some frivolous pretext, in contravention of an express treaty concluded with the Swiss in 1792. The Helvetic body being too weak to resist, submitted patiently to this usurpation; but, soon after, an insurrection which took place in the Pays-de-Vaud, and which, it is not improbable, was produced by the instigation of the agents of France, afforded an opportunity for that interference which terminated in the subjection nearly of the whole of Switzerland to the French yoke, and almost the entire overthrow of its form of government. In December, the French directors demanded, from the government of Berne, what they termed the restoration of the rights of that people, and the assembling of the states of the Pays-de-Vaud. This demand they immediately prepared to enforce by arms; and General Menard was ordered to march, with 15,000 men, to support the claims of the discontented in that country. The supreme council of Berne, fearful of entering into a contest with the powerful armies of France, issued a proclamation, desiring the citizens of the Pays-de-Vaud to assemble in arms, to renew the oath of allegiance, to proceed to reform the abuses of the government, and to assert and re-establish all their ancient rights. The malcontents, however, encouraged by the protection of the French army, proceeded to open hostilities, and seized the castle of Chillon. The government of Berne now had recourse to arms, and ordered Colonel Weiss, with a considerable force, to disperse the insurgents. But the contest was soon decided by the French army, which advanced while the Swiss retreated, and took possession of the whole Pays de Vaud.

The council of Berne still attempted to negotiate with the French directory; but, at the same time, assembled an army of about 20,000 men, the command of which was given to M. d'Erlach, formerly a general in the service of France. This force was joined by the quotas of other Swiss cantons, amounting to about 5500 men. The directory now required that the ancient magistrates of Berne should be dismissed from their offices, and the constitution of the state be changed to one more consonant with democratic principles and the new system of liberty and equality. These conditions the government of Berne absolutely rejected, and sent orders to break off all negotiations. The rulers of France, alarmed at this appearance of firmness and resistance, and fearing they were not sufficiently prepared, sent General Brune, in 1798, to take the command of their army in the Pays-de-Vaud, with orders to conclude an armistice until he should receive a sufficient reinforcement. Brune declared he was ready to adjust all differences, and requested that commissioners might be sent to treat with him. These were accordingly sent, and a truce was concluded for eight days: but it had not expired when the castle of Dornach was attacked and taken by the French, and 13,000 men mar which capitulated to Gener on the first summons. Frey diately after reduced by Brur troops were constrained to ret

The French now advance where all was confusion, both in the army, the left divisio mutinied, and put to death so The Swiss army was reduce 14,000 men, exclusive of a ciplined peasants, raised by levy of the country *en mass* the regular forces were statio and 6400 held the position of against which Schauenbour 18,000 men. Both posts were the French. The defenders pelled the enemy; but those after a vigorous resistance, to retreat. M. d'Erlach ral Uriceren, where a second e place, but with no better succ the Swiss. They afterwards, stand at Grauholtz, but were the gates of Berne, where, aft battle, they were entirely def ral Brune entered the city The other divisions of the treated; and the soldiers of fit of rage and despair, murde and, among others, their unf d'Erlach. The defeat of the I the submission of several c democratic republics still m feated Schauenbourg, and for with the loss of 3000 men, a sented to a treaty by which h enter the smaller cantons.

After this revolution the S changed its constitution, an Provincial governments, und of the French generals, wer the different districts, and the the name of the Helvetic R butions and requisitions were by the French commissioner shocking enormities perpetrat campaign of 1799, the northe zerland became the seat of Austrians and the French; an Schaffhausen and Zurich, an latter, suffered the severest ravages of the contending arm

When the country, howeve exposed to the horrors of wa after the conclusion of the pe Switzerland became gradually to its new form of governmen not perfectly according with t parte, when he had become di he proposed a new constituti which was accepted by the such offence to the people in g took the field, in 1802, under particularly Aloys Reding,

nself in defending his country irst invasion of the French. They ne advantages over the French and ites, and, after an obstinate con- he walls of Berne, obliged that tulate, and forced the members of vernment to retire to Lausanne. t creatures of France applied to isul, who immediately, in answer, resolution of acting as mediator, em that his mediation should be requiring, at the same time, that m the senate, and from each of the ould meet at Paris to assist in government which might appear nable to the people. The Swiss, consequences of farther resistance, acquiesced in the proposal: the t at Paris in 1802; the new consti- framed and accepted; Reding was ndamman of Switzerland; and on tranquillity was restored.

sequent wars between France and s, the cantons were not required to part as principals; but Napoleon took the liberty of incorporating regiments with his army, and iem both in Spain and Russia, naintained the military reputation ntry. In the decline of his for- public co-operated with his adver- d to them the weakest frontier of received, from the congress of ne insignificant territorial acces- as also arranged that the number ns should be increased to twenty-two, by the accession of Geneva, Neufchatel, and the Valais; and the future neutrality of Switzerland was also guaranteed by the whole of the allied powers. But the parchment union which the congress had produced, could not effect a union of interest and feeling among the cantons. In most of the confederated states the people were dissatisfied with the constitution under which they lived, and their discontent was not groundless; the liberty of the press was restrained, and encroachments were made upon the popular rights. In 1817, famine was added to these evils, and its miseries were enhanced by the misconduct of the constituted authorities. "The government," says a Swiss historian, "aggravated the misfortune by raising barriers between canton and canton, and forbidding the exportation of the produce of the soil. Laceration, contradiction, discord—such was the Switzerland of that period. The confederation no longer existed: there were only cantons connected by concordates, or divided by reprisals." In 1829 and early in 1830, however, reform began to make some progress; the cantons of Ticino, Vaud, and Lucerne having then succeeded in ameliorating their political institutions. But it was not till after the downfall of Charles X. of France that most of the other cantons ventured to follow this example. The change was effected without bloodshed, or the destruction of property. Some disturbances have, indeed, since occurred at Basle, Neufchatel, and other places, but not to such an extent as to peril the tranquillity and welfare of the country in general.

SPAIN.

erly included Portugal, and was e ancients by the name of Iberia, ia, as well as Hispania. About the Punic wars, it was divided r and Ulterior: the Citerior con- provinces lying north of the river bro; and the Ulterior, which was part, comprehended all that lay river. The name of Hispania, this country has received its dif- inations in the modern languages, posed to be derived from Hispan, ncient kings, or from the town of e modern Seville; but this con- ally unsupported with that which name of Britain from Brutus the

XTENT AND SITUATION.

s.	Degrees.
between	9. 10. W. & 2. 15. E. long. 36. and 43. 40. N. lat.

86,000 square miles, with about 72 to each.

Boundaries.—Spain is bounded on the west by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean on the east; by the Bay of Biscay, and the Pyrenean mountains, which separate it from France, on the north; and the Strait of Gibraltar on the south.

Divisions.—Spain was formerly divided into fourteen provinces, (which of old were separate kingdoms,) beside islands in the Mediterranean. These provinces are New and Old Castile, Galicia, the Asturias, Leon, Biscay, Navarre, Catalonia, Arragon, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, Andalusia, and Estremadura. Of these, Andalusia is the most populous, and Murcia and Navarre have the smallest number of inhabitants. Spain is now divided into forty-seven provinces of less dimensions.

Face of the Country.—Spain in general presents abundant pastures, vineyards, groves of orange-trees, and hills covered with aromatic plants. In some parts are extensive plains, almost destitute of trees and verdure, bounded by ridges of lofty mountains, the

summits of which are covered with snow during a considerable portion of the year. The whole centre of Spain is a vast table land, which rises to a great height above the level of the sea.

Mountains.—Beside the Pyrenees, there are various chains of mountains in this country. The highest part of that remarkable boundary is Mont Perdu, which rises to the height of 10,578 feet above the level of the sea. From the Pyrenees, a chain runs from east to west, nearly parallel with the northern coast, and terminates at the Galician frontier. Another chain runs from north to south, beginning near the source of the Ebro, and crossing the country into the province of Murcia; but there are few of its peaks which soar to an elevation even of 3900 feet: the two highest, those of Adi and Arzi, have a height of 4766 and 4268 feet. A higher range branches from the latter, near the centre of the kingdom, and proceeds to the Portuguese frontier. To the southward of this, a comparatively low chain also passes into Portugal. More southerly is the well-known Sierra Morena. The highest chain is that which separates Murcia and Granada from Andalusia; and the peaks of Mulhacen and Veleta, included in this range, exceed the height of Mont Perdu, the former being 11,666 feet above the level of the sea, and the latter 11,387. A hill remains to be mentioned, with which no Englishman ought to be unacquainted. We here allude to Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and in former times one of the Pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, is opposite to it, in Africa. We ought to add, that many of the mountains are in a great measure composed of fine marble.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montserrat, in Catalonia, particularly deserves attention, being one of the most remarkable in the world, for situation, shape, and composition. It stands in a vast plain, about 30 miles from Barcelona. It is called Monte Serrado, or the sawed mountain, and is so named from its extraordinary form; for it is broken and divided, and crowned with a great number of cones, or pine-heads, so that it has the appearance, when seen at a distance, of the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, is seen to be evidently the production of Nature. The rocks are quite naked, and, afar off, present no traces of vegetation; but, on a nearer approach, they are perceived to enclose evergreen forests and glens of romantic beauty. The Llobregat roars at the bottom, and perpendicular walls of rocks of prodigious height rise from the water's edge nearly half way up the mountain. When the mountain is first perceived at a distance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, and seems like a pile of grotto-work, or Gothic spires. On a nearer view, each cone appears of itself a mountain, and the whole composes an enormous mass, about 14 miles in circumference. Its highest peak is more than 4000 feet above the level of the sea. As it is like no other mountain, so it stands unconnected with any, though not far distant from some that are very lofty. It is a spot so admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whose first vow is, never to forsake it. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to Our Lady of Montserrat, to which Catholic pilgrims resort from various parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the sick received into the hospital. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels. The inhabitant of a particular hermitage, supposed to be more dignified than the rest, has the privilege of giving an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the sacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar, and, after divine service, dine together; but, at other times, they live in a very solitary manner, perform various penances, and adhere to rigid rules of abstinence. They never eat flesh: nor are they allowed to keep within their walls a dog, a cat, a bird, or any living thing, lest their attention should be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. They have regular degrees of accommodation: the first place which a new hermit occupies, is the most remote from the monastery; and they descend as vacancies occur in the lower cells. The habitation of the first hermit is built upon various patches of level ground, on precipitous summits; and the second has his cell and its rude appendages on a rocky point, over a precipice that descends almost to the very bed of the Llobregat. On a rock which hangs over this cell was formerly a fort, the harbour of banditti, who frequently compelled the hermits to supply them with the necessaries of life, but who were at length dislodged by force. In the war of the Spaniards against Napoleon, Montserrat was occupied as a military position.

Filabres is another remarkable detached mountain, distant about three leagues from Almeria, in the province of Granada. It consists entirely of a single stone, or solid block, of white marble, a league in circuit, and near 700 yards in perpendicular height. But the most singular mountain in Spain is, perhaps, that of Cardona, in Catalonia; not for its loftiness, but the material of which it is composed. It is 600 feet high, and has a circumference of three miles; and is throughout a solid mass of rock-salt, so hard as to be capable of being worked into vases, trinkets, &c., which are as transparent as crystal.

Forests.—Spain contains many forests. The mountainous districts of Catalonia are covered with the beech, the pine, the oak, and the cork-tree; and new plantations are thriving. Though the forests of Biscay have been thinned,

ıberus, which becomes navigable
ıd flows into the Mediterranean to
rd of Tortosa; and the Miño,
ı the northern division of Portugal
. In one part of its course, the
ns underground for a distance of

Tinto, the qualities of which are
linary, rises in the Sierra Morena,
itself into the Mediterranean,
. The name of Tinto has been
om the tinge of its waters, which
as a topaz. It is said that it has
f hardening the sand, and petri-
ıost surprising manner; and that,
ıould happen to fall in, and rest
r, they both become, in a year's
y united and conglutinated. This
all the plants on its banks, as
ots of trees, which it dyes of the
its waters. No kind of verdure
ere it reaches, nor any fish live in
Its poisonous nature appears to
ı passing through a soil which is
regnated with copper. No ani-
ık out of this river, except goats,
nevertheless, has an excellent
ese singular properties continue
ılets run into it, and, by diluting
ture.
of Spain are not numerous. The
rable is that called the Albufera,
of Valencia, the fishery of which
tive, that it is farmed out at a
ium.
inal waters of Spain are little

gation. The canal of Alobacete, in Murcia, 24 miles long, was cut for the purpose of draining an immense extent of pestilential swamps, but it has been rendered available for traffic. Several other canals are in contemplation.

METALS AND MINERALS.—Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the same kinds, as in other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agates, loadstones, hyacinths, turquoise-stones, copper, sulphur, alum, calamine, crystal, marble, porphyry, the finest jasper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethysts, are found here. At Almaden in La Mancha is a mine of quicksilver, the most ancient known in the world. History attests that it was worked 700 years before the Christian era. Yet it continues to produce as abundantly as ever, and shows no signs of approaching exhaustion. Since 1827 the yearly quantity of mercury furnished by it has been 22,000 quintals. The mountain of fossil salt, at Cardona, has already been mentioned. The Spanish iron, next to that of Damascus, furnishes the best arms in the world, and, in former times, brought in a great revenue to the crown; and Spanish gun-barrels, and the swords of Toledo, are still highly valued. Among the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and silver mines; and silver was in such plenty, that, when the Carthaginians took possession of Spain, their domestic and agricultural utensils were of that metal. Most of these mines have now disappeared; but, whether by their being exhausted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot say; though the latter cause seems to be more probable. Mines

or the instruments of iron, from mould, rot, and rust. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progress. Beside the relaxing humidity of the climate, the ordinary food contributes much to the prevalence of most of the diseases which infect the principality of the Asturias. Yet, although subject to such a variety of endemical maladies, few countries can produce more instances of longevity; many live to the age of 100, some to 110, and others much longer. In Galicia, the curate of San-Juan de Payo, in 1724, administered the sacrament to 13 persons, whose ages together made 1499, the youngest of these being 110, and the oldest 127; and in Villa de Fofinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in 1726, aged more than 146 years.

The soil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn; and, in many parts, that product is still abundant, and the wheat is of the finest quality. Andalusia is the granary of Spain, and Leon and Old Castile are almost equally productive. Delicious fruits, particularly figs, grapes, oranges, lemons, citrons, olives, almonds, mulberries, and nuts, grow luxuriantly. Raisins are a considerable article of export. The wines of Spain, especially sack and sherry, are in high request among foreigners. There are, in the district of Malaga, some thousands of wine-presses employed in making the rich wines which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called Mountain; if red, from the colour *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of Tent.

Spain, indeed, exhibits large tracts of unpromising, because uncultivated, ground; but no country perhaps maintains such a number of inhabitants who do so little work for their food; such are the generous qualities of the soil. Even the sugar-cane and cotton thrive in Spain; and it yields honey, rice, tobacco, saffron, liquorice, barilla, madder, flax, hemp, and silk. The sheep-walks afford the finest wool, and are a treasure in themselves. Some of the mountains are clothed with rich trees, fruit, and herbage to the tops; and a great variety of aromatic herbs are produced, which render the taste of the kids and sheep exquisitely delicious.

Animals.—The Spanish horses, especially those of Andalusia, are thought to be the handsomest of any in Europe, and at the same time are very swift and serviceable. The king endeavours to monopolize the finest breeds for his own stables and service. The Spanish also, is of a very superior species. Spain furnishes likewise mules and black cattle; and the wild bulls are remarkable for their ferocity. For more than eighteen centuries the Spanish sheep, called Merinos, have been famous for the fineness of their wool. At the beginning of the Christian era, their wool was in great request for the most costly dresses. The system upon which the Merino sheep were managed, rendered them, however, exceedingly *injurious* to the agriculture of the country. The proprietors, most of whom were of the nobility and higher order of clergy, formed a sort of corporation, called the Mesta, which was invested with tyrannical privileges. The number of sheep amounted to 5,000,000 or 6,000,000, divided into flocks of from 10,000 to 40,000. They were never folded. At certain seasons they were pastured in the mountains; after which they commenced their migrations, to feed in the plains, where an immense extent of the best land was reserved for their pasturage. Thus they continued to move over the country till the period came for their return to the mountains. These sheep were called the trashumantes, or travelling race, to distinguish them from those which were confined to one spot. Wolves are the chief beasts of prey in Spain, which is well stored with all the game and wild-fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries. The Spanish seas afford excellent fish of all kinds, particularly anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infested with locusts, which have sometimes appeared in the air in such numbers as to darken the sky; the clear atmosphere of Spain has become gloomy, and the finest summer day in Estremadura has been rendered more dismal than the winter of Holland. Their sense of smelling is so delicate, that they can discover a corn-field or a garden at a considerable distance; which they will ravage almost in an instant. Many persons are of opinion, that the peasants, by timely attention and observation, might destroy the eggs of these formidable insects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

Natural Curiosities.—Among the natural curiosities, the medicinal springs, and some lakes in which extraordinary noises are heard, form a principal part. The river Guadiana, like the Mole, in England, runs under ground, and then rises again. It disappears near Alcazar de San-Juan, in the country of La Mancha, and, running under ground, emerges at some lakes called the Eyes of the Guadiana.

In the royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid, many curiosities are contained. Everything in this collection is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beside being shown privately to strangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c., is very perfect; but the zoological collection at present is not large. Here is also a curious collection of vases, basins, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces, of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold and enamel, set with cameos, intaglios, &c., in elegant taste, and of very fine workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet also contains specimens of Mexican and Peruvian vases and utensils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the stone, some of which have

te England, and deposited in the
um. On the western side of the
the cave called St. Michael's,
re the horizon. Many pillars, of
some of them 2 feet in diameter,
rmed in it by the droppings of
d in falling. The water perpe-
om the roof, and forms an infinite
alactites, of a whitish hue, com-
ral coats or crusts, and which, as
pillars, continually increase in
the summit of the rock, in clear
only the town of Gibraltar may
the bay, the strait, the towns of
d Algesiras, the Alpuxara moun-
Abyla on the African shore, with
; the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and
f the Barbary coast.

N. — Spain, formerly the most
rdom in Europe, is now thinly in-
diminution of number may partly
o the numerous emigrations to
partly to the indolence of the
will not labour with sufficient
ise food for their families. Ano-
ed to operate, namely, the vast
clesiastics of both sexes, who led
acy; but that cause is now fast
Some writers have assigned seve-
ses, such as the wars with the
e final expulsion of that people.
nts of this kingdom, in 1835, were
2,000,000; and it is probable that,
at moment, they may have in-
12,500,000 or 13,000,000.

Character — Manners — Cus-
ersons of the Spaniards are gene-
ecially Castilians; their hair and
are swarthy, but their counte-
ry expressive. Charles III. endea-
ar their upper lips of whiskers,
nce among them the French dress,
eir black cloaks, short jerkins,
and long Toledo swords. His
ccasion provoked an insurrection,
e renewed his prohibitory edict,
it length honoured with observ-

ignity of the Spanish character is
larly noticed in Castile. An old
o sees none above him, thinks
nost important being in nature;
e pride is usually communicated
lants. Ridiculous as this pride is,
e of the most exalted qualities. It
nation with generous and virtuous
it being seldom found that a Spa-
n, gentleman, or even trader, is
ean action. During the most em-
they have had with England, we
instance of their venturing (as
ally have done) to confiscate the
erty in their galleons and plate-
was equally secure in time of war
This is the more surprising, as
ave been often needy, and their
counsellors or favourites not very studious of the preservation of good faith with Great Britain. The chief ministers, indeed, have rarely been men of honour and integrity. The kings of Spain, of the House of Bourbon, seldom ventured to employ native Spaniards of great families as their ministers. These were generally Italians, who rose into power by the most infamous arts, and sometimes from abject stations. Hence the French kings of Spain, for more than a century, were indifferently served in the cabinet. Alberoni, though he had some talents and genius, embroiled his master with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and disgrace; and Grimaldi hazarded a rebellion in the capital by his oppressive and unpopular measures. Godoy, though not a foreigner, was a man of the lowest extraction, and equally ready to humour the court, or to insult and harass the nation.

The Spanish character is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne. "The Catalonians appear to be the most active stirring set of men, the best calculated for business, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians are a more sullen sedate race, better adapted to the occupation of husbandmen, less eager to change place, and of a much more timid, suspicious cast of mind than the former. The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and rhodomontaders in Spain. The Castilians have a manly frankness, and less appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Castilians are, perhaps, the least industrious of the whole nation; the Old Castilians are laborious, and retain more of the ancient simplicity of manners;—both are of a firm determined spirit. The Arragonese are a mixture of the Castilian and Catalonian, rather inclining to the former. The Biscayans are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more resembling a colony of republicans than a province of an absolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in search of a hardly-earned subsistence." As the Galicians are the most industrious, so they claim to be regarded as the most thoroughly trustworthy. "As faithful as a Galician" is a proverb. They are the reapers and general labourers, and their very name, *gallegó*, has become, from this circumstance, synonymous with servant. Laborde compares the Biscayan to the Basque, the Catalonian to the Provençal, the Valencian to the native of Lower Languedoc, the Galician to the Auvergnese, and the Andalusian to the Gascon.

The beauty of the Spanish ladies reigns chiefly in their novels and romances; for, though it must be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, beauty is far from forming their general character. "Few," says Mr. Swinburne, "are strikingly beautiful; but almost all have sparkling black eyes full of expression." In their persons, they are mostly small and slender; but they are said to employ great art in supplying

the defects of nature. If we should hazard a conjecture, we might reasonably suppose that those artifices rather diminish than increase beauty, especially when they have reached the age of twenty-five years. The practice of painting the skin was one of those arts; but this is now upon the decline. The ladies are fond of society; and, though they are ill educated and uninformed, they are not deficient in wit and vivacity.

The respect and devotion with which the fair sex are treated are quite remarkable. "I kiss your feet, my lady," is the accustomed salutation. A woman is a sacred object; and the very meanest Spaniard would shrink with horror from the slightest outrage committed on a female. "White hands can never offend," is the universal consolation, even when feminine indiscretion becomes ungentle. Down to the time of Charles III. it was the custom, in many of the southern provinces, for a gentleman to bend on one knee whenever a lady addressed him. The Spanish drama is crowded with incidents and beautiful sentiments founded on the extraordinary influence of women.

Among the good qualities possessed by the Spaniards, their temperance in eating and drinking is remarkable. Their breakfast is usually chocolate, tea being seldom taken. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together; but the poor, for want of meat, are frequently obliged to content themselves with bread and vegetables, boiled with oil and vinegar. They live much upon garlic, chives, salad, and radishes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink little wine, and the women scarcely any. Old and young men, and even many of the females, are fond of smoking tobacco, in the form of a cigar—a thin roll of the leaves of the plant. Both sexes usually sleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, such as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, in general, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are mostly in the habit of rising much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furnish spirits sufficient to resist the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without some such refreshment; it is, therefore, the universal practice to go to sleep for some hours after dinner, which is soon finished in those countries; and this time of repose is called the *siesta*. Dancing is such a favourite entertainment, that you may see a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country-dance. The dances of the Spaniards are lively; but the *fandango* is something more; for it is loose and wanton. Gaming is also a frequent amusement of both sexes. Though they have numerous dramatic pieces of a high order, it must be owned that many of their theatrical exhibitions are insipid and ridiculous bombast. The prompter's head sometimes appears through a trap-door, above the level of the stage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience.

Gallantry is a ruling passion in Spain. Jealousy, since the accession of the House of Bourbon, seems to have slept in peace. The nightly musical serenades of mistresses by their lovers are still in use; but they are not so frequent as they formerly were. The married women continue to have their *cortejos* or male followers, from whom they expect the most polite and ceremonious attention, and who are viewed by the husband with eyes of indifference, rather than with sensations of jealousy or disgust. It is worthy of remark, that not a few of these equivocal attendants are priests; and, even if we had a higher opinion than that which is generally entertained of the morals of the Spanish clergy, we should not suppose that all the ecclesiastical companions of the ladies are innocent and virtuous. Many of these connexions are doubtless sufficiently pure and Platonic; but the practice evidently puts the firmness of virtue to a hazardous test.

The fights of the cavaliers, or bull-feasts, formerly made a striking trait in the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On these occasions, young gentlemen had opportunities of showing their courage and activity before their mistresses; and the valour of the cavalier was proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceness of the bulls he had killed in these encounters. Great pains were used in settling the form and weapons of the combat, so as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. This diversion is undoubtedly of Moorish original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaisance, and partly through rivalry. It was prohibited by Charles IV.; but has been revived of late years.

The Gitanos, or the Gypsies of Spain, form a remarkable race, so far differing from the rest of the nation as to require distinct and particular notice. They are found in every province of the realm; but they abound most in the southern and south-eastern parts, which they prefer on account of the superior natural advantages of those provinces. Being disinclined to agricultural pursuits, they are rarely found in villages; but they abound in the worst quarters of large and populous towns. Their chief sedentary occupation is the manufacture of iron utensils, by which some of them acquire comparative opulence. Some wander through the streets, selling trifling metallic articles, and also act as tinkers. When bull-fights were a common amusement, the *matador*, or he who killed the animal after the cavaliers had teased and wounded him, was usually a Gypsy. Many persons of this denomination are also theatrical performers; and some of these are private teachers of the fandango. Others are dealers in horses, asses, and mules; and it may easily be supposed that they practise various tricks and deceptions in this branch of trade. Many, particularly at Cadiz, thrive in the capacity of

l some act as publicans. Among lancing, vocal and instrumental rtune-telling, are the prevailing side these, who are in a great ed, some tribes lead erratic lives oods and mountains, pilfering or ey are hated or despised by the the lowest of the rabble consider rthy of the honour of association. nsequence of this supercilious from native baseness, they are in nt in courage. Their cowardice ed with a vindictive spirit, which nes exercise in the most cruel n they think they can escape their demeanour to persons whom as their superiors, they are abject nd prodigal of fulsome compli- mong themselves, they are savage aviour. Their colour is a shade that of the swarthy Andalusian: d hair are black, and their noses ooked; and, as in other countries, arked peculiarity of aspect. The ay apparel, and the women are al flowers, tinsel, and embroidery. ges are attended with indecent nd enlivened by the sounds of When a death happens, the rela- nds seat themselves round the nd recount the adventures of the l the females cling to the corpse, ried off. Widows are not allowed n. With regard to religion, it is t the Gypsies should profess their Catholicism, as they would not entitled to the privileges of which they were admitted by an s III., who allowed them to bear e appellation of New Castilians.

TWS—EDIFICES.—Madrid, though being only surrounded by a brick et high, is the capital of Spain, about 200,000 inhabitants. It eral low hills, in the midst of an n, bounded, on the side of Old mountains of Guadarama, whose requently covered with snow. It nd lighted, and the streets in the ie town, which is the largest, are handsome; but many in the an- narrow and crooked, like those in Paris. The principal houses are tly for show, convenience being red: thus you will usually pass or three large apartments of no o come at a small room at the family sit. The houses in general look more like prisons than the f people at their liberty; the de having a balcony, being grated s, particularly the lower range, s all the rest. Separate families bit the same house, as in Paris th. Foreigners are very much r lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not very willing to take strangers into their houses. There are four academies at Madrid — of language, history, fine arts, and medicine; and two extensive public libra- ries. The national gallery, an extensive and noble building, contains a choice collection of pictures. In the armoury there are many fine specimens of ancient armour.

A curious account is given by Fischer, of the passing scenes at Madrid. "Women in black, and veiled; men in long cloaks, water-carriers, fruit-sellers, magnificent equipages, dusty dili- gences, light *caleas*, waggons drawn by mules, a multitude of asses with their pack-saddles and bells, and herds of goats, with peasants going from door to door to milk them; farther on, blind musicians singing their *tornadillas* or popular songs, alguazils crying the orders of police, and a crowd of gallegos or porters; pro- cessions of chaplets, guards following the drum, confraternities escorting a funeral and singing psalms, the tinkling of bells at the churches; and, lastly, the solemn procession of the *venerabile* or host, when, the bells of the choral children being heard, every one kneels down, all tongues are silent, and all hats off, all the carriages stop, and the tumultuous mass seems instantaneously petrified; but two minutes have scarcely elapsed, before the ac- customed clangour is renewed." Such was the picture of Madrid nearly half a century ago: but time has worked considerable changes in it; the processions and the respect paid to them no longer occupy so prominent a situation.

The royal palace stands on an eminence, on the west side of the city: it is a spacious mag- nificent structure, consisting of three courts, and commands a very fine prospect. Each front is 470 feet in length, and 100 high; and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence: the great audience-cham- ber is 120 feet long, hung with crimson velvet richly embroidered with gold, and ornamented with twelve looking-glasses made at St. Ilde- fonso, each ten feet high, and with twelve tables of the finest Spanish marble. The palaces round it are designed for hunting-seats, or houses of retirement for the king. Some of them contain fine paintings and good statues. The chief of these palaces are the Buen Retiro, now stripped of all its best pictures and fur- niture, Casa del Campo, Aranjues, and St. Ilde- fonso.

At Aranjues is a park many leagues round, intersected, in different parts, by alleys of two or three miles in extent, each being formed by double rows of elm trees. The alleys are wide enough to admit four coaches abreast; and betwixt the rows there is a narrow channel through which runs a stream. Here are also thick groves of smaller trees of various kinds; and deer and wild boars wander at large, beside hares, rabbits, pheasants, and partridges. The Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is

partly surrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleasant, adorned with fountains and statues; and it also contains a vast variety of the most beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itself, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonso is built of brick, plastered and painted; but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two stories high, and the garden front has 31 windows, and 12 rooms in a suite. The gardens are on a slope, on the top of which is a great reservoir, which supplies the fountains; this is furnished from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The water-works are excellent, and far surpass those at Versailles. The great entry of the palace is similar to that of Versailles. In the gardens are 27 fountains; the basins are of white marble, and the statues, many of which are excellent, are of lead bronzed and gilt. These gardens are in the formal French style, but are ornamented with 61 very fine marble statues, as large as the life, with 28 marble vases, and 20 leaden vases gilt. The upper part of the palace contains very valuable paintings, and the lower part displays antique statues, busts, and bassorelievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Escurial; and the natives say, perhaps with justice, that the building of it cost more than that of any other palace in Europe. The description of this palace forms a considerable volume; and it is said that Philip II., who was its founder, expended upon it 6,000,000 ducats. It is situated about 20 miles from Madrid, in a deep recess at the foot of the Guadarama mountains. It contains an extraordinary number of windows, 200 in the west front, and in the east 366; and the apartments are decorated with an astonishing variety of paintings, sculpture, tapestry, ornaments of gold and silver, marble, jasper, gems, and other curious stones. This building, besides its palace, contains a church, large and richly ornamented; a mausoleum, cloisters, a convent, and a college. It has also a library, in which are about 30,000 volumes: but this is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuscripts with which it is enriched. Above the shelves are paintings in fresco, by Carducho, the subjects of which are taken from sacred and profane history, or refer to the sciences of which the shelves below present to us the elements. Thus, the council of Nice is represented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes, at the siege of Syracuse, indicates those which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A singular circumstance in this library is, that, on viewing the books, they are found to be placed the contrary way, so that the edges of the leaves are outward, and contain their titles written on them. The reason for this custom is, that Arias Montanus, a learned Spanis century, whose library served as for that of the Escurial, had placed and inscribed in that m without doubt appeared to him commodious method of arrangi introduced his own method into and since his time, and for the formity, it has been followed wi the books which have been adde also large apartments for all kin and mechanics; noble walks, w parks and gardens, beautified w and costly ornaments. The m burying-place of the kings and qu is called the Pantheon, because it the plan of that temple at Rome, to which it belongs is upon the Peter's. It is 36 feet in diameter, with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their of the enormous sums bestowed o and on its furniture, statues, lumins, vases, and the like decor are amazingly rich and beautiful, nothing in saying, that the fabr covers a bad taste upon the whol crit of building it in the form of a cause St. Laurence, to whom it w was broiled on such a utensil, plying the same figure through ornaments upon the doors, win rituals, and sacerdotal habits, co formed only in the brain of a t such as Philip II., who erected it rate the victory he had obtain French (but by the assistance o forces) at St. Quintin, on St. La in 1557. The part which is peculi to the king, forms the handle of The building is a long square of 6 feet. The height of the roof is 60 enriched and adorned by some c sors; but its outside has a gloomy and the inside is composed of di tures, some of which are masterpi tecture, forming, however, a disagr We may add, that many of the statues which have found admir excellent, and some of them a equalled even in Italy itself.

Cadiz stands on an island separ continent by Andalusia, called the by a very narrow arm of the sea, fortified bridge is thrown, joini main land. The bay is two-fold extending from the city to the Mary and the salt-works, the oth ing at the forts Matagorda and forming a secure harbour for the navy. The town is walled, and on the land side. Most of the narrow, and, in consequence o of the houses and the smallnes dows, have a gloomy appearance. of St. Antony is considered a

...-house
...and some of the
...adiz cannot justly be called
...; and, among other inconve-
...ttend it as a place of residence,
...the night, are only infested
...with rats. After the separation
...an colonies from the mother
...ade by which this city long
...ed into insignificance; but Ca-
...eclared free port, and its
...ning to revive. Its population

At no great distance from it,
Leon, is the handsome town of
which has 18,000 inhabitants,
and a naval school. The cus-
been transferred from Cadiz to

...ierly a Roman town, the birth-
and Seneca, and subsequently
...ital, exhibits considerable re-
...ills erected by its early posses-
...endid edifice built for mosque
...n I., used as an episco-
This structure is so fantastic
that it is difficult to describe
...astern side, the whole length
into 13 parts and 17
the cloister and the church.
...s, three sides, a portico of
in the middle are fountains

The church consists of 17
...d from each other by rows of
of different hues and veins,
which are, in general, inele-
of those of the Corinthian
south-east angle is an orna-
which the Moors regarded
...ed. It has screen in the
two ranges of low columns
with capitals most minutely
In the centre appears
in another situation would
...l, but which impairs the
ancient mosque, and many
among the pillars also in-
and spoil the view. The
about 57,000 inhabitants.
manufacture silken
...d used to prepare, with
of goats and of kids,
...oquins, for the use of
chartered company in
of Cordwainer
city: but this branch
...ed on.

Julia Romulensis of
...idrid, the largest city
...ayed both in riches
still contains more
...ts shape is circular,
merous towers, are
...r of Moorish con-
little use in the
ar. Some of the
...icularly that of

Triana, which leads to the bridge of boa
the Guadalquivir. The suburb which
at this gate is as large as many town
remarkable for its gloomy Gothic castle, w
in 1481, the inquisition was first establish
Spain. The cathedral is a fine Gothic buil
with a curious steeple or tower, having a
bronze figure of Faith at the top, called
Giralda, which, though it weighs 2½ tons,
with the slightest breeze. This steeple
reckoned one of the greatest curiosities
Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in Londo
but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinio
is by equal to York Minster fo
lightness, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The
first clock made in the kingdom was set up in
this church in 1400. There are two buildings
at Seville which have the appearance of palaces,
rather than of ordinary structures, and yet are
appropriated to common purposes. One is the
royal snuff-manufactory, erected by Ferdinand
VI.; the other is the Lonja, built in the reign
of Philip II. for the use of the merchants. The
college which the Jesuits formerly possessed
is also elegant edifice. This city, in the
17th century, acquired celebrity a school of
painting: academy for that art was founded
under the auspices of Murillo, and of the
finest pieces of that admired artist are exhi-
bited in the churches and conventual chapels.
Of the trade of Seville, which was formerly
very extensive, there small remains yet
oil, wine, corn, hemp, flax, and fruit are ex-
ported; and the silken articles manufactured
by the inhabitants, are preferred in North
America to those which are fabricated in Eng-
land. Seville is the see of an archbishop, and
has a university, an academy for painting,
sculpture and architecture, a literary academy,
and various libraries and public institutions.

Barcelona is a large circular city, built round
the old Roman town, of which some traces
yet visible. The sea has so far retired from it,
that a whole quarter of the city stands upon
the sands which formerly composed the bottom
of the harbour. The port is handsome, and
the mole is a masterpiece of solidity and con-
venience. The citadel is apparently strong,
but would not now withstand so long a siege
as the town sustained in 1714, when the inha-
bitants refused to acknowledge the government
of Philip V. The fort of Monjuich covers the
city on the south-west side. In the old part of
the town, the and crooked;
but, in the division, some broad and fine
streets are observable. On the fronts of many
of the houses there tolerable paintings in
fresco. The cathedral is majestic Gothic
edifice, and under its sanctuary is very hand-
some chapel. The most elegant church in the
whole city is that of St. Mary of the Sea,
though the ornaments of the high altar are in
a bad taste. Among the other public buildings,
the hotel of the royal audience, and the
change, are the most striking. The artisans of
this town supply the kingdom with most of

the clothing and arms for the troops, and the other manufactures are numerous and considerable. An attention to trade has not narrowed the ideas of the people, who are more intelligent and less unpolished than those of other parts of Spain. They have academies for jurisprudence, medicine, natural philosophy, history, and the fine arts. The whole population of the city, and of the suburb called Barcelonetta, may be computed at 168,000.

Saragossa, the capital of Aragon, is seated on the left bank of the Ebro, at the conflux of the Gallego and the Huerva, and has about 50,000 inhabitants. Its streets are generally crooked and narrow, but the houses, though old, are solidly built. It has several noble edifices, among which are the cathedral, the exchange, the orphan asylum, and the Aljaferia palace. Here is also a leaning tower, which declines from the perpendicular at least as much as that of Pisa. Saragossa has a university, founded in 1474, which has 1500 students; a society of friends of the country, which supports several professorships of science; an academy of the fine arts; and a public library. But the circumstance which invests Saragossa with a never-dying glory, is the unflinching valour with which its citizens twice defended it, in 1809, against the forces of Napoleon.

Valencia is a large city, with lofty walls. It possesses a fine cathedral, some handsome palaces, and a noble exchange; but the houses are ill built, dirty, and ill furnished, and many are in a ruinous state. A university was founded here in 1404, and it has recently been reorganized. The inhabitants are about 70,000 in number, and are, in general, well employed in various manufactures; yet mendicity, which the Count O'Reilly banished from many parts of Spain, exists here in a striking degree.

Carthagena is a large city, but has few good streets, and fewer remarkable buildings. It is one of the naval stations of Spain, and has a royal dock-yard. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart; and the arsenal is a spacious square, south-west of the town, well defended toward the sea, but not by land. About 30,000 persons occupy this city, which serves as a port for Murcia, the chief town of the province of the same name. The latter is situated in a very fertile vale, and has a stately cathedral, with a handsome bridge over the Segura: its inhabitants are notorious for indolence, ignorance, bigotry, and unsocial manners. It has 36,000 inhabitants.

Granada is a declining city: yet it has, at present, above 80,000 inhabitants, and a considerable trade in silk, wine, oil, fruit, hemp, and flax. The Alameda, along the banks of the Xenil, is as pleasant a walk as any in Spain; but the town is by no means handsome. The cathedral is a magnificent structure, which contains some fine pictures. Granada has a university, six colleges, and various scientific and literary institutions. The famed Alhambra will be described among the antiquities.

Malaga has a small but commodious harbour, and its trade is brisk and lucrative in wine, fruit, and other products. Since 1822 it has exported annually more than 1,000,000 quintals of lead, from the mines in its vicinity. The city is occupied by 62,000 persons. It is surrounded by a double wall, strengthened by stately towers. The old houses, like those of Seville, are built in the Moorish style, about the four sides of a court, in the midst of which many have refreshing fountains. The streets are narrow, and the churches are in a manner lost among the houses; but the Alameda, or public walk, has magnificent appendages and great attractions. The cathedral is a fine structure: its style is a mixture of the Roman and Gothic modes of building. The interior is finished with exquisite taste; it is an oblong spheroid, with a row of Corinthian pillars, around which is the nave: these pillars support a lofty roof of well-turned arches. The high altar and the pulpit are of beautiful flesh-coloured marble, and the choir is so elegant, and so finely ornamented, that it is called by Palomino, the biographer of Spanish artists, the eighth wonder of the world.

Bilbao, on the Ybaizabel, is the chief town of Biscay, and has 15,000 inhabitants. It contains about 900 houses, and has an extensive promenade by the water-side, well shaded, with pleasant walks. Its charitable institutions are honourable to the citizens of Bilbao. The houses are substantial and lofty, the streets well paved, and the town is enlivened by commerce.

Salamanca is of an amphitheatrical form, built on three small sand-stone hills and two valleys, in a nook formed by the river Tormes, over which is a stately bridge of twenty-five arches—twelve of Roman construction, the rest modern. The finest part of this city is the great square, built in modern times. The houses are of three stories, with iron balconies, and a stone balustrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, and forms a piazza all round the square, which extends 293 feet on each side. The streets, however, are dirty, crooked, and narrow. Over some of the arches are medallions, with busts of the kings of Spain, and several eminent men, in stone bas-relief. The cathedral, which contains some good pictures and sculptures, is admired; but it does not exhibit the best style of Gothic architecture. The university is declining, the number of students, which once was 8000, being now not more than 1500; the town has a dull and gloomy aspect, and the effects of the siege in 1812, when its monasteries were fortified by the French against the English, are still visible.

Toledo is one of the most ancient cities in Spain, and, during several centuries, it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has, by degrees, stripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almost entirely deserted but for its cathedral, originally a Moorish mosque, the income

hich, being in great part spent here, con-
ates chiefly to the maintenance of the few
ands who are left, and assists, in some
ee, those small manufactures of sword-
es and silk stuffs, which are established in
city. It stands on the Tagus. The situa-
is romantic, resembling that of Durham;
the town is ill built, poor, and mean. It
about 20,000 inhabitants.

urgos was the ancient capital of the Castilian
dom. The cathedral, the building of which
commenced in 1221, is one of the most
nificent structures of the Gothic kind, now
urope. Its form is exactly the same as
of York Minster, and at the east end is an
gonal building, like the chapter-house at
. The city in general is ill built; but it
one handsome square, a fine palace, and
e beautiful churches and chapels. The
ber of inhabitants is 12,000. The cele-
ed Cid, whose name shines in Spanish
ry and romance, was born at Burgos. His
ains rest in the convent of San Pedro de
ena, about two leagues from the city.

alajoz claims our notice as a place of great
uity, and of modern fame. It is the
tal of Estremadura, and the see of a bishop.
he cathedral are some of the works of
ales, who was born in this town. It has
13,000 inhabitants, but is not large, popu-
, or commercial; but it is considered as
key of Spain on the Portuguese frontier,
its strength was evinced in the war which
menced in 1808. Tanning, soap-making,
weaving of coarse woollens, are the chief
ches of industry.

. Jago de Compostella, the capital of
cia, with 24,000 inhabitants, deserves notice
its former rather than its present fame.
ims used to flock to this town from all
of Spain, and from other countries, to
the shrine of St. James the younger,
e remains, the people say, were deposited
e cathedral; and the multiplied offerings
exceedingly valuable: but this superati-
has declined in modern times. The city
some stately public edifices; but it is not
neral well built. In the same province is
el, a place which, having a large and ex-
at harbour, rose, after the year 1752, from
obscurity of a fishing hamlet to the dignity
considerable town, and is now the chief
l station in Spain. It has 15,000 inha-
ts. Coruña, which is also in Galicia, and
s a population of 23,000 souls, is another
llent naval station. A short distance from
town, Sir John Moore fell in the hour of
ry.

raltar, in Andalusia, has been a depen-
y of Great Britain ever since the year
when it was taken by the adventurous
ge of a party of sailors. Repeated at-
ts have since been made to retake it, but
out success. It is a commodious port,
rmed naturally for commanding the pas-
of the Strait, or, in other words, the en-
trance into the Mediterranean and Levant
seas: but the road is neither safe against an
enemy nor storms. The bay is about 20
leagues in circumference. The length of the
strait is about 33 miles, and the breadth 14.
The fortified rock is regarded as one of the
keys of Spain, and is always furnished with
a garrison well provided for its defence.
Its harbour is formed by a mole, which is
well fortified and planted with guns. The
place is accessible on the land side only by a
narrow passage between the precipitous rock
and the sea; but that is walled and strength-
ened both by art and nature, and so enclosed
by high steep hills, as to render access ex-
ceedingly difficult. It has two gates on that
side, and as many toward the sea. The town
is situated behind the principal bastions, and,
with the exception of one handsome street,
rises in tiers of mean houses a considerable
way up the declivity. About 20,000 persons, of
whom 1600 are Jews, and a great number are
Moors, compose the population. As the soil
produces scarcely anything, all their provi-
sions are brought to them either from Eng-
land, or from the opposite coast of Barbary.
Formerly Gibraltar was entirely under milli-
tary government; but, that power producing
those abuses which are naturally attendant on
it, the parliament thought proper to erect the
town into a body corporate, and the civil power
is now lodged in its magistrates.

SPANISH ISLANDS.

THE Balearic islands are the only islands of any consequence, in Europe, which belong to Spain. They are situated in the Mediterranean sea, to the eastward of Valencia and Catalonia, and, from north-east to south-west, occupy, with their intervening channels, a space of about 180 miles. The general name is derived from the Greek word "to throw," the natives, in ancient times, having been remarkable for their skill as slingers. They are five in number—three larger, Majorca, Minorca, and Iviça, and two smaller, Cabrera and Formentera. They are hilly, and do not produce corn sufficient for their inhabitants; but they are well cultivated with vines, olives, and other fruit. There are some vestiges in them of Roman and Moorish antiquities.

Majorca, or Mallorca, the largest of these islands, has a circumference of 143 miles, and an area of about 1410 square miles. It is a country of much picturesque beauty, has a delicious climate, and is extremely fertile. Its population is about 140,000. The two principal towns are Palma and Alcudia, of which the former is the capital, and contains about 33,000 inhabitants. Palma is the see of a bishop, and has a handsome Gothic cathedral, with a spire so light and graceful that it is called the Angels' Tower. Here is also a university, which was founded, in 1483, by Ferdinand V.

Minorca, or Menorca, the second of the

Balearic isles, lies about 25 miles from Majorca, has a circumference of 62 miles, an area of about 300 square miles, and a population of about 35,000. From 1708 to 1756, from 1763 to 1782, and from 1798 to 1802, it was in the possession of the British. Ciudadella, with 4000 inhabitants, is its present capital; but it is much inferior to Port Mahon, which has 19,000 inhabitants, and an admirable port. Fort St. Philip, once famed for its strength, no longer exists: when the island was restored to the Spaniards, at the peace of Amiens, they blew up the fort, to prevent it from being again beneficial to an invader.

Iviça, with a population of 20,000 souls, is nearly 27 miles long, and 15 wide in its broadest part. The capital bears the same name as the islands, and has 6600 inhabitants. An immense quantity of salt is exported from this island.

Formentera and Cabrera are of diminutive size, and have nothing which demands notice: the latter, which is barren and rocky, was used by the Spaniards as a prison for the French, during the war from 1808 to 1814.

Commerce and Manufactures.—When gold and silver were profusely drawn from the colonial possessions of Spain, those metals were chiefly consigned to the merchants of other nations, in return for a variety of manufactured goods and other commodities. Seville was the principal seat of this commerce for two centuries; but, in 1720, it was transferred to Cadiz, which, even after other ports had been opened, enjoyed the greatest part of the trade of Spain. New manufactures were gradually introduced by the natives, and their exports were at length so far varied, as to render the balance of trade less unfavourable to them.

At St. Ildefonso the glass manufacture is carried on with a degree of excellence even superior to that which is displayed in England. The largest mirrors are made in a brass frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and 6 deep, weighing near nine tons. Here is also a manufactory of linen; but it is not in a flourishing state.

In the city of Valencia, a few years ago, 5000 looms, and 300 stocking-frames, gave employment to more than 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating those who exercise professions relative to the manufacture, such as persons who prepare the wood and iron-work of so great a number of machines, or spin, wind, or dye the silk. The woollen branch is also cultivated in this city with success. At Alcora, about two leagues from Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been introduced, and the artisans have acquired reputation for their painted tiles. At Valencia, the best apartments are floored with these, which are remarkable for neatness and coolness, and are stronger and more beautiful than those of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of the esparto ropes and cables, some like hemp, and others plaited. tions are performed with surpri These cables are excellent, bece on the surface of the water, and not liable to be cut by the roc coast. The esparto makes gc houses, and it is also spun into f the purpose of making cloth. I couraged, there is no doubt thi facture might be brought to such to make this once useless rust abundant wealth to the southern Spain; for it is the peculiar and duction of all the high and mountains of the south. But, this manufacture has much de years. On the other hand, the cotton and the sugar-cane h greatly in the southern provinces cochineal insect has also been na

As to the hempen cordage whi Spain for the use of the royal na observes, that it is better and than that of the principal do magazines in Europe, because in hemp, all the towy part we leave out, and used in caulking; when double advantage of more solid the better caulking of vessels. tom in our rope-yards, which t have avoided adopting, is the t cordage, and keeping it a long t In this state the tar ferments a hemp, and the cordage is extremel even after being very little used.

The Spaniards formerly obtain from the north; but now the Granada, Aragon, and Navarre, with the greatest part of the he All the sailcloth and cordage zines at Cadiz are made with S the texture of which is even, clos

One of the most important p this country, and the most valua commerce, is barilla, a species o is used for making soap, for blea glass. All the nations in Europe bustion of various vegetable subs some kind of pot-ash; but the s lence of the barilla has hitherto preference. The country that p about 60 leagues in length, and on the borders of the Mediterran

Spain is one of the richest Europe in saltpetre; and the m curious. "I observed," says Mr. large enclosure, with a number about 20 feet high, at regular di each other. These were collec rubbish of the city of Madrid, a ings of the highways. They had the winter piled up in the manne found them. At this time men wer wheeling them away, and spreadin earth to the thickness of about on

ng what had been previously
nfluence of the sun and air.
summer these heaps had been
ng thus exposed, they would
uantity of salt again, and, as
he produce would never fail;
g been washed, no saltpetre
l without a subsequent ex-
' this earth they can lixiviate
me they have washed twenty
: seven years, and some they
o this operation fifteen times
ding always by the eye when
it to advantage, and by the
ielded a lixivium of a proper
which, by evaporating the
they obtain the saltpetre."
nufactures of Spain are chiefly
opper, and hardware; but the
ork up the first of these arti-
ill which is displayed by the
ght be supposed that their
rohibit the exportation of so
ity: yet, by their kindness or
nations are benefitted. Even
wool are most frequently ex-
sheep which graze during the
mountains of Leon, and are
tumn, for the advantage of a
into Estremadura, where they
, when they are taken into
orn, furnish wool which is not
ne, but strong, particularly
washed at Segovia. From
e is chiefly exported; and the
om that town are iron and
ports are dried fish, fish-oil,
inial produce, and British
ods.

AND GOVERNMENT.—Spain, ost free, was till very lately kingdom in Europe; and the o visible in most parts of the great measure the result of ernment, as a proper degree ot paid to the interest and ple. The monarchy is here- ns are capable of succession. n questioned, whether his might not bequeath his emise, to any member of the m he may prefer. It is at the House of Bourbon as- of Spain by virtue of the last

anish kingdoms, or princi- erly its cortes or national ted the chief authority with these assemblies gradually ncroachments of despotism, d or disused as superfluous ven in Aragon, the justiciary laimed and asserted, in the , the right of dethronement, es of Austria and his succes- remains of privilege; yet, in the Biscayan provinces they suffered the people to enjoy a remnant of freedom under the authority of the provincial states.

After the invasion of Spain by the French armies, the Cortes met, and held their sittings in the isle of Leon. One of their labours was the forming of a new constitution, which was promulgated in 1812. The French constitution of 1791 was the model upon which it was framed. It established only one representative body, composed of deputies, elected by the juntas of parishes, districts, and provinces. The government of the nation was declared by it to be a limited hereditary monarchy; the sovereignty, however, residing essentially in the nation, which alone had the right to make its fundamental laws. The executive power was left in the hands of the king, whose person was sacred and inviolable; all the responsibility resting upon the ministers. Only a suspensive veto, upon the enactments of the legislature, was granted to him. This constitutional code, which certainly had defects, was abolished by the worthless Ferdinand on his return from France. Spain groaned under the vilest despotism till 1820, when a military insurrection restored the constitution. But, in 1823, France, ever eager to destroy the happiness of its neighbours, invaded Spain, and enabled Ferdinand to play the tyrant once more. He died in 1833, and, in the following year, his widow, acting as regent for the young queen, deemed it politic to relax the fetters of the people. Accordingly, she promulgated a new constitution, under the name of the royal statute. By this new arrangement, the cortes reappeared under an altered form. They were thenceforth to be divided into an upper and lower house; the first consisting of peers by birth, and citizens nominated by the crown; the second, of deputies elected for three years by the juntas of provinces; which juntas were themselves chosen by the district juntas. The power of the cortes was circumscribed within narrow bounds. In 1836, however, the Spaniards determined to wrest from the crown a larger portion of freedom. In various parts of Spain important cities loudly demanded the constitution of 1812. At length the troops at the palace of St. Ildefonso joined the popular cry, and the queen-regent was compelled to yield to the wish of the people. The constitution of 1812 was, however, considerably modified by the cortes, which met soon after this event, and was thus rendered more in unison with the other constitutional governments of Europe. Among other changes, it established two chambers, a senate, and a house of representatives.

The laws of Spain are administered by twelve royal courts, or superior tribunals, entitled the Royal Chancery of Valladolid, (which also judges, in the last resort, the civil and criminal affairs of Biscay,) the Royal Chancery of Granada, the Royal Council of Navarre, and the Royal Audiences of Galicia, Asturias, the Canaries, Estremadura, Aragon, Valencia, Cata-

lonia, and Majorca. The districts of these twelve royal courts are divided into corregidorships, and a certain number of alcades are subordinate to the corregidors.

The foreign possessions of the crown of Spain are now limited to the towns of Ceuta and Oran, on the coast of Barbary; the Canaries, a group of islands to the westward of Africa; Cuba and Porto Rico, in the West Indies; and the Philippines, the Ladrones, and other clusters of islands, in the Indian Ocean.

Revenue, Army, and Navy.—Before the year 1808, the royal income, arising from Spain alone, was computed at £6,000,000 sterling; and it was supposed that the whole revenue of the Spanish dominions nominally amounted to £14,000,000; but this sum was exposed to great defalcations before the rest reached the treasury. In 1839, the revenue was estimated at less than £8,000,000, while the expenditure was more than double that sum. The expenses have, however, been since diminished. In 1840 the debt was £57,500,000. The army, during the war with Don Carlos, was 300,000 men, but has since been greatly reduced, and is believed to be about 100,000 strong. The once formidable navy of Spain has dwindled to 3 sail of the line, 8 frigates, and 23 smaller vessels.

Royal Arms, Titles, Nobility, and Orders.- Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms, all of which, with several others, were, by name, stated in the royal titles, so that they amounted in all to thirty. This absurd custom is still occasionally continued; but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majesty. The sovereigns of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a sword, without being crowned. Their signature is, "I the King." The king's eldest son is called Prince of Asturias, and his younger children are, by way of distinction, called Infants or Infantas.

The arms of Spain exhibit a shield, divided into four quarters, containing a castle with three towers for Castile, three lions for Leon, and three lilies, in reference to the descent of the present family from the French royal line.

The general name for those Spanish nobles and gentlemen who are unmixed with the Moorish blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and inferior titles. Such as are created grandees may stand covered before the king, and are treated with princely distinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without a royal order; and cardinals, archbishops, ambassadors, and some other dignified persons, both in church and state, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The order of St. James of Compostella is the richest in Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand master; but the office of both was given, by Pope Alexander VI., to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand masters in their respective dominions. The order is highly esteemed in Spain, and only conferred on persons of noble families. The same may be said of the order of Calatrava, instituted in 1158, by Sancho, king of Castile, after that fortress had been taken from the Moors. The number, influence, and possessions of the knights of this fraternity, became so considerable as to excite the jealousy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the office of grand master, were annexed by Pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated order of Alcantara derived its origin from that of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but, after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief residence of the knights, they derived their designation from that town, and laid aside the old device. The order of the Lady of Mercy is said to have been instituted by James I., king of Aragon, about the year 1228, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was designed for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which were expended large sums of money. It was first confined to men; but the increasing influence of the fair sex procured its extension to females. The knights of Montesa arose at Valencia, near the close of the 13th century, in the place of the templars, and enjoyed their possessions. Their chief seat being the town of Montesa, the order thence derived its name, and St. George was selected for their patron. In 1771, Charles III. instituted an order, to which he gave his own name, in commemoration of the birth of a grandson. The badge is a star of eight points, enamelled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the cross is the image of the Virgin. The motto is *Virtus et Merito*. None but persons of noble descent can belong to this order.

Religion.—The Romish religion is the only one established in Spain; but the infamous court of Inquisition, which was erected for the support of the prevailing faith, is no longer allowed to exercise its murderous rigours. Superstition and bigotry are also slowly but constantly losing ground. The immense revenues of the clergy have been diminished; the tithes have been taken from them, and their salaries are henceforth to be paid by the state; the monastic orders have been suppressed, and their convents and lands sold, with the exception of the convents belonging to the nuns, which will not be taken till the death of their present occupants; and a growing disposition is apparent to resist the papal control.

Archbishoprics and Bishoprics.—In Spain there are 8 archbishoprics and 51 bishoprics. The archbishop of Toledo is styled the primate of Spain, and is great-chancellor of Castile. His revenues were formerly immense. The presentation to archbishoprics and bishoprics belongs to the crown, subject to confirmation by the holy see. At present, in consequence of the pope having refused to grant confirmatory bulls to the ecclesiastics nominated by the regent, most of the sees are temporarily

stered by bishops appointed by the ment.

RATURE.—Spain has scarcely produced men in proportion to the excellent ies of its natives. This defect may, in easure, be attributed to the indolence otry of the Spaniards, while living under tism, which prevented them from mak- t progress in the polite arts which they ise would. Several of the ancient of the church were Spaniards; and g is greatly indebted to Isidore, bishop lle, and Cardinal Ximenes. Such, how- as the gloom of the Austrian govern- hat took place with the emperor Charles t the inimitable Cervantes, the author n Quixote," born at Madrid, in 1549, en- ito the army in a station little superior of a common soldier, and died neglected, ghting bravely for his country at the of Lepanto, in which he lost his left His satire upon knight-errantry, in his ıtures of Don Quixote," did as much to his countrymen, by curing them of diculous spirit, as it now does honour own memory. He is, perhaps, to be at the head of moral and humorous s.

'Visions of Quevedo," and some other tatirical pieces, having been translated e English language, have rendered that well known in this country. He was he best writers of the 17th century, ex- equally in verse and in prose. Beside rit as a poet, he was well versed in the l languages, and possessed great erudi- .s a poet, he excelled both in the serious rlesque style, and was happy in a turn our similar to that which we admire in and Swift.

y was cultivated in Spain at an early The most distinguished dramatic poet ıation was Lope de Vega, who was con- ıry with our Shakspeare. He possessed ination astonishingly fertile, and wrote almost miraculous rapidity; but in his e works he disregarded the unities, and his plays more to the taste of the age, the rules of criticism. His lyric com- s, and fugitive pieces, with his prose form a collection of 50 volumes, beside matic works, which make 26 volumes exclusive of 400 scriptural dramatic called in Spain, Autos Sacramentales. a was also a dramatic writer of con- e note; but many of his plays are very as in their tendency.

ius, a divine, the most voluminous, per- at ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his ave been long distinguished only by lk. Herrera, and some other writers, arly De Solis, displayed great abilities ry, by investigating the antiquities of , and writing the history of its con- Mariana, the Jesuit, was also an able n. Among the writers who appeared in Spain in modern times, Father Feyjoo was one of the most distinguished. His performances evince talent and acuteness, extensive reading, and uncommon liberality of sentiment, especially when his situation and country are considered. Don Francisco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia; the Count de Campomanes, the political economist; Ustariz, and Munoz, the historian, may also be mentioned with praise among the Spanish literati. Spain has likewise produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, whose writings are equally amusing and instructive. Of the modern Spanish poets, Yriarte, Melendez, and Ariaza, seem to be the most admired; and extemporaneous versifiers, not however equal to the Italian improvisatori, frequently offer themselves to public notice. The most universal of the present Spanish writers is Martinez de la Rosa, who has succeeded in tragedy, comedy, various kinds of poetry, and politics.

Some of the Spaniards have distinguished themselves in the polite arts; and not only the cities, but the palaces, especially the Escurial, discover many striking specimens of their abilities as sculptors and architects. Palomino, in an elaborate treatise on the art of painting, has inserted the lives of 233 painters and sculptors, who flourished in Spain from the time of Ferdinand the Catholic, to the conclusion of the reign of Philip IV. Among the most eminent Spanish painters were Velasques; Murillo, who is commonly called the Spanish Vandyke; Ribeira; and Claudio Coello, whose style of painting was very similar to that of Paul Veronese.

UNIVERSITIES AND SCHOOLS. — In Spain there are several universities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded in the year 1200, by Alfonso, king of Leon. Among the other universities are those of Seville, Compostella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Saragossa, Valencia, Huesca, and Cervera. They neither flourish in the number of students, nor in the ability and learning of professors.

LANGUAGE.—The Spanish language, like the Italian, is derived from the Latin; and it might properly be called a corrupted Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, especially the former. It is a majestic and expressive language; and foreigners, who understand it best, esteem it most; for the Spanish works of genius appear to disadvantage even in the best translations: and Cervantes speaks almost as awkward English, as Shakspeare does French. In the north and west of the Peninsula, the Basque language is usually spoken—a language which has little or no resemblance to any other in Europe, and was probably that of the primitive inhabitants of Spain. There are three dialects of it, not much differing from each other.

The Lord's Prayer in Spanish is as follows:—

"Padre nuestro, que estas en el cielo, santificado se el tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno;

hagase tu voluntad, assi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nuestro de cada dia da nos de oy; y perdona nos neustras deudas assi como nos otros perdonamos a nuestros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal: porque tuo es el reyno, y la potencia, y la gloriu, per los siglos. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—These are chiefly Roman and Moorish. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, supposed to have been erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley, and is supported by a double row of 159 arches. It is beautiful in its design, and in an admirable state of preservation. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Tarragona, and in different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneously, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat stones; it was continued to Merida, and thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportional height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is supported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven aisles, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the most noble and costly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a lofty bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one, that had existed 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, said to have been raised by that general, in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almost entire, well proportioned and simple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn stone. Near Morviedro, the ancient Saguntum, are some Roman remains—as the ruins of the theatre, an exact semicircle about 82 yards in diameter; some of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 persons might attend the exhibitions without inconvenience.

The Moorish antiquities are rich and magnificent. The cathedral, formerly a mosque, at Cordova, has been already mentioned. The fortified palace of Alhambra was built in 1280, by the second Moorish king of Granada; and, in 1492, in the reign of the eighteenth king, it was taken by the Spaniards. It is situated on a hill, which is ascended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the old walls, the emperor Charles V. began a new palace in 1537, which was never finished, though the shell of it remains. It is built of yellow stone: the outside forms a square of 190 feet. The inside is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuscan and a gallery of the Doric order, each supported by 32 columns, made of as many single pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jasper, on the pedestals of which are representations of battles, in marble basso-relievo. The Moorish palace has no external beaut houses and towers, walled r stones of different dimensio entirely destitute of orname over with stucco by a very within, says Mr. Swinburne, the most curious place tha perhaps in Europe. Nothin any where else can convey edifice, except you take it fro of an opera, or the tales of first court has a fountain in peristyle paved with marble, upon very slight pillars, in style differing from all the architecture. The walls a fret-work in stucco, which is at certain distances; and, in Arabic sentences, some of a others in praise of the found gilt or painted; and time ha brilliancy of the colours. M on the lower part of each festoons and fantastic knot takes its name from twelv which support a marble ba passed with a fine colonna project into the court at th the ceilings of which are ve the capitals of the colum wrought, but have not that modern taste would require not far from this court, is g its form, the elegance of it exquisite manner in which signed, painted, and finished. hall is the entrance into th sisters, so named from two extraordinary dimensions, w the floor. From the queer which is a small square decorated, in the middle of long passage leads to the ha which Mr. Jacob thus des square of 40 feet, 80 feet in windows, opening upon bal the views of the country a The Arabic inscriptions are lain, with exquisite skill, so stucco ornaments, which e The ceiling is very beaut wood of various colours, and number of gold and silver forms of circles, crowns, king's bed-chamber has tw the beds were placed, upon of blue and white tiles; an in the summer by a foun alcoves are the royal baths, from the roof, and beautifull

HISTORY.—It is most pr was originally peopled by Gaul; and it afterward r bodies of adventurers from nicians also sent colonies Cadiz and Malaga. On the

ıe possession of this country be-
ject of contention between those
ıublics: for some time the Cartha-
the upper hand, but at length the
Romans prevailed; and Spain re-
ıeir possession until the decline of
. The Suevi, Vandals, and Alans,
kingdom among them; but, in 585,
:hs became the masters nearly of
eninsula, after having, for above a
a half, ruled over a considerable
The prince who achieved this con-
.eovigild, whose victories over the
ished his warlike reputation, while
nore honourable fame of humanity
iis own son to death, for supporting
ic faith against Arianism. The
subsequently filled by seventeen
:he same race, few of whom were
ıat dignified station.
aving taken arms against the tyrant
ıured the crown for himself, in 710;
ıot govern with wisdom or equity.
is vindictive cruelty, the two sons
king fled to Ceuta, in Africa, and
:ed their fears and their resentment
le, the archbishop of Seville, and to
r of the colony. As Roderic, in the
of power, had offered violence to
r of Count Julian, that nobleman
:ed to Africa, and implored the aid
cens for the dethronement of the
he represented as very unpopular.
then acted as the lieutenant of the
d, eagerly embraced this oppor-
ding Spain to the dominions of his
d, in 713, sent thither 7000 men
:. Having taken Heraclea, upon
e, the Saracens gave to the rocky
appellation of Gebel-Tarik, or the
f Tarik—a name since corrupted
tar; and, boldly prosecuting their
eated all the troops that ventured
hem. When Tarik had been rein-
Roderic had taken the field with a
, of which one division was com-
the archbishop, success seemed
equally balanced in the battle of
the traitorous prelate, by going
infidels, gave victory to their arms.
ither fell in battle, or was drowned
. At Ecija, soon after, the opposite
n contended with great fury; and
as the invaders were called, because
from Mauritania) were again vic-
t Spain was not wholly subdued
ly efforts. In many of the towns,
f the inhabitants protracted the
and some were not taken before
paralyzed the operations of the
To accelerate the desired conquest,
e a descent with 18,000 men. He
country with fire and sword, and
rovinces with terror and dismay;
Abdalaziz pursued the same object
eal, but with less cruelty.

A great number of the natives, disdaining to submit to the enemy, fled to the mountains which separate the province of Leon from the Asturias; and they found a leader in the person of Pelajo, who traced his descent from the royal line. The Cantabrians, or the people of Biscay, also flocked to his standard; and he kept the Moors in alarm by occasional irruptions into the territories which they had seized. One of their best officers marched against him, accompanied by the archbishop of Seville, who in vain urged him to submit to the necessity of the times. Retiring to a mountainous defile, Pelajo baffled all the efforts of the assailants, slew their commander, and put the prelate to death, as an enemy of his country. Of his subsequent conduct and exertions we have no certain knowledge; but he preserved the remains of the Visi-Gothic kingdom, and transmitted the crown to his descendants.

Abdalaziz having espoused the widow of Roderic, she advised him to assume the title of king of Spain; and, as he refused to violate his duty to the khalif, she contrived, by lowering the door of his apartment, to make his officers bow or stoop when they entered. Pretending that they had saluted him as king, she placed on his head a golden crown. He was instantly assassinated by the indignant warriors: but the country was more misgoverned after his death. Elhor fixed the seat of power at Cordova, and exercised the most tyrannic sway, not only over the Christians, but also over the Moslems.

Not content with the commanding influence which the Moors thus exercised in Spain, Abdalrahman wished to add France to the Mohammedan conquests: but his expedition into the heart of that country, in 733, in which he was opposed by the celebrated Charles Martel, was so disastrous to himself and his army, that it completely checked the ambitious views of the infidels upon that part of Europe.

The Visi-Gothic king, Pelajo, dying in 735, was succeeded by his son Favila, whose death, in the course of two years, consigned the throne to Alfonso, surnamed the Catholic, son-in-law of Pelajo. While this small kingdom was slowly augmented by the recovery of towns and districts, intestine war arose among the Moors. As the authority of the khalif, or of his viceroy in Africa, could not effectually repress these commotions, the idea of forming an independent kingdom in Spain occurred to Abdalrahman, the son of Moawiah, a man of talent and courage. Taking advantage of the disaffection of the Moors to a new family, which had wrested the khalifate from the Ommiad princes, he assumed the royal title in 755, on pretence of his descent from the family of Mohammed, and prepared to govern with that policy and vigour which seemed to promise a restoration of order and tranquillity. Cordova was his capital. He did not, however, establish his power without the intervention

of arms. He was repeatedly attacked by the Moorish governor, over whom he was finally enabled to triumph by the superior number and determined zeal of his partisans. His administration was occasionally thwarted and disturbed by faction; but he boldly withstood all the efforts of his enemies, and died in peace after a reign of thirty-two years. The arts and sciences flourished under his sway; and few princes of that period were equal to him in political ability.

The kingdom of Oviedo, as that realm was called which Pelajo retained, was exposed to the danger of a powerful attack from Abdalrahman; but, when the latter was on his march for that purpose, he was recalled by the rumour of a commotion, and did not resume the enterprise. Froila, son of Alfonso, maintained the dignity of the Christian kingdom, and extended its frontiers by his courage and activity. When the greater part of Galicia had been recovered, it was again invaded by the Moors, who destroyed the churches, and made dreadful havoc; but they were so harassed in their retreat, that only a small part of their army escaped. Hesham, the son of Abdalrahman, gave orders for a new invasion, which, however, did not answer his expectations. This prince emulated his predecessor in the encouragement of the arts; and, in that respect, his son, Al-Hakem, did not degenerate. The new khalif (for that venerated title was assumed by the Moorish kings of Spain) would have been a very formidable enemy to the Christians, if he had not been frequently embarrassed by sedition and revolt. His successor, Abdalrahman II., commenced his reign in 822, with great preparations for war; and, as Catalonia had been formed into a separate government by the united efforts of the Spaniards and French, he particularly aimed at the conquest of its capital. That object he accomplished; but he did not, during the remainder of his reign, so seriously impair the Christian interest as his friends expected, or his enemies apprehended. On the contrary, in defiance of his power, a new state arose; for, in 828, the kingdom of Navarre was founded as a barrier against his arms. He took, indeed, the city of Leon, which had been added to the Asturian realm, pillaged it, and consigned it to the flames: but for this insult he was severely chastised by Ramiro, who had succeeded Alfonso the Chaste. His troops were thrown into confusion near Calahorra, intimidated into the most disgraceful flight, and pursued with unsparing vengeance. In the reign of Ordono the Christians were also victorious over Mousa, a distinguished general, who had revolted from Abdalrahman's son Mohammed; but, when they had joined the son of that rebel, they suffered a sanguinary defeat. Alfonso III., who ascended the throne in 862, was a gallant and able defender of their cause; but, *unfortunately*, they were not animated by a *spirit of concord*. Their dissensions gave him great uneasiness: he was harassed with conspiracies and insurrections, and was at length induced to resign his crown.

About the year 918, Ordono II., son of Alfonso, transferred the seat of his monarchy to Leon. He was, at the same time, complete master of Galicia; and a great part of Old Castile had been recovered before his accession; but, in consequence of his tyranny, that province shook off his yoke. Encouraged by the divisions among the Moslems, he invaded New Castile, and defeated, near Talavera, the troops of Abdalrahman III., who was so alarmed at this bold irruption, that he sent to Africa for military aid. Undismayed by the force which was thus brought against him, the king of Leon advanced to meet the enemy; and the Douro was tinged with the blood of the exasperated combatants, who fell in heaps on both sides. The victory, which was long doubtful, gave lustre to the Christian arms; and the khalif accepted such terms of peace as were dictated by his triumphant adversary: but he quickly violated the treaty, and rushed into Galicia, where Ordono engaged him with indecisive effect. He then made an irruption into Navarre, and furiously ravaged the country. After a long intermission of hostilities, Ramiro II. marched to the southward, stormed Madrid, and destroyed its fortifications. The Moors, in return, advanced into Old Castile, where they were routed by Ramiro and the count, who, entering Aragon, compelled the governor of Saragossa to become a tributary vassal. The battle of Simancas soon followed, in which the king's success was signal and complete. On this occasion, Abdalrahman escaped with the greatest difficulty, when about 30,000 of his men had been killed or wounded.

Notwithstanding the occasional misfortunes of his reign, the Moalem empire in Spain seems to have been in its greatest splendour, though not at its widest extent, at the time of Abdalrahman's death, in 961. Towns and villages were abundantly diffused over the peninsula; the population was far superior to that of modern times: agriculture flourished; mines of the precious metals poured forth their stores; varied manufactures and extensive commerce exercised the industry of the people; and the ordinary barbarity of the Mohammedan character was softened by the spirit of chivalry, the progress of refinement, and the increase of general knowledge.

Al-Hakem II., who succeeded Abdalrahman, was more desirous of the preservation of peace than intent on a continuation of the war; yet he gratified the animosity of his people by many expeditions against the Christians. His contemporaries in the kingdom of Leon were Sancho and Ramiro III. It is said of the former king, that he applied to a physician of the khalif's court for the removal of his corpulence, and was destroyed by the quackery, if not by the treachery, of his professional adviser; and

latter prince betrayed such
elty, as to rouse the indig-
les, who drove him from the
n II. died in 976.
f Hesham II., son of Al-
a bold and ambitious officer
y of acquiring an exorbitant
hich he continued to exercise
had attained a maturity of
Al-Mansour, acting with un-
renewed the war, in 982, by
Galicia, and the capture of
he next campaign he invaded
when he was on the point of
Veremond II., he suddenly
ainst the Spaniards, whom
ted, that a mere wreck re-
my. It is said, that he tri-
ities; but, if this be true, we
most of them were partial
He deprived Veremond of
a long siege, and was so
stinate defence of the garri-
d a general massacre of the
nearly destroyed the city.
cess roused three princes to
of exertion. Veremond drew
re and the count of Castile
in 998, led a great army into
arties displayed, during the
iasm and energy of courage;
separated the combatants.
ians, unconscious of their
n their arms, the Moors, by
ler, confessed their defeat.
confounded at this disgrace,
ake that sustenance which is
upport of life. His son Abdal-
e chief political authority,
cted as a general; but, being
stilians, he resigned to more
rienced officers the dangers
ield. After his death, several
ended for the possession of
, and a civil war ensued,
am was constrained to abdi-
ich was seized by Solyman,
s. Having excited general
y, the usurper was delivered
of Cordova to his principal
he was put to death. Other
ed; and persons who were
niad family were sometimes
ort-lived pre-eminence. At
line of Abdalrahman failed;
of towns, profiting by the
nes, assumed the royal title,
independent authority.
emberment of the great Mos-
important union of power on
ristians arose from the suc-
an ambitious and able prince.
o the Great, one of whose
dded the north-eastern part
ure, had espoused the sister
l Castile, and declared *him-*
self king of that country; and, on his death, the son, Fernando I., was involved in a war with Veremond III., king of Leon, whom he slew in battle. The victor seized the vacant crown, and thus became, in 1036, sovereign of the whole country from the coast of Galicia to the frontiers of Navarre and Aragon, which two kingdoms were governed by his brothers, Garcias and Ramiro; and, when the partition of sway took place among the Moors, he was the most powerful prince in the peninsula. He harassed the infidels with vigorous hostilities, subdued some parts of Portugal, and compelled the kings of Toledo, Seville, and Lisbon, to acknowledge his supremacy by the payment of an annual tribute. He died in 1065; and his dominions were for some time shared between his three sons; but Sancho, who succeeded him in Castile, dispossessed his brothers of their territories. In attempting, however, to rob his sister of some towns which formed her appanage, he was killed at Zamora, in 1072. His brother Alfonso then mounted the throne without opposition; and his reign was distinguished by the exploits of the Cid, or lord, Ruy Dias de Bivar, the mirror of chivalry, and the most renowned champion of the age. This warrior obtained many victories over the Moors; subdued New Castile for his royal master; and also reduced Valencia, which he was permitted to govern with a degree of authority inferior only to that of Alfonso.

While the Moors were thus harassed and enfeebled by the efforts of the Christians, their princes were exposed to the danger of subjugation from a potentate of their own religion. The king of Cordova, being menaced by the Castilians with an attack, implored the aid of Yussef, king of Morocco, without considering the risk of being subsequently overwhelmed by his ally. An African army soon appeared in Spain; and, when Alfonso had been defeated, the victorious monarch returned to his own dominions. But his ambition soon prompting him to exercise a more sovereign influence in the affairs of Spain, he again crossed the strait of Gibraltar, dethroned the prince whom he had assisted, and took possession of Granada and its dependencies. Aware of the peril in which he was now involved, Alfonso formed a crusade against the Moslems, and invited knights and gallant adventurers, from France and other countries, to sustain the honour of the Christian arms. He was joined in this meritorious service by Sancho, king of Aragon; and the magnitude of the force which he led against Yussef so discouraged that prince, that he abandoned his camp, and declined every challenge to a general conflict. Unwilling to remain inactive, Sancho turned his arms against the Moorish prince of Huesca, but lost his life at the siege of that city, which, however, his son Peter annexed to his kingdom.

After the death of Yussef, his successor Ali renewed the war with Alfonso, whose territories he ravaged with the fury of a barbarian,

and whose troops he defeated with great slaughter. During these hostilities, the Castilian king died, in 1109. Toledo, which he had chosen for his capital, was immediately besieged by Ali, but not taken. As the late king had only left a natural daughter, Urraca, whom Alfonso the Aragonian had married, this prince assumed in her name the administration of Castile; and he employed the forces of the three realms (for he was also king of Navarre) in the humiliation of the infidels. He was victorious in many (some say twenty-nine) engagements; and several great towns, particularly Saragossa, fell into his hands. When the Castilians demanded, for their king, the grandson of their last sovereign, he quietly resigned his pretensions, and returned to Aragon. On a renewal of the war, he lost his life, in 1134, at Fraga, by that fervour of courage which hurried him into scenes of danger.

The reign of Alfonso VIII., usually styled the Emperor, was not undistinguished by great exploits. He made various conquests, contributed to remove the Christian frontier from the Tagus to the Sierra Morena, and even gained possession of the city of Cordova; but he suffered it to be re-captured by the Moors; and, when the long siege of Lisbon excited the attention of all the princes in Spain, he did not contribute to its success. On his decease, in 1157, the kingdom of Castile was separated from that of Leon. His son Sancho reigned only for one year; but Alfonso IX. enjoyed the crown for fifty-five years.

The African princes had, for a long period, paid little attention to the affairs of Spain; but, when a new dynasty had been formed in Morocco, and the power of the usurping family seemed to be established, a great army again landed in the peninsula with views of conquest; and Yussef Abou-Yakoub advanced to Santarem, in Portugal; but he was mortally wounded in a sally of the garrison. His son having invaded Spain in 1195, Alfonso IX., inflamed with rash presumption, encountered the Africans near Cordova, before he was joined by the troops of Aragon and Navarre; and the event was a sanguinary defeat. He again tried the fortune of war, and was severely checked. After an interval of forbearance, the next king of Morocco made extraordinary preparations for the ruin of the Christian cause in the peninsula. Making a very large deduction from the amount of Al-Naser's army, which, according to some Arabic historians, amounted to 420,000 men, or, as others say, to 600,000, we may presume that he had about 300,000 under his command. On the 16th of July, 1212, the armies of the three Christian kingdoms, strengthened by powerful accessions from France and Italy, attacked the invaders, on the plains of Tolosa, with the most determined resolution, which, however, seemed to be on the point of yielding to the influence of terror, when the centre had made three fruitless attempts to break the Asiatic ranks. A renewal of exertion, in which the wings zealously joined, gave the confederate kings; and the that glorious day is still celebra The disgrace of this signal def 160,000 of the Moors were slain, an the vassal princes in Spain from h hastened the death of the Mooris

When the war had languished f Ferdinand, the son of Alfonso, Leon to Castile, distinguished success against the infidels. He of two of their most flourishing and Seville, and rendered Murcia dom. James, king of Aragon, reputation by the conquest of islands, and also of Valencia, wh had recovered after the death o the Moorish princes who at this in power, the chief was Mohamm who, in 1236, had founded th Granada, which included the so Andalusia. Being harassed by motions, while the Castilians his town of Jaen, he courted th nand, by consenting to do hom his realm, and to allow him revenue; but, as he assisted tha reduction of Seville, Alfonso in 1252, succeeded to the crown mitted a part of the tribute. Th not long subsist. The feudator attacked by his lord-paramoun an alliance with the king of M pelled the Spanish garrisons and its dependencies; but, afte paigns, he was compelled to ren sion to the Castilian king, who his authority in Murcia.

When Alfonso enjoyed peac himself with literary pursuits, mathematics and astronomy: he justice and tranquillity by a ne But he was disturbed in his ho pations by domestic dissensions Philip revolted, but was reclaim admonitions. His second son, king's absence, acted with spi sovereign of Morocco, who had with a mighty force; but he sequel, that perverseness and which, by prompting him to ac rebel, induced his alarmed and to solicit the assistance of the tate. This was an impolitic step, for which the commotion did not afford a sufficient excus unchecked by the efforts of the afflicted the people for several y extinguished in 1284 by the de whose grandson was easily Sancho.

The new king could not exp his authority inviolate. He wa the discontent which his condu also by the hostilities of the infi Ferdinand IV. pacified his com

· of towns and lands, and suppressed all
notions by the vigour of his government.
the Moslem princes he was occasionally
oiled; and, in a war with the Granadians,
as assisted by the king of Aragon, and
not wholly unsuccessful.
fonso XI., who succeeded him in 1312, is
ed by historians, both for political talents
warlike ability. Before he was of sufficient
for the personal exercise of the task of go-
ment, two princes of his family, who acted
name, took up arms against the king of
ada; and both died in battle, not from
nds, but from heat, fatigue, and exhaustion.
war was continued with spirit by the
g king, who could not, however, effectually
ph over a state which was supported by
power of Morocco. A detail of the war
d be uninteresting; but a signal victory,
ed by the Spaniards in 1340, is worthy of
e. When the kings of Morocco and Gra-
had invested Tarifa, Alfonso advanced
st them with 39,000 men, among whom
the auxiliary troops of Aragon and Por-
. Philip, a French prince, who then
d in Navarre, ingloriously avoided all
n in the war; but the confederates, with-
s aid, and though their enemies were four
, met with remarkable success; yet no
who has common sense will believe that
of the Moors were slain on that occasion,
ne writers gravely affirm. Other gallant
ts were subsequently performed by the
iana; and Algesiras was reduced, after a
of nineteen months, during which the de-
s of the place are said to have made use of
n for the first time. Alfonso then besieged
ar, but died at the moment when he had
d the place to the utmost extremity.
war did not terminate with the death of
o. His son, Peter the Cruel, encouraged
pported a Mahometan prince of his own
ter; who, after having obtained the crown
rder, was dethroned by another usurper.
ligning prince, having procured assist-
from the king of Aragon, gained some
ages over the Castilians, and, in parti-
slew or captured a whole corps, near
. This disgrace inflamed Peter with a
of vengeance. He immediately entered
negotiation with the Aragonian prince,
ached him from the interest of the
a king, who, despairing of success in
d, repaired to Seville, and offered to his
ry most valuable presents for the favour
e. A polite answer was returned by the
but he soon after ordered the royal
nt, and thirty-five of his friends and at-
s, to be put to death, though he had
sem a solemn promise of safety before
uld venture to appear at his court. He
instated his friend, whose subsequent
as long and pacific.
authors have endeavoured to rescue
mory of Peter from odium and execra-
representing him as just rather than
cruel; but there are sufficient proofs of the correctness of the epithet by which he has been stigmatized. The murder of his father's concubine and of his own wife, and the death of many nobles who had merely excited his suspicions or offended his pride, stamp his character with merited infamy. His natural brother, Henry, dreading the same fate, revolted from him; and, being unable to dethrone him without foreign assistance, engaged a body of French and other adventurers, who, in 1366 drove the despot into exile. Edward the Black Prince, who then governed Aquitaine, afforded an asylum to the royal fugitive, and even led an army into Spain to attack the usurper, whom he defeated at Najera, near the Ebro. As Peter treated the English prince with perfidy and ingratitude, he did not long preserve the crown which he had regained. Henry confounded all his efforts in every quarter, and at length besieged him in the fortress of Montiel. Peter attempted to escape, but was betrayed into the power of Henry, who murdered him with his own hand.

Notwithstanding the illegitimacy of Henry, he was permitted to wear the crown, which, in 1379, devolved without opposition to his son John, who also claimed the crown of Portugal in his wife's right, and even risked a battle to obtain it, but did not accomplish his object. Mohammed Abou-Hajad, who at the same time ruled over Granada, was a wise and moderate prince, and courted the friendship of the Castilian king; but, in the reign of John II., the war was renewed between the rival nations. The chief advantages were obtained by the Spaniards, who could not, however, with all their own valour and the martial skill of their sovereign, annihilate the Granadian realm.

The successor of John was Henry IV., who attended more to pleasure and dissipation than to the duties of royalty. He neither emulated the fame, nor imitated the administrative policy of his contemporary Alfonso, king of Aragon and Sicily, called the wise and the magnanimous. In 1465 he was with great solemnity deposed by the nobles, for his misconduct, and the crown was transferred to his brother Alfonso. A civil war arose; the new king died while it was raging; and his partisans supported the pretensions of Henry's sister Isabella, whose prospect of a throne induced Ferdinand, the aspiring son of John II., king of Aragon, to offer her his hand. His addresses were accepted; and Henry was reinstated, after he had acknowledged Isabella as his heiress, although he and his queen peremptorily declared that Joan, who was suspected of being born in adultery, was their legitimate daughter. On the king's death, in 1474, Isabella's claim was confirmed, and a territorial union which promised great benefit to Spain was effected, but not without a renewal of commotion and of war.

As soon as tranquillity was restored, Ferdinand employed himself in improving the gene-

ral state of the country; and this object he pursued for some years. He then directed his views to the conquest of Granada, not because Abou'l-Hassan had endeavoured to profit by the late disturbances in Castile, but from motives of policy. While he was maturing his preparations, an armistice, which he had concluded for temporary convenience, was violated by the Mohammedan king, who took Zahara by storm, and slew or captured the whole garrison. This outrage was retaliated by the seizure of Alhama; and the war was continued for many years, with mutual animosity.

The dissensions among the principal inhabitants of Granada, and the conflicting claims of rival kings, (for one faction proclaimed Abou-Abdallah, the son of Abou'l-Hassan,) tended to promote the success of the Christians, who defeated the Moors near Lucena, and captured their young king. The death of the elder prince did not allay the rancour of party. His brother, Al-Zagal, who was invested with the insignia of royalty, put to death many of the adherents of Abou-Abdallah, who, having recovered his liberty by promising to become the tributary vassal of Ferdinand, contended with his uncle for the possession of the capital, in an indecisive conflict which deluged the city with blood.

In the progress of this calamitous contest, many considerable towns and fortresses were taken by the Spaniards; and Al-Zagal, wishing to conciliate his Spanish adversary, surrendered to him those which he still possessed. After this transfer, the city of Granada alone remained under Moorish sway. It had a double circuit of wall, furnished with a multiplicity of towers, and two citadels, erected on the two hills upon which the town stood. The difficulty of reducing it by a siege induced Ferdinand to have recourse to a blockade; and, when he had continued eight months in his entrenched camp, he was gratified by Abou-Abdallah, in 1492, with the full possession of the city. He engaged to leave the inhabitants unmolested, and even to allow them the privilege of retaining their religious worship; but he was less indulgent to the Jews, all of whom, at the time of this conquest, he banished from his kingdom, except such as consented to embrace Christianity. Some lands were assigned to the Moorish king; but he soon quitted Spain, and fixed his residence at Fez.

Thus did the persevering efforts of the Spaniards extinguish that dominion, which had subsisted in their country for almost eight centuries. The people whom they conquered were superior to them in those arts which tend to humanize nations; yet it must be acknowleged, that there was a strong tincture of ferocity in the Moors, which detracted from their boasted civilization.

As a reward for this success over an infidel race, Ferdinand received from the pope the *title* of the Catholic, which he also earned by *the most iniquitous* and inhuman act of his reign; for he established the Inquisition, an execrable tribunal, by which, within a few years, many thousands of his unoffending subjects were consigned to a cruel death, because they were not zealous in the religion which he professed.

The year which was distinguished by the reduction of Granada, was also rendered memorable by a grand discovery, which led to a series of conquest and colonization. We allude to the voyage of Columbus, whom Ferdinand and Isabella encouraged in his enlightened views; but, as this subject more properly belongs to a different part of our work, we must for the present dismiss it. The other remarkable acts of Ferdinand's reign were the unjust and treacherous seizure of the kingdoms of Navarre and Naples, and his concern in the unprincipled league of Cambray. By the death of Isabella, in 1504, he lost all right to the administration of Castile, except in the name of his daughter Joan, who had been married to the archduke Philip; but he continued to govern that realm to the end of his life. His death, in 1516, consigned an extensive range of territory to the sway of his grandson Charles, who succeeded Maximilian as emperor of Germany.

The reign of Charles was pregnant with memorable incidents; but, in this sketch, we can only give a cursory view of them. Though Cardinal Ximenes had governed Spain with ability, he was dismissed from the tolls of state with some marks of illiberal contempt;—a treatment by which his dissolution was accelerated. Charles soon began to take an active part in the politics of Europe, and to manifest an eager desire of influencing the conduct of other princes. But it was his rival Francis who disturbed the peace of the continent, by invading the kingdom of Navarre, which was quickly reduced by the French, and as easily recovered by the Spaniards. Hostilities also arose in the Netherland provinces which had devolved to Charles; and the war was extended to Italy, where his troops gained possession of the Milanese and of Genoa, and afterward triumphed over Francis at the battle of Pavia. That prince, being unable to escape, purchased his liberation by acquiescing in terms which he had no intention of observing: such was the honour of that age! A person of a more sacred character also fell into the hands of the imperialists. This was the pope himself, whose capital was stormed and pillaged by the duke of Bourbon, then in the service of Charles. Peace was at length restored in 1529; and the emperor took the opportunity of attending to the concerns of religion, which, by opposing the Protestants, he endeavoured to retain in a state of corruption. To the affairs of the states of Barbary he subsequently directed his attention. He attacked the city of Tunis; defeated Barbarossa, the usurper of the sovereignty of that state; and, after a dreadful slaughter, gave up the town to a vassal king. In 1535, he

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sent to a truce for twelve years. This was an act of expedient policy; but his expulsion of the Morescoes, or the posterity of the Moors, by which his kingdom lost an important and industrious part of its population, must be considered as an act of injustice, folly, and bigotry.

Philip IV., who reigned from the year 1621 to 1665, renewed the war with Holland, but without that vigour which alone could suppress the revolt. He was harassed by the hostilities of France, attacked by Oliver Cromwell with success, and lost Portugal by the impolicy of his government. His successor, Charles II., was deprived of various parts of the Netherlands by the ambition of Louis XIV., who, not content with the spoils of one war, indulged his arbitrary and encroaching spirit in a renewal of hostilities. He was encouraged on these occasions by the visible decline of the Spanish power, and the unwarlike character of the king; but, at the peace of Ryswick, he condescended to relinquish some of his usurpations, and subsequently courted the favour of that prince whom he had before endeavoured to injure.

When the royal branch of the Austrian family in Spain failed in the person of Charles II., who left no issue, the duke of Anjou, grandson to Louis XIV., mounted that throne, in virtue of his predecessor's will, by the name of Philip V., in 1701. After a long and bloody struggle with the German branch of the House of Austria, supported by Great Britain, he was confirmed in his dignity at the conclusion of the war, by the shameful peace of Utrecht, in 1713. And thus, through a masterly train of politics, Louis accomplished his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich possessions in America and the Indies, from the House of Austria to his own family. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and procured that kingdom for his son Charles, the natives readily acknowledging him for their sovereign, in consequence of the indignation which they felt at the domineering spirit and iniquitous government of the imperialists.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was disturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by his son Ferdinand VI., a mild and pacific prince, who reformed many abuses, and endeavoured to promote the commerce and prosperity of his kingdom. In 1759 he died, without issue, through melancholy for the loss of his wife. He was succeeded by his brother, the king of Naples.

Charles III. was so warmly attached to the family compact of the House of Bourbon, that, two years after his accession, he even hazarded his American dominions to support it. War being declared between him and the British court, the latter took from him the Havanna in the West Indies, and Manilla in *the Philippine* islands. Notwithstanding the

success of the English, their ministry thought proper hastily to conclude a peace, in consequence of which the Havanna was restored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted against Algiers by the Spanish ministry, which had a most unsuccessful termination. The troops, which amounted to 25,000, commanded by Lieutenant-general O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eastward of the city of Algiers, but were disgracefully repelled, when almost 3000 of their number had been killed or wounded.

When the war between Great Britain and its American colonies had subsisted for some time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was also prevailed upon to commence hostilities. The Spaniards closely besieged Gibraltar, both by sea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortress should be possessed by the English. The grand attack was made on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ships, furnished with 212 guns, which discharged shot of the weight of twenty-six pounds. These vessels, which were called floating batteries, were constructed in such a manner that they were supposed to be fire-proof, and were also of uncommon solidity. The showers of shot and shells which were directed from them, from the land batteries, and, on the other hand, from the various works of the garrison, exhibited a scene of which, perhaps, neither the pen nor the pencil can furnish a competent idea. It is sufficient to say, that 400 pieces of the heaviest artillery were playing at the same moment; an instance which has scarcely occurred in any siege since the invention of those wonderful engines of destruction. It was several hours before the effect of the numerous red-hot balls from the garrison became conspicuous; but, in the afternoon, smoke was perceived to issue from the admiral's ship and another, and, during the night, several were in flames. All were at length consumed, and the fortress retained its proud character of impregnability. In a previous enterprise, the Spaniards had proved more successful. The island of Minorca was surrendered to them, after having been besieged for 171 days. The garrison consisted of no more than 2692 men, while the force of the enemy amounted to 16,000. The Spanish commander at first attempted to corrupt the governor (General Murray;) but his offers being indignantly rejected, the siege was commenced in form; and the defenders would have shown themselves equally invincible with those of Gibraltar, had it been possible to relieve them in the same manner. By the treaty which put an end to these hostilities, Spain obtained favourable terms, being allowed to retain Minorca and Florida.

After the throne of France had been subverted by the revolutionists, the contemptuous rejection of the humane interference of the court of Spain in favour of Louis XVI., and the solicitations of the confederate sovereigns, induced Charles IV., who had succeeded his father in 1788, to declare war against France. The chief incidents of this war, the treaty of peace concluded by Spain with the French republic, and the subsequent hostilities with Great Britain till the conclusion of the peace of Amiens, have already been mentioned in this work.

After the peace of Amiens, Spain, under the direction of Manuel Godoy, styled the Prince of the Peace, from his having negotiated the peace with the French republic, still continued obsequiously subservient to the views of France, under the government of Napoleon, who drew from that country large sums of money, for the prosecution of his ambitious views. To prevent this, England intercepted some frigates that were conveying to Spain a quantity of treasure from South America; of which, it was evident, a great part would be transmitted to France. A war in consequence took place between the countries. But at length the ruler of France, elate with his success over the Prussians and their allies, formed an iniquitous scheme of usurpation. He resolved to transfer the crown of Spain to his own family; and, under the pretence of dismembering the Portuguese realm, some portions of which he promised to the minister Godoy and his feeble sovereign, he procured the royal assent, in October 1807, to the admission of an army which should march through Spain with the native troops. By acceding to this base compact, Charles evinced both weakness and treachery, and deprived himself of all claim to the sympathy of Europe. About 25,000 French infantry and 3000 cavalry soon appeared on the south-western side of the Pyrenees, and marched into Portugal with the flower of the Spanish army, under the command of Marshal Junot, who assured the regent that his sole object was to assist the people in shaking off the yoke of Great Britain. While the invaders were employed in overawing the court of Lisbon, 40,000 more of Napoleon's soldiers were introduced, with the consent or connivance of Charles, into Catalonia and Navarre, and additional troops quickly followed. Barcelona and other strong towns were garrisoned by these pretended friends of the Spaniards, and their leader Murat prepared them for the most atrocious acts, to which, indeed, they required little persuasion. That the emigration of the royal family might leave the throne open to a usurper, he endeavoured to work upon the fears of the Spanish monarch; and Charles was ready to fall into the snare, and fly to his transatlantic dominions, if his subjects of every class had not signified their strong disapprobation of his intended retreat. Ferdinand, the heir apparent of the crown, having for some time been at variance with his father, chiefly in consequence of the arts and intrigues of Godoy, listened to the suggestions

ambassador, and, instead of trimonial offer proposed by the in alliance with the family of f France. This conduct gave the court; and the artifices of resentative fanned the flame of ult at the seat of government, notions, which led to the impri- hated minister Godoy, terrified resignation, the consequence of elevation of his son to the h 1808, by the style of Ferdinand not the particular change at n aimed; and to annul it was mmediate object of Murat, who promote the iniquitous views of f his own life had depended on the scheme of invasion. He ior prince to resume his autho- name, he acted as administrator The new king, meanwhile, was uler of France, under the mask to repair to the frontiers, that ween him and his father might ted by the arguments and arbi- endly potentate. He complied t, and was detained at Bayonne iemy, who also prevailed upon idertake the same imprudent consequence was such as might n foreseen by all who were not ulity. Both the father and the led or intimidated into an abso- ent of their pretensions to the o a transfer of it to any indi- ie encroaching Napoleon might te. Alarmed at the prospect of he Spaniards roused themselves ming apathy, and resolved to tended usurpation; a resolve still stronger after the perpetra- ble massacre at Madrid by the t. They accordingly organized nistrative councils in the chief name of Ferdinand, whom, in f his father's abdication, they heir lawful sovereign: but the een reduced to such a state of inefficiency by the neglect of nt of the public service, during unworthy and even treacherous only a disordered government, ary, and the shadow of an army, prospect did not, however, dis- ople: they trusted to the mag- national resources, to their own iotism, and to the assistance reason to expect from some of at were inimical to France. ns for aid were successful only ; for Great Britain alone was y to comply with their urgent Hostilities arose in different irregular assembly at Bayonne, mid or treacherous Spaniards, French influence, voted for a grant of the sovereignty of their country to Joseph Bonaparte, a man estimable in his private character, but who had no other pretensions to the throne than those which he derived from the cannon and bayonets of his brother.

The patriots were successful in their early operations, more particularly in the affair of Baylen. With such effect did they harass Dupont, that they compelled him, after a spirited conflict, to surrender himself and all his troops. They also baffled the views of the enemy at Saragossa, which, though it could scarcely be termed a fortified post, was defended by extraordinary exertions of courage and zeal, with great loss on both sides. But, Napoleon having poured an overwhelming force into the country, the French, soon after, met with such success as flattered him with the hope of establishing his brother Joseph on the Spanish throne. They defeated General Blake at Reynosa, and dispersed his army; they routed, near Tudela, the troops which Castanos led into the field; and re-opened to the usurper the possession of Madrid, from which he had retired in a moment of consternation.

Sir John Moore, meanwhile, had been advancing with the British army, from Portugal to Salamanca. In the hope of drawing off the enemy from the Spaniards, he now advanced with 29,000 men to attack Marshal Soult; but the arrival of intelligence that the French armies were concentrating against him from all quarters, quickly induced him to retreat with accelerated movements. In the disorderly march which ensued, a great number perished by cold, fatigue, and famine; and, when the rest of the army reached Corunna, a battle, in January, 1809, became unavoidable, before an embarkation could be attempted. Soult, whose force had been so far augmented as to give him the advantage over his opponents, ordered an attack in dense columns, one of which seemed likely to make a serious impression upon the British right, when Sir John Moore had been carried off the field mortally wounded; but the troops, not discouraged, frustrated every attempt to force their position. The centre and left also repelled the impetuous foe, with few pieces of artillery, and without the aid of cavalry, inflicting a loss considerably greater than that which they suffered in the battle: yet, from the commencement of the march, to that embarkation which immediately followed the repulse of the French, it is supposed that the British loss did not fall short of 7000 men. A greater misfortune than this would not, however, have paralyzed the zeal of the English government; and, therefore, the Spaniards did not long remain unassisted. Although it was the mistaken opinion of the unfortunate general, that they were so destitute of patriotic zeal, as to be absolutely unworthy of aid or support, the ministers resolved not to neglect the prosecution of the new war. Preparations were made for another expedition to

the peninsula, even while the French were triumphing in the acquisition of various provinces, and eagerly endeavouring to create, among their opponents, an impression of being too powerful to be resisted; while, in the language of Colonel Jones, "a half-starved disorganized band, with some fugitive corps in La Mancha and Estremadura, formed the only remaining military force of Spain; and while the number of the enemy, spread over the country, fell little short of 200,000 men."

At this crisis the exertions of some of the Spanish generals restored order to a part of the dispersed troops, re-embodied the patriotic force, and checked the progress of the French detachments. But the prospect was still gloomy; and the enemy proved victorious in the battles of Medellin and Ciudad-Real, and made dreadful havoc among the heroic defenders of Saragossa, which city was taken after a second siege, but not till a large part of it had been destroyed by bombs and mines. Sir Arthur Wellesley at length appeared in Spain with a considerable army; and he concerted, with the Spanish general Cuesta, a plan of operations, by which it was hoped that the metropolis would be recovered, and other important advantages obtained.

Both armies advanced against Marshal Victor, not expecting that he would immediately be reinforced; but that commander, aware of the intentions of the hostile generals, readily augmented the number of his troops, and moved forward so expeditiously, that Cuesta took fright, and retreated to the Alberche. In the meantime, Sir Arthur, having judiciously arranged his force, awaited an assault with a firm countenance. After a partial action, the French brought up their whole force on the 28th of July, and the infantry made a fierce attack upon the British line, while the cavalry paraded in the rear, with a view of completing the victory by an overwhelming charge on that point which might be first penetrated. But the resistance was so spirited, that no opportunity of making a decisive impression was offered to the eager wishes of the enemy. A furious charge which was made upon the left, supposed to be the key of the British position, was repelled, yet not without the ruin of a regiment of light dragoons. In other parts of the line, the most strenuous efforts of the French were checked by the same determined spirit, and, baffled at all points, they at length resigned the field to their opponents. Had Cuesta done his duty, the victory would have been more decisive. About 9500 of the French lost their lives or were wounded; and almost 6000 of the confederates suffered, according to the English and Spanish narratives of the engagement. As an enormous force was now advancing against them, the British troops retired toward the frontiers of Portugal; while the French re-advanced with a renovated force, routed a numerous army of the patriots in New *Castile*, and defeated a still greater host in the same province. In Aragon, likewise, the Spaniards were enfeebled by disastrous conflicts; in Catalonia they suffered great loss in the obstinate defence of Gerona; and, in Leon, the last battle of the year seemed dreadfully ominous to those advocates of the Spanish cause who were prone to despondency; for the troops displayed so little firmness or spirit, that they were broken by the first charge of cavalry, and fled in consternation.

In the mean time, a supreme council, which had been formed by a delegation of two members from the junta of each province, administered the affairs of the realm with some degree of prudence, but not with that energy which the crisis required. The public, therefore, loudly called for a convocation of the cortes, or that popular general assembly which had been so long discontinued, that it seemed to have been nearly consigned to oblivion. A proclamation was reluctantly issued for that purpose by the rulers of the kingdom; and the people, apparently satisfied, acquiesced in the prolonged sway of the constituted authorities.

The campaign of the year 1810 threatened to be more disastrous to the Spaniards than it ultimately proved. As the French had triumphantly closed the war with Austria, they had a greater disposable force; and their arrogant master did not scruple to pledge himself for the speedy expulsion of the English from the peninsula. Having taken some strong towns in the province of Leon, Marshal Massena invaded Portugal; and, as Lord Wellington deemed it more particularly expedient to watch the enemy in that kingdom, the Spaniards were left for a time to their own exertions.

It was at this time that the guerilla branch of the war commenced, which the French affected to deride, while they were severely harassed by the alertness of the various parties that scoured the country, and skilfully eluded pursuit. When the enemy overran Andalusia, Cadiz was opportunely secured against intrusion, and became the chief seat of power, being in vain besieged or blockaded. The supreme junta being thought too numerous for an executive body, five distinguished persons were invested with the regency; and the vigour of the government seemed thus to be augmented. In the autumn, the cortes assembled; and the majority soon displayed a very popular spirit. Various reforms were proposed, with a view of preparing the nation for the enjoyment of freedom; but the intended gift was coolly received by an ignorant and priest-ridden people.

From the increasing strength, or the more resolute exertions of the enemy, the Spaniards suffered greater loss and injury, in 1811, than they had sustained the preceding year. Their British and Portuguese associates, indeed, under the command of Sir William Beresford, boldly supported their cause at Albuera, by the defeat of Marshal Soult, 7000 of whose men were killed, wounded, or captured; but this battle did more honour to the courage of the

the skill of the general, and the scarcely less loss than the van- al Graham also triumphed over at Barrosa; but these advan- ly purchased, and produced no t, while, on the contrary, the murderous assault of Tarragona on of Valencia, obtained a com- over the whole eastern coast.

ton, who had been reinforced, t campaign with an important sted Ciudad-Rodrigo with a full of reducing it, unless the loss ttend the progress of the siege emely severe. He confounded he astonishing celerity of his amidst the rigours of winter, ress by storm. The capture of thought equally necessary, he hree weeks, and then assaulted success. Encouraged by these marched in the summer against in Leon, and engaged Marmont . There was no great disparity r side; but, in point of position, as on the side of the French. hardly-contested and sanguin- movement, made by Marmont, dvantage to the British, and o crush the whole of his left flict, however, was long con- ght and centre; but they were and night alone saved them n. Twelve thousand of the in or made prisoners. After drid and Seville were re-taken, d from blockade, and the whole is recovered; but the British he siege of Burgos, and Lord even obliged to fall back upon tiers. As this disappointment opinion of the cortes, detract which the general had esta- ictory at Salamanca, they in- h the chief command of the romising that at least 50,000 ready, not merely to appear in with determined vigour; and, n empire felt the effects of the to Russia, there was a great speedy and complete recovery

oining the disposable Spanish n (British, German subsidia- guese) composed that army atonments in the spring of the e, in the first instance, the pas- ro. The whole of the move- purpose were effective; all the s were turned in succession, d untenable, and the imperial ly driven far beyond the Ebro. e allies were elevated by the appeared among the usurper's as resolved that an attempt o bring them to a decisive con- flict. The desired opportunity presented itself in the environs of Vittoria. An attack was made, on the 21st of June, by the British right, which dislodged a strong corps from a mountainous post, and, eagerly prosecuting the advantage, stormed a village, the loss of which deprived the hostile centre of its chief support. This division was then assaulted, and quickly driven in disorder toward the city. The rest of the engagement was a spirited contest for various positions; and the result was a signal victory on the part of the assailants. About 8000 of the French were killed, wounded, or made prisoners, and the remains of their army fled in consternation toward the Pyrenees. All the baggage and artillery of the vanquished fell into the hands of the allies. When farther success had attended the British arms, and when the troops of the chief continental princes were marching to Paris, Napoleon, making a virtue of necessity, accommodated all disputes with Ferdinand, and permitted him to return to Spain.

The conduct of the restored king excited general surprise and disgust. Instead of testifying his gratitude for the zeal of the cortes, and the faithful services of his people, he denied the legality of the assembly, and extended over all ranks the rigours of despotism. He annulled the constitution which the cortes had prepared, alleging that it violated the rights of the crown, and tended to encourage popular licentiousness; and he imprisoned and harassed some of the leading members, as if they had been audacious democrats or vile incendiaries. He gave his confidence to priests and inquisitors, and acted more like the narrow-minded ruler of a monastery than the politic sovereign of a great kingdom. An insurrection, to which his misgovernment exposed him, was quickly suppressed, because it was partial and ill-concerted; he put to death some, and exiled others of its leaders—men who had fought to replace the crown upon his unworthy head; and he continued his former career, without reflecting on the odium which would necessarily attend it. While he affected to admire that display of British courage and military skill, which had contributed to the preservation of his crown, he threw out illiberal insinuations against the heretical soldiery, whose inattention to forms and ceremonies had shocked his pious subjects; and he requited the zealous aid of our government and nation, by diminishing the facilities and conveniences of commerce. He pretended to join in the new league against the ambitious prince of Elba, but did not promote, even in the smallest degree, the success of the renovated war. A tyrant more base or more perfidious never disgraced a throne.

For some years, the king viewed with great anxiety the progress of that revolt in his South-American colonies, which commenced when he was a captive in France. He made repeated attempts to interest the regent of Great Britain and other princes in the cause of order and

regular government, alleging that it was the duty of every court to oppose the disorganizing spirit of democratic insurgents: but they heard his complaints with indifference, and coolly left him to his own exertions. He was on the point of sending out an army, in the vain hope of reclaiming or subduing the revolters, when, on the 1st of January, 1820, some battalions stationed near Cadiz, detesting his arbitrary spirit, confined the officers who refused to join them in an insurrection, and called for a representative government. While the insurrection was rapidly spreading, a horrible massacre was perpetrated at Cadiz, by the treacherous cruelty of the royal party; but it rather promoted than checked the views of Colonel Riego and other popular leaders, to whose dictates the king was obliged to submit. The cortes met on the 9th of July, and undertook the task of reform; but their proceedings gave such disgust to the haughty members of the holy continental confederacy, that, when the Austrians had re-adjusted, according to the emperor's discretion, the affairs of Naples and Piedmont, the French, in 1823, invaded Spain with similar views, and, in the manner which we have stated in our history of France, restored Ferdinand to the exercise of arbitrary power. For many years subsequently he acted in the most tyrannical manner, disregarding the true interest of his country, violating all law, severely punishing suspected malcontents, and constraining many of his most respectable subjects, by the influence of terror, to seek in England an asylum from his brutality.

In 1829, Ferdinand married Christina, a daughter of Francis I., king of Naples, by whom, in the following year, he had a daughter, who received the name of Maria Isabella. The birth of this child was productive of important consequences. The ancient law of Spain allowed the succession of females to the crown, but it was arbitrarily abolished by Philip V., who substituted the Salic law in its place. In 1830, however, Ferdinand revived the ancient law, and thus opened for his daughter the way to the throne. Don Carlos, his brother, was the presumptive heir. This death-blow to his expectations was not patiently submitted to by Don Carlos, who, more despotic and bigotted, if possible, than Ferdinand, was at the head of a formidable faction. In 1833, Ferdinand was supposed to be at the point of death, and his ministers, to gain the favour of Don Carlos, obtained from the unconscious monarch his signature to a decree, by which the Salic law was re-established. Recovering on the next day, the king dismissed his treacherous ministers, and annulled the decree which had been surreptitiously obtained from him. Illness seemed to have softened his nature, for he granted something like a general amnesty, re-opened the universities, and took some other steps which were of a more praiseworthy kind than had been usual with him. Whether the change would have been a permanent one, is a point which death prevented from being ascertained; as he died of an apoplectic stroke, on the 29th September, 1833.

In pursuance of the will of Ferdinand, the queen assumed the government, as regent, during the minority of her daughter. She assembled the cortes, and that body unanimously passed a bill, by which Don Carlos was excluded from the throne. The queen regent, as has been stated under the head of "Government," had previously granted to the country a sort of constitution. It was, however, anything but satisfactory to the majority of the Spanish people; and she was at length compelled to submit to the re-establishment of the constitution of 1812, with some improvements.

The death of Ferdinand was the signal for the partisans of Don Carlos to rise in arms. Among his warmest and most valuable adherents were the people of the Biscayan provinces;—not that they had any abstract love of his person or principles, but because they dreaded that the loss of their ancient fueros, or privileges, would be a consequence of the new order of things. His forces were commanded by several able officers, of whom Zumalacarregui was the most eminent. In 1835, however, he was killed before Bilbao. In the early part of the war, the contest was carried on with horrible barbarity, the prisoners being almost uniformly slaughtered in cold blood. By the exertions of England, a convention was at length agreed to, by which the contending parties promised that the laws of war should in future be observed. Notwithstanding this, those laws were too frequently violated.

For several years the conflict was maintained in several of the provinces; but especially in Biscay, Guipuscoa, and Navarre. Even with the aid of an auxiliary legion of 8000 men, which was raised in England, and commanded by General De Lacy Evans, it was as much as the queen's forces could do to maintain their ground; they frequently sustained severe repulses, and a wide extent of country was overrun by the enemy. It was not till 1839 that General Espartero succeeded in pacifying the Basque provinces by his successes, and by the convention of Bergara, which was signed on the 31st of August. Cabrera, one of Don Carlos's generals, continued to maintain his ground in Catalonia and Valencia, till September 1840, when his army was broken up, and he was under the necessity of taking refuge in France. This event terminated the civil war.

The sword was scarcely sheathed before the peace of Spain was disturbed by insidious attacks upon its newly-recovered liberty. An administration was formed, which was obviously designed to arrest the further progress of liberal ideas. It had contrived to obtain a majority in the cortes, and one of its acts was to obtain from that body a law which destroyed all the rights of the municipal corporations. Of those rights the Spaniards, even under a despotic government, have always been re-

acious. The result was the refusal ipality of Madrid to promulgate s law, and the municipality was the troops of the line, and the capital. In a few days the vic- l, Espartero, also declared against and called for the dismissal of nd the dissolution of the cortes. consequence, dismissed the ob- stry. She, soon after, resigned r, and sailed to Marseilles, in e issued a declaration, declaring n to have been voluntary. The w convoked, which elected Espar- regent; the guardianship of the was confided to the patriotic 1 October, 1841, an attempt was dowager queen to recover her mpeluna was seized by General e of her partisans; insurrections n various quarters; and at Madrid s attacked by General Leon, with number of troops, for the pur- ing possession of Queen Isabella. ad desperate struggle, the assail- iace were defeated, and Leon was hot; the insurrections were sup- Pampeluna was recovered. In f this outbreak, the payment of na's pension has been suspended. owever, intriguing to effect her rently with the concurrence of at the commencement of this nounced that her partisans were werful effort in her favour; but either been abandoned or post- pain, at the present moment, ssings of peace.

n of Spain is Maria Isabella II., 10th, 1830, and proclaimed at er 2nd, 1833.

PUBLIC OF ANDORRA.

roceed to describe the western rian peninsula, we must call the ion to a diminutive and singu- state, which has generally been geographers. This petty state, which is surrounded by two great monarchies, is the republic of Andorra. It lies on the southern side of the Pyrenees, between Catalonia and the French department of the Arriege, and consists chiefly of two valleys, watered by the Ordino and the Balira, which join the Segro at Urgel. The pass through which the Balira forces its way is the only entrance into this territory, which is completely encircled with mountains, some of which rise to an elevation of between 7000 and 8000 feet. A very small portion of the republic is on the northern side of the Pyrenees, in the upper part of the valley of the Arriege. The highest peaks are those of Astagnou, Port de Seguier, and Fortargente; the first of which has a height of nearly 10,000 feet, and the others little less. Though the whole of Andorra is mountainous, and not fertile, it has fine forests, excellent pasturages, and, in the vales, some arable land, and even vineyards. The Andorrans exchange their cattle, sheep, mules, and iron, for grain, and other articles of which they stand in need. They speak the Catalan dialect, and are all Catholics. Andorra is said to have been independent from the time of Charlemagne. It is under the protection of France and the bishop of Urgel. The government is carried on by a sovereign council of 24 consuls, chosen for life by the people, which elects a president, called a Syndic, who exercises the executive authority. The administration of justice is in the hands of two viguiers, each of whom appoints a bayle, or substitute, to decide in civil cases. The criminal tribunal consists of the two viguiers, the judge of civil appeal, and two members of the sovereign council, but the decision belongs to the viguiers alone, and, in case of their differing, the judge of civil appeal has a casting vote. Every citizen from 16 to 60 bears arms, and each commune has a captain, nominated annually by the sovereign council. There are no paid public functionaries, and the imposts are few and trifling. The republic is divided into six communes, named from their principal places; and, besides those places, contains 34 hamlets. The total population is about 18,000, of whom 2800 reside in Andorra, the capital.

PORTUGAL.

known to the ancients by the nia, derived by the mythologists e son of Bacchus, who is said a colony in that country. The of Portugal is allowed to be ale, the ancient name of Oporto, on of Porto, or port, on account ce of its harbour. In the 11th me was extended to the whole

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length,	350	between	37. and 42. N. lat.
Breadth,	120		6. 9. and 15. W. long.

Containing 37,900 square miles, with about 94 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.—It is bounded by Spain on the north and east, and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean, being the most westerly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

DIVISIONS.—By the longitudinal form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts, which contain six provinces. In the northern division are those of Entre Douro e Minho, and Tras os Montes; in the middle portion are Beira and Estremadura; and, in the southern, Alentejo and Algarve. Beira is now divided into Upper and Lower. These provinces contain a population of 3,549,420 souls. Each province consists of several comarcas, or districts, to the number of 44 in the whole kingdom. It is in contemplation to make a new arrangement, by which Portugal will be divided into eleven provinces—Upper and Lower Minho, Tras os Montes, Upper, Lower, and Maritime Beira, Upper and Lower Estremadura, Upper and Lower Alentejo, and Algarve; Madeira will form a twelfth province. The total number of comarcas will be 26, and each comarca will consist of several cantons.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY—MOUNTAINS.—The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for the mountains are generally barren; the chief are those which divide Algarve from Alentejo; those of Tras os Montes; Arrabida and Monte-junto in Estremadura; Estrella in Beira; Ossa in Alentejo; and Cintra, about five leagues south-west of Lisbon, well known to navigators as being the most westerly part of the continent of Europe. The cape contiguous to it, at the mouth of the Tajo, is called the rock of Cintra, or of Lisbon. On a chain of heights, which, several miles from Lisbon, crosses the peninsula formed by the sea and the Tagus, were situated the impregnable lines of Torres Vedras, where the duke of Wellington held at bay the formidable army of Marshal Massena.

FORESTS.—Portugal contains few forests; but there is one which is very extensive, beginning at Marinha Grande, about 57 miles from Lisbon, consisting almost entirely of pine-trees, which used to afford all the timber that was required for ship-building.

RIVERS—LAKES—MINERAL WATERS.—The Tagus, or Tajo, was anciently celebrated for its golden sand. It has its source in the mountains of Molina, near the borders of Aragon; whence it runs for the most part to the west, till it reaches Lisbon, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean, after traversing, in the whole of its course, 450 miles, of which 150 are in Portugal and the remainder in Spain. This river annually overflows its banks as regularly as the Nile, particularly about Villa Franca and Santarem, so as to render the soil exceedingly fertile. The Minho and the Douro are the boundaries of the province of Entre Douro e Minho. The Mondego, which is the largest river that has its rise in Portugal, has its source in the Sierra Estrella, and falls into the Atlantic. Portugal contains several small lakes and springs, some of which are said, though the fact is doubtful, to absorb even the lightest *substances*, such as wood, cork, and feathers. *The baths* called Caldas da Rainha, about 45 miles from Lisbon, are medicinal and sanative; and some hot baths are found in the little kingdom or rather province of Algarve.

METALS—MINERALS.—This country appears to have been as celebrated in ancient times for its gold and silver mines as South America is at present; but no mines of these metals are now worked. There are lead-mines which yield silver, at Mursa and Lamego, and there is a mine of copper at Elvas. The iron-mines are well known, but are neglected for want of fuel, though coal has been found in different parts. Portugal produces beautiful marble, almost every kind of precious stones, and indeed minerals of every description.

CLIMATE — SOIL — AGRICULTURE.—Though Portugal is one of the smallest countries in Europe, its climate is very various in different parts; in the northern provinces it is comparatively cool, in the middle and near the sea temperate, and in the southern hot, and subject to droughts. The air, especially about Lisbon, is reckoned soft and beneficial to consumptive patients; it is not so scorching as that of Spain, being tempered by the sea-breezes.

The soil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, especially in corn; and agriculture is greatly neglected. According to the best information, two thirds of the kingdom are at present left untilled, and the portion that is under vines, olives, corn, pulse, wood, &c., is not in general in that state of improvement of which it is susceptible.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—Fruit of every kind known in Europe, and particularly oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, grapes, apricots, peaches, almonds, and melons, grow here in many places almost spontaneously: in general, however, they are not so highly flavoured as those of Spain. The Portuguese wines, when old and genuine, are esteemed to be very friendly to the human constitution.

ANIMALS.—These are nearly the same as in Spain. The horses are few, and of an inferior breed; but the mules are strong, hardy, and surefooted. The sheep are not very numerous. Large herds of swine are found in various parts of the country, the flesh of which, as they feed chiefly on grass and acorns, has an excellent flavour; whence the Portuguese hams are preferred in most parts of Europe to those of other countries.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—These consist principally of the lakes already mentioned, and some extraordinary caverns. In the province of Tras os Montes, at a place called San Miguel das tres Minhas, are three immense mines, generally supposed to have been worked by the Romans. The mouth of the largest, which has been cut through the solid rock, is a mile and a half in circumference, and above 500 feet in depth. At the bottom it is 2400 feet in length, and 1400 in breadth. Near this is another of great dimensions, and a third in an

on, called Covas, the length of eet, the breadth 1300, and the lake of Escura, on the summit in of Estrella, is of a depth rtained: its water is of a dark- id it has never been known to ny kind. Fragments of the it is said, have been found in it; been supposed to have a sub- nunication with the sea, not- s inland situation. It is added, n of this conjecture, that it is ated as the sea is tranquil or in stormy weather it makes a , which may be heard at the y miles. These stories, how- tly exaggerations, if not fables. vent or hermitage, at Cintra, nay be called both a natural ariosity. It has subterranean ich receive light from holes cut rocks, and are lined with cork, st humidity; but the church, apter-house, are built over the cells are occupied by twenty its, of the order of St. Francis, nost abstemious and temperate

how to describe to you," says strange beauties of Cintra. It e beautiful than sublime; more beautiful: yet I never beheld alculated to fill the mind with delight. This immense rock, s in part covered with scanty rts, it rises into conical hills, immense stones, and piled so all the machinery of deluges nust fail to satisfy the inquiry Nearly at the base stands the and its palace, an old irregular chimneys, each shaped like a it the abundance of wood forms ng feature in this retreat from summer. The houses of the n scattered on the ascent, half t trees, elms, oaks, hazels, wal- nuts, and the rich green of the On one of the mountain emi- he Penha convent, visible from Lisbon. On another are the ish castle, and a cistern within kept always full by a spring of er that rises in it. From this ye stretches over a bare and untry to Lisbon, on the one e other, to the distant convent Atlantic bounding the greater ospect. I cannot, without a ness, describe the ever-varying the many eminences of this nt, or the little green lanes, lering lemon-gardens the even- so cool and rich."

HARACTER — MANNERS — Cus- dern Portuguese retain *little of* that adventurous, enterprising spirit which rendered their forefathers so illustrious 300 years ago. They have, ever since the House of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues, though some noble exceptions are still remaining among them. Treachery, ingratitude, an intemperate passion for revenge, and other bad qualities, have been imputed to them: among the lower people thieving is too commonly practised; and all ranks are accused of being unfair in their dealings, especially with strangers.

The Portuguese are neither so tall nor so well made as the Spaniards, whose habits and customs they imitate; only persons of quality affect to be more gaily and richly dressed. The ladies are thin and small of stature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes are black and expressive, and their features generally regular. They are esteemed to be generous, modest, and witty. They dress like the Spanish ladies, with much awkwardness and affected gravity, and are very fond of dark mantles and veils. They are taught by their husbands to exact from their servants a homage that is paid, in other countries, only to royal personages; yet many, on the other hand, treat their domestics with great familiarity. The furniture of the houses, especially of the grandees, is rich and superb to excess; and they maintain a great number of domestics, as they rarely discharge any who survive after serving their progenitors. The poorer sort have scarcely any furniture at all; for they, in imitation of the Moors, sit cross-legged on the ground. The Portuguese peasant has reaped little advantage, except a few golden trinkets for the female part of his family, from the benefits of foreign trade and of colonial possessions. Almost the only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and, when his feeble purse can reach it, he purchases a dried Newfoundland cod; but this is a regale which he seldom obtains. Some bread made of Indian corn, rice, and a salted pilchard, or a head of garlic, or grains of aniseseed, to give that bread a flavour, compose his standing dish; and if he can get a piece of the hog, the ox, or the calf, which he himself fattens, to regale his wretched family at Christmas or Easter, he has reached the pinnacle of happiness in this world.

To these remarks we shall subjoin those of Mr. Murphy, and Mrs. Baillie. "The common people of Lisbon and its environs," says the former, "are a laborious and hardy race. It is painful to see the trouble they are obliged to take for want of proper implements to carry on their work. Their cars have the rude appearance of the earliest ages; these vehicles are slowly drawn by two stout oxen. The corn is shelled by the treading of the same animals. They have many other customs which to us appear very singular: for example, women sit with the left side toward the horse's head when they ride. A postilion rides on the left *horse*. A tailor sits at his work like a shoe-

maker. A hair-dresser appears on Sundays with a sword, a cockade, and two watches—at least two watch-chains. A tavern is known by a vine-bush, a house to be let by a piece of blank paper, the door of an accoucheur by a white cross, and a Jew by his extra-catholic devotion. A Portuguese peasant will not walk with a superior, an aged person, or a stranger, without giving him the right-hand side, as a mark of respect. He never passes by a human being without taking off his hat, and saluting him in these words—'The Lord preserve you for many years!' In speaking of an absent friend he always says, 'I die with impatience to see him.' They all imagine that their country is the blessed Elysium, and that Lisbon is the greatest city in the world."

Mrs. Baillie, a more recent traveller than Mr. Murphy, agrees with him as to the courtesy of the peasants, and the awkwardness of Portuguese mechanics. With respect to the peasants, she says, "I delight in them; they are really a fine race of people. The peasantry seem remarkably civil to those above them, without any exhibition of crouching servility; a muletecr or a postilion who happens to meet you in a narrow pass, will almost always take care to annoy you as little as possible." Of the progress of the Portuguese in the useful arts, she gives a less favourable picture. "We are," says she, "more and more amazed, the longer we remain in this country, at that ignorance, or at least that superficial knowledge of the commonest arts, which exists among the Portuguese. A carpenter here is the awkwardest and most clumsy artisan that can be imagined, spoiling every work he attempts. The way in which the doors and other woodwork belonging even to good houses are finished, would really have suited the rudest ages! Their carriages of all kinds, more particularly their waggons and carts, their agricultural implements and management, their cutlery, locks and keys, &c., are ludicrously bad. Their soil, rich and fertile, their climate so favourable to the growth of all vegetation, seem in a great measure to be lost upon them."

Chief Towns—Edifices.—Lisbon, which has a spacious and safe harbour, and a population of 260,000, is situated near the mouth of the Tagus, on seven hills, and contains many grand and stately edifices, among which one of the principal is the patriarchal church. The treasures of sacred relics, gold, silver, precious stones, and costly furniture of this venerable structure, are immense. The royal palace of Ajuda, when it is completed, will be one of the finest in Europe. The square called Praça do Comercio, is 615 feet long, and 550 broad; in the centre is a noble equestrian statue of bronze, of Joseph I. A church built by the late queen, is the largest and most magnificent edifice erected in Lisbon since the earthquake in 1755. The Portuguese, in some measure, availed themselves of this misfortune, and, like *the English*, after the fire of 1666, turned the temporary evil into a permanent good. All the streets subsequently formed in Lisbon are capacious, regular, and well paved, with convenient foot-paths, as in the streets of London. In point of cleanliness, Lisbon, though somewhat improved, is still a subject of animadversion to strangers; it still wants common sewers, pipe-water, and other conveniences. Mrs. Baillie thus forcibly describes the filthiness of Lisbon. "Where shall I find words strong enough to express the disgust of my feelings, when I reflect upon the appearance of this city in the aggregate, taking into account the personal appearance and customs of some of its inhabitants! Here, every sort of impurity seems to be collected together. You are suffocated by the steams of fried fish, rancid oil, garlic, &c., at every turn, mingled with the fœtid effluvia of decayed vegetables, stale provisions, and other horrors which it is impossible to mention—to say nothing of the filthy dogs, of whom I have formerly spoken. Wretches of a lower and more squalid appearance than the most sordid denizens of our St. Giles's, lie basking in the sun, near the heaps of impurity collected at the doors, while young women, (and these of a more prepossessing personal appearance, from whom one would naturally expect greater delicacy in the olfactory nerves,) hang far out of the windows above, as if they were trying purposely to inhale the pestilence which contaminates the air beneath! Men and women, children and pigs, dogs, cats, goats, diseased poultry, and skeleton hogs, all mingle together in loving fellowship, each equally enjoying what seems to be their mutual element—dirt! I must beg you to add to this, that the armies of fleas, bugs, mosquitoes, and other vermin, are too numerous to be conceived even in idea, and the picture will be complete." Again, after adverting to the fragrance of the flowers, she adds, "There are other scents also, which every evening, after sunset, begin to arise from each house in the vicinity. It is a very hazardous and dangerous indulgence to stand in the projecting balconies of the lower windows during the brief twilight. In any other country you might flatter yourself that now was the hour to enjoy the reviving influence of the pure breeze from the river; but here your only safe or agreeable resource lies in shutting out every breath of outward air, unless you would run the risk of inhaling the most pestilential effluvia. Dogs of every shade and gradation of the mongrel breed, lank, lean, filthy, and voracious, lie about the streets in all directions, and in the most alarming numbers. The inhabitants of Lisbon maintain no other scavengers."

The church and monastery of Belem, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are very magnificent. They were constructed by King Emmanuel. The chapel of St. Roche is probably one of the finest and richest in the world: the paintings are mosaic work, so curiously wrought with stones of all colours as to astonish the

he parement is also wrought in the pillars are blocks of jasper, , Egyptian granite, lapis-lazuli, . The doors are of brass, exqui- it and gilt; and the altar is com- -lazuli and amethyst, round which d margin.

19 miles west from Lisbon, is a magnificent structure, erected by consequence of a vow which he a dangerous illness, to found a r the poorest friars in his king- designed to rival the Escurial, a palace and a church with the undation, built of white marble. by a grand flight of steps, leading which is decorated with twelve ies of saints. The interior of the idsome; the cupola is encrusted tments of marble, beautifully over the numerous altars, instead are well-executed sculptures in the monastic part of the building the dimensions of which are 20 When Napoleon's troops were in Lisbon, they profaned this edifice, mwell's soldiers did the English y making use of it for barracks. of this gigantic pile also distin- elf by the erection of a stupendous lcantara, which collects a number m different heights, about three Lisbon, and conveys their joint veral leagues, (in one part over a lofty arches, some of them 230 a large reservoir, near the north- mity of Lisbon. The architect de Maya. Near Aljubarota, in is the Dominican monastery of called from that battle which rown to John I. The church is its architectural beauty, for the egance of its columns and arches, proportions of the open or trans-

In the same province the Cister- Alcobaça was an object of admira- 1811, it was reduced to a ruinous rutality of the French invaders.

city in this kingdom is Oporto, built and finely situated, but by ong. The chief article of com- city is wine. The merchants as- in the chief street, to transact are protected from the sun by ing across from the opposite town has a romantic appearance, radually rising, one row above steep hill, near the mouth of the affords a tolerable harbour and a ome manufactures, particularly and hats, are carried on by the the southern bank of the river towns, Gaya and Villa-Nova, sidered as the suburbs of Oporto, posed, with the city itself, to inhabitants.

Coimbra, the seat of a university, founded by King Diniz, stands on a mountain near the Mondego, in a district abounding with vines and olive-trees. The approach to this town is one of the finest in Portugal. The view of the city and the mountainous distances around, with the Mondego winding through the richest country, is presented from an opposite height. The road then descends in a serpentine direction, leading through an olive-grove to a fine stone bridge, by which you pass into the streets of Coimbra. The buildings cover a mountain, from its very summit down to the water's edge; and the quintas, among the surrounding groves, extend for several miles. It is not so populous as its magnitude or importance might induce us to expect; for not more than 15,000 persons reside within its walls or in the suburbs. Braga and Evora have nearly the same number. Elvas is a well-built frontier town, in a mountainous situation, distinguished by the strength of its fortifications.

MANUFACTURES—COMMERCE.—The Portuguese exports consist of Port, Lisbon, and Calcavella wine, oil, oranges and lemons, wool, salt, tanned hides, vinegar, cork, shumac, and leather. Their chief imports are colonial produce, cotton, woollen and linen goods, hardware, earthenware, corn, rice, butter, cheese, dried fish, timber, deals, hemp and flax. Some progress has recently been made in the useful arts and manufactures, but they are still in a state of infancy. They make a little linen, and some coarse silk and woollen, with a variety of straw-work; they also make earthenware and glass, and are skilful in masonry and ship-building. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations, trading with her, engross the productions of her colonies, and also her native commodities, in exchange for the numerous manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the North American states. The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, of great value. These are the isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores, beside extensive though not very productive territories in Africa, and the scanty remains of oriental conquest.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, AND LAWS.—The Portuguese, like other nations of Gothic descent, had originally a free constitution; but, after the discontinuance of the meetings of the cortes, the government became as despotic as any in Europe. The people had no more share in the direction of public affairs, in the enactment of laws, or in the regulation of commerce, than they had in the government of Russia or China. Every man had no other alternative than to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerned himself, to the decrees and laws of the despot, as promulgated from time to time by his secretaries of state. How would an Englishman, alive to all the feelings of *civil liberty*, have trembled at reading the

preamble of every new law published in Portugal, which ran thus: "I, the king, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleasure, and of my full, supreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, do, in consequence, order and command," &c.

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, were disposed of in the council of state, which was composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulated all military affairs, as the treasury courts did the finances. The council of the palace was the highest tribunal that could receive appeals; but the Casa da Supplicaçao was a court from which no appeal could be brought.

In 1820, in consequence of a revolution at Lisbon, the Spanish constitution of 1812 was for a moment adopted. But a considerable part of the people disapproved of it, and the cortes, therefore, fabricated another, by which a representative body, sitting in one chamber, was established. The prerogatives of the monarch were much limited, and only a conditional veto, on the acts of the assembly, was granted to him. In 1823 this code was abolished by John VI., who subsequently attempted to restore the ancient constitution, and summon the cortes of Lamego; an attempt which was frustrated by the opposition of Ferdinand of Spain, who detested everything that bore the semblance of a representative government. In 1826, however, Don Pedro granted to the Portuguese a constitution with two chambers, one hereditary, the other elective; the elective chamber was elected by provincial electors, who were themselves elected by the primary assemblies of parishes. Before two years had elapsed it was overthrown by Don Miguel, who reigned as absolute sovereign till 1832, when he was compelled to quit the country, and the code of Don Pedro was again brought into action. Another change took place in 1836; when a successful insurrection at Lisbon gave birth to a new constitution, with two chambers, both elective, and restraining the right of voting to persons possessing an annual landed income of £20. This arrangement has, very recently, been in its turn subverted, and the charter of Don Pedro substituted in its stead.

The laws of Portugal are contained in three small volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation. Among the additions made to this groundwork, may be mentioned the code framed at Lamego, in 1145, called the Magna Charta of Portugal. By this code the crime of robbery was not to be punished with death before the fourth offence. Murder is a capital crime in the Portuguese law, as it ought to be deemed in every country; but, when it arises from revenge, the assassin is frequently, to the great disgrace of the government, suffered to escape with impunity. The clergy were formerly amenable *only to* the canon law; but, by an ordinance of the late queen, they were subjected to the laws which affect the laity.

Revenue, Army, and Navy.—The revenues of the crown, for the year 1841, are estimated at about £2,750,000 sterling, and the expenditure at a small fraction less. The public debt is about £16,000,000. With regard to the army and navy, the former consists of 21,560 infantry, 3680 cavalry, and 2232 artillery; the latter of 2 sail of the line, 4 frigates, 6 brigs, and some smaller craft.

Royal Titles.—The king's titles are King of Portugal and of Algarve, Lord of Guinea, and of the Conquest, Navigation, and Commerce, of Ethiopia, Arabia, and Persia. John V. was complimented, by the pope, with the designation of "His most Faithful Majesty."

Nobility and Orders.—The titles and distinctions of the nobility are nearly the same as those of Spain. The orders of knighthood are three: 1. That of Avis or Aviex, at first instituted by Alfonso Henriques, king of Portugal, in 1147, as a military and religious order, on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. 2. The order of St. James, instituted in 1310, and endowed with great privileges. The knights profess chastity, hospitality, and obedience; and only those are admitted candidates who can prove the gentility of their blood: their ensign is a red sword, the habit white. 3. The order of Christ was instituted in 1317, to engage the nobility to act with vigour against the Moors. The knights obtained great possessions, and elected their grand masters, till the year 1522, when Pope Adrian VI. conferred that office on John III. and his successors. These orders have small commanderies and revenues annexed to them.

Religion.—Popery is the established religion of Portugal, but other creeds are tolerated. The Portuguese have a patriarch; but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, except when a quarrel subsisted between the courts of Rome and Lisbon. The power of his holiness in Portugal has been seriously curtailed in modern times; the royal revenues have been increased at the expense of the religious institutions, all the convents of men having been suppressed: and the Inquisition has been abolished.

The archbishoprics are two—Braga and Evora; and there are thirteen bishoprics—Porto, Coimbra, Elvas, Braganza, Leiria, Beja, Lamego, Portalegre, Aveira, Pinhal, Viseu, La Guarda, and Castello Branco; five of them are suffragans of the patriarch, four of the archbishop of Braga, and four of the archbishop of Evora. The patriarch of Lisbon takes precedence of all the clergy in the kingdom, and is a cardinal of the consistory at Rome.

Literature.—The men of learning whom this country has produced are so few, that the glaring deficiency is mentioned with indignation, by such of the Portuguese as have the smallest tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable

nce. It is universally allowed, is not occasioned by the want of a proper education. The an- present Portuguese had more e, with regard to astronomy, navigation, than perhaps any nation, about the middle of the id for some time after. Camoens, s a great adventurer and voyager, , but neglected, poetical genius, displayed dramatic talents of ind. Goes, Barros, and de Faria deemed respectable historians; of Pereira, Barbosa, and of Fer- la, a female philosopher, may it disgust. In modern times, ata, Vasconcellos, Cardoso, No- rs, have acquired reputation as

a.—The only university is that nded in 1291, which is amply as it boasts of 39 professors, it ed that some learning may be w of the 800 academics who are n this city. The university of in 1559, was a respectable, if not minary; but it has been sup- cessary, and is now only a theo- y. Lisbon has a college of no- also royal military and naval re young gentlemen are edu- ience of engineering and naval academy where the ancient and ges, geometry, physic, and phi- ght.

The Portuguese language differs Spain, than the Dutch from the Galician dialect it bears a strong The Lord's Prayer is as follows: que estas nos ceos, santificado venha a nos tuo reyno, seia e, assi nos ceos, como na terra. codidia, dano lo nos nesto dia: nossas devidas, assi como nos nossos devedores: e nao nos entaçao, mas libra nos do mal.

—The Roman bridge and aque- a are almost entire, and de- d. The walls of Santarem are be of Roman origin. At Evora f a temple of Diana, and an ed to Sertorius. Near Braga of a temple, supposed to have to Æsculapius. At Chaves ered the ruins of a magnificent cisterns, several fragments of pitals and cornices of jasper, ed. There are also remains of particularly at Torres-Vedras. is kingdom comprehends the f the ancient Lusitania, and e fate with the other Spanish contest between the Cartha- nians. When the latter were or retain it, it was successively in subjection to the Suevi, Alans, and Visi-Goths. It was conquered by the Moors, soon after their triumph over Roderic, king of Spain, and it remained for some centuries in their possession: but about the year 1090, several towns and districts were rescued from their yoke, by the valour of the Christian warriors of Leon and Castile; and Alfonso VI. rewarded Henry of Burgundy, a descendant of Robert, king of France, for his bravery and assistance against the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal which was then in the hands of the Christians.

Henry, who had only the title of Count, was succeeded, in 1128, by his son Alfonso Henry, who gained a decisive victory, in the battle of Ourique, over five Moorish kings, in July, 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal; for Alfonso was then proclaimed king by his soldiers. He did not, however, before the year 1147, gain possession of the city of Lisbon, which was then a flourishing town, and so well fortified as to sustain a siege for five months. He lived to the age of 76, and, after a reign of 57 years, of which few particulars are authentically recorded, left the throne, in 1185, to his son Sancho, who augmented his territories by the expulsion of the infidels from various districts.

Alfonso II., who began to reign in 1211, obtained some advantages over the Moorish princes of Seville and Cordova; and Sancho II., his successor, also extended the limits of the realm; but it is said that he was expelled from his dominions for cowardice. The next sovereign was Alfonso III., who conquered the kingdom of Algarve. Dionysius, called by the Portuguese Don Diniz, succeeded his father in 1279, and reigned with reputation above 45 years. He tempered justice with mercy; encouraged and rewarded merit of every kind; and, for his beneficent and wise government, was honoured with the title of Father of his Country. He instituted the order of Christ, erected and fortified a number of towns, and founded the university of Coimbra. The character of Alfonso IV. was less estimable; but he was successful in some military enterprises both against the Castilians and the Moors.

Peter, who mounted the throne in 1357, distinguished himself by his regard for justice. Like Titus, he considered every day as lost in which he had not performed some act of duty, of prudence, or beneficence. It is said, that he had the wisdom to prohibit the employment of advocates in his courts of judicature, being aware of the effect of artful eloquence in promoting the escape of the guilty, or the condemnation of the innocent, and in procuring erroneous decisions of civil causes. Ferreira Lobo says, that he ruled with inflexible justice, and granted innumerable favours to his deserving subjects. His son Ferdinand improved the police of Lisbon and other cities; but he is represented as a votary of pleasure and dissipation. After his death, his illegitimate

brother John obtained the crown, in 1385, by his spirited efforts; and the Portuguese still celebrate, on the 14th of August, the triumph of this prince at Aljubarota, over his Castilian competitor.

During a long reign, John so fully established his character for policy and patriotism, that he was styled the Father of his Country. His military enterprises were not numerous; but his courage was unquestioned; and he evinced it in an expedition to Ceuta, which he annexed to his dominions. The reign of Edward, his son, called by the Portuguese Don Duarte, was short and inglorious. Henry, the second son of John, was an astronomer, and patron of navigation, and distinguished himself by his zeal for maritime discovery and colonizing.

Alfonso V., the son of Edward, was honoured with the epithet of the African, for his exploits against the Moors, from whom he took Tangier, Arzila, and other maritime towns. The coast of Guinea was also discovered under his auspices; and, under the sway of John II., Congo was visited, and the Cape of Good Hope was reached, but not doubled, before the reign of Emmanuel, styled the Great, who, by encouraging the adventurous spirit of his people, greatly promoted their commercial opulence and colonial power. His fleets opened a way to the Indian ocean; and, in the west, Brazil was introduced to the knowledge of Europeans. John III. succeeded in 1521; and, while he lost some of his African settlements, made new acquisitions in India. He sent the famous Xavier as a missionary to Japan, and, in the height of his zeal, established that infernal tribunal, the Inquisition, in Portugal, in 1526, in defiance of the entreaties and remonstrances of his people. Sebastian, his grandson, succeeded him in 1557, and undertook a crusade against the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the Lucos, he was defeated, and either slain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, the son of Emmanuel, succeeded, but died without issue, in 1580: on which Antony, prior of Crato, was chosen king, by the states of the kingdom; but Philip II. of Spain, pretending that the crown belonged to him, because his mother was the eldest daughter of Emmanuel, sent the duke of Alva, with a powerful force, who subdued the country, and proclaimed his master king of Portugal.

The viceroys, under Philip and his two successors, behaved toward the Portuguese with great rapacity and violence. The Spanish ministers treated the people as vassals, and, by multiplied acts of oppression and tyranny, so excited the hatred and courage of the Portuguese, as to produce a revolt at Lisbon. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it; and he acceded to the throne in 1640, by the title of John IV., almost without bloodshed; and the foreign settlements also acknowledged him as their sovereign. A fierce war subsisted for many years between the king the efforts of the Spaniards to proved vain; so that a treaty was February, 1668, by which Portugal to be free and independent.

The Portuguese could not ha themselves under their revolt fro not the latter power been engr with England and Holland; an storation of Charles II., that mo married a princess of Portugal, i Spanish court to resign all prete kingdom. Alfonso VI., a weak dissolute prince, son to John I king of Portugal. He had the disagree at once with his wife an Peter; and they, uniting their only forced him to resign his c charges of impotence and mis obtained a dispensation from the marriage, which was accordingly c They had only a daughter; bu second marriage, had sons, the el was John, his successor. John, joined the grand confederacy for William; but neither of them much to the humiliation of the po On the contrary, John greatly allies, by occasioning the loss of Almanza, in 1707. He died in succeeded by his son Joseph, wh neither happy to himself, nor for people. A dreadful earthquake, whelmed a great part of his capit his kingdom to the centre. H administration was not distingu affection that it acquired at ho reputation which it sustained al deeply stained with domestic bl dered odious by horrible cruelty ber, 1758, the king was attacked and narrowly escaped with his lif place near his country mansion families of Aveiro and Tavora w by torture, under the charge o spired against his life; but th demned without proper eviden innocence has since been mani this supposed conspiracy is dated of the Jesuits (who were conjec been privy to the plot) from al Portuguese dominions. The ma bal, who was at this time pr governed the kingdom for many unbounded authority, which w directed to the most arbitrary purposes.

In 1762, when a war broke out and England, the Spaniards an the French, attempted to forc Portugal into their alliance, and rison his maritime towns again He rejected this proposal, and against the Spaniards, who, with entered Portugal with a consi while a body of French threaten

ome have doubted whether these earnest on this occasion, and ole of the pretended war was to force England into a peace d Spain, in consideration of the r of Portugal. It is certain, rench and Spaniards carried on ry dilatory manner, and that, n earnest, they might have ob- ting in the country, long before he British troops to the assist- tuguese. However, a few Eng- put an effectual stop, by their nduct, to the progress of the tugal was saved, and a peace at Fontainebleau, in 1763.

d no son, his eldest daughter, ried by a dispensation from the edro, her own uncle, to prevent devolving to a foreign family. ne throne in 1777; and an early was the removal of the marquis power; an event which excited might naturally be expected sive nature of his administra- has been alleged in his favour, various public measures which to promote the real interest of

ie queen had the full and perfect y limited understanding which n nature and education, she was ith the art of good government. ak and superstitious, she at , from an excess of piety, into gement; and, in 1792, the prince mptive heir to the crown, pub- declaring that, as his mother, ppy situation, was incapable of affairs of government, he would ll the return of her health.

the ally of England, professed my of revolutionary France; but lished Spain with a few auxiliary it a small squadron to join the After Spain had made peace with took place between the former ortugal, without producing any ata. In August, 1797, a negotia- ed between France and Portugal, was actually concluded; but the ry refused to ratify it, alleging , far from showing a disposition s articles, had put her forts and into the possession of the Eng- failure of this attempt at ne- ugal continued a member of the st France, but her aid was very ace was restored, in 1801, on the enza to Spain, and the grant advantages in Guiana to the

ar was renewed, in 1803, between and France, it was natural to he weakness of Portugal would kment and *encourage insult.* The first exercise of irregular influence on the part of France, was the arrogant demand of a certain sum, as the price of neutrality; and, while the regent was thus degraded into a tributary prince, the French ambassador at Lisbon arbitrarily interfered in the government. To this insolence the prince tamely submitted; but his acquiescence did not, after the peace of Tilsit, secure his realm against the menaces of hostility. Napoleon then became more imperious and peremptory in his demands, and required that Portugal should join the confederacy of the continental powers against England. The Portuguese government so far complied as to order the ports of the kingdom to be closed against the ships of war and mercantile vessels of Great Britain; but, knowing how much was to be feared from that power, and how little confidence was to be placed in any peace or favour obtained by submission, the court, after much hesitation, resolved to emigrate to Brazil, and remove thither the seat of government. Accordingly, in November 1807, the whole of the royal family of Braganza, and a considerable number of persons of distinction, sailed from the Tagus in a fleet of eight sail of the line, four frigates, and several other vessels of war, beside a number of Brazilian ships, conveying together about 18,000 Portuguese subjects. They arrived in South America without any adverse accident.

After the departure of the royal family, the French took possession of the capital, and general Junot assumed the administration. But, when the affairs of Spain encouraged a hope that an effectual resistance might be made to French usurpation, the British government, in 1808, sent an army which, after having defeated the French in the battle of Vimiero, obliged them to evacuate Portugal, by the convention of Cintra. Being thus rescued from disgraceful tyranny, the Portuguese remained in peace till the spring of the following year, when a French army entered the kingdom from Spain, and gained possession of Oporto. Sir Arthur Wellesley did not suffer the invaders long to exult in their conquest. He crossed the Douro in the face of the enemy, who, not daring to contend with him in a general action, retreated with precipitation to the frontiers, after many acts of rapine, murder, and conflagration. This disappointment only served to stimulate the French to a new attempt, which, they hoped, would be more successful, from the activity, courage, skill, and experience of Massena, to whom the command of a formidable force was confided. That commander, having obtained possession of Almeida by the effect of a sudden explosion of a magazine, was prosecuting his success with alacrity, when he was encountered at Busaco, in September, 1810, by a British and Portuguese army. He attacked the elevated position which the allies had taken, and some of his battalions had nearly attained the summit, when they were driven down by a *furious* charge with the bayonet, suffering

great loss in their retreat. Notwithstanding this success, Lord Wellington thought it expedient to avoid another conflict, as his force was considerably inferior to that of the French. He retired to Torres Vedras, where, profiting by the mountainous nature of the country, he had formed such lines for the defence of his army and of Lisbon, as no prudent general would venture to assault. After five months of mutual observation, Massena quitted his cantonments in the ensuing spring, and retreated into Spain, wreaking his sanguinary vengeance upon the wretched natives, and destroying their habitations, in that progress which was accelerated by hostile pursuit.

Gratitude is a rare virtue in courts; but the prince regent of Portugal was so pleased at the zeal and success of his British auxiliaries, that he gratified their countrymen with peculiar advantages in the trade with Brazil, and even promised, at the desire of our court, to suppress the Inquisition in that province, and to modify, if not abolish, the unnatural traffic for slaves on the coast of Africa. From that time Portugal remained without serious molestation during the rest of the war, in which, under British commanders, the Portuguese army bore an honourable part. But the restoration of tranquillity to that realm did not encourage the prince to quit his more secure station at Rio de Janeiro. He was content with the conduct of the executive council which he had left at Lisbon; and, even when a general peace was concluded, he suffered his ancient kingdom to be reduced in effect to a state of provincial subserviency.

When the affairs of Portugal were taken into consideration by the congress of Vienna, it was agreed that the regent of that kingdom should manifest his regard for the French monarch, by restoring French Guiana, or Cayenne, which the English and Portuguese had taken in 1809, as far as the river Oyapoke, the mouth of which is situated between the fourth and fifth degrees of northern latitude. After the deliverance of Europe had been fully effected, the royal family remained in South America. The queen, dying on the 20th of March, 1816, the regent assumed the crown of Portugal with the usual formality, under the designation of John VI.: he also styled himself King of Brazil, and continued at Rio de Janeiro, until the general wish of the Portuguese recalled him, in 1821, to Europe. A revolution had occurred in his absence, in August, 1820, in imitation of that military revolt which had arisen in Spain, and a constitution was prepared by the cortes for the regeneration of the ill-governed realm: but, in 1823, the king, by the intrigues and exertions of his numerous partisans, recovered his full sway, which he retained to the day of his death, except for a short interval, when his factious queen and her party held him in bondage. He died at Lisbon, in the 59th year of his age, on the 10th of March, 1826. He was a man of a good disposition, but of narrow intellect. As Don Pedro, the elder of his sons, then exercised the imperial functions in Brazil, which, in 1822, had shaken off the yoke of the parent state, the princess Maria Theresa assumed the regency until the succession should be fully settled. Pedro, having no wish to enjoy both crowns, resigned that of Portugal, and condescended to grant a constitutional charter to the people of that realm, neither too monarchical nor too democratic, but following a middle course, as he said, "between those extreme principles which agitated the world." He proposed that his daughter should be queen, and gave her hand to her uncle Don Miguel, whom he appointed lieutenant and regent of the kingdom. Miguel soon after repaired to Portugal, took the oath to observe the charter, and assumed the functions of the government. But he had no sooner done this, than he set to work to seize the crown, destroy the charter, and make himself a despotic sovereign. For a while his schemes were foiled by the British ambassador at Lisbon. But, at length, having assembled such a cortes as would answer his purpose, he was, in 1823, declared by that body to be the lawful sovereign. The constitutionalists, who had been previously defeated by that part of the army which adhered to him, now fled either to Spain or England. Such of them as had not the means to escape were persecuted without mercy, and the prisons were crowded with persons of all ranks. Insurrections ensued, and new victims were daily sacrificed. While Miguel was thus harassing the Portuguese at home, he was also raising up enemies against them abroad. England and France were both insulted; and, in both cases, the usurper was compelled to make ample reparation for his offensive conduct.

A regency, to govern for his daughter, had, meanwhile, been established by Don Pedro, in the island of Terceira, one of the Azores. Having arrived in Europe, Don Pedro lost no time in making strenuous efforts to replace his daughter on the throne. With about 10,000 troops, chiefly Englishmen, he sailed from St. Michael's; and on the 8th of July, 1832, he effected a landing near Oporto, which city fell into his hands without opposition. In some encounters which followed, the forces of Miguel were defeated; but the usurper had, for the present, too firm a hold of the country to allow of the natives joining the invaders in any numbers, and he was consequently enabled to invest Don Pedro in Oporto. From August till the following June, the city continued to be beleaguered by the usurper's troops, and numerous assaults were made, and defeated, in which both parties, but chiefly the Miguelites, sustained heavy loss. The besieged also suffered much from the scarcity of provisions. Don Pedro, however, bore up with invincible spirit against every difficulty, and succeeded in inspiring his partisans with a firmness like his own.

In the summer of 1833, the scale began to

of Don Pedro: he had received
nents, and contrived to raise a
ierefore determined to make a
our of Oporto, by sending the
a and the marquis of Palmella,
o the south of Portugal. The
fleet was also given to Captain
alent and valour excited hopes,
edily realized, that he would
xtraordinary exploit. He did,
far more than any one had
pect. With a much inferior
ed the whole of Miguel's fleet.
nt to the usurper, that nothing
ate reduction of Oporto could
erious misfortune, and perhaps
ordingly, a general attack was
ines of Oporto, by Marshal
had recently taken the com-
el's forces. Miguel himself
n a height near the town. The
de with great spirit, and for
obstinately repeated; but the
finally discomfited with much
ulse had such an effect on the
m, that they began to desert in

Terceira had, meanwhile, ef-
in Algarve. After the capture
fleet, he was ably seconded by
ier. In his anxiety to save the
which was endangered by a
ent, Molellos, the Miguelite
covered the road to the capital,
no fleet to prevent the passage
Availing himself of this error,
ied towards the river. A force
and three squadrons of cavalry,
ad, however, been sent from
o-operate with Molellos. As it
t Molellos would speedily fol-
ra hurried on to encounter Jor-
general could be seconded by
He accomplished his purpose
destroyed the whole of the
ao. On receiving news of this
te of Cadaval, who was still at
the head of a garrison of 6000 men, abandoned Lisbon in the most dastardly manner, and Terceira entered that city in triumph, amidst the acclamations of the inhabitants. Don Pedro immediately proceeded to Lisbon, and was soon afterwards joined by the young queen, from England, who was enthusiastically received.

As there could be no doubt that Miguel would make a desperate effort to recover the capital, no time was lost in rendering it defensible. In the course of a few days the lines were completed, and mounted with 200 pieces of cannon. At length Bourmont appeared before them, with 17,000 infantry and 1200 cavalry. He was too late. Two attacks, which he ordered, on the 5th and 14th of September, were repelled. On the 10th of October, Don Pedro assumed the offensive, and compelled Macdonald, who had succeeded Bourmont, to retire to Santarem, where he took up a strong position. The war was protracted till the spring of 1834; but at length Miguel was under the necessity of evacuating Santarem, and retiring across the Tagus into Alentejo. Thither he was followed by the queen's troops, and, being surrounded, had no other resource than to sign the convention of Evora, and withdraw from the kingdom. Don Pedro was confirmed in the regency by the cortes, but, ill health obliging him to resign his office, the queen was declared of age, and assumed the royal authority. Don Pedro died on the 22nd of September, 1834. Since that period, though the kingdom has been disturbed by contending factions, no event which demands notice has occurred, except the changes of constitution, which have already been noticed under the head of "Government."

Donna Maria II. was born April 4th, 1819, and married, first, to Augustus, duke of Leuchtenberg, January 15th, 1835, who died two months afterwards; and, second, to Ferdinand Augustus, duke of Saxe Coburg Gotha, April 9th, 1836; by whom she has issue, Don Pedro, prince royal, born September 16th, 1837, and Louis Philip, duke of Oporto, born October 31st, 1838.

ITALY.

taly, *Italia*, is usually derived
leader of an ancient colony
Sir Walter Raleigh has sup-
e degree of probability, that it
Ætolia, as it received a colony
hat country.

NT AND SITUATION.

Degrees.
between { 37. & 46. 20. N. lat.
6. & 13. E. long.

Containing, if we include Savoy and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, 123,000 square miles, with about 186 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.—Italy is bounded on the north by Switzerland and Germany, on the east by the Adriatic Sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the north-west by France.

DIVISIONS.—Italy comprehends the following kingdoms and states:—

		Population.
Northern Division.	The Lombardo-Venetian kingdom	4,577,583
	The principality of Piedmont, and the duchies of Savoy and Genoa	4,125,750
	Modena and its dependencies	378,000
	Parma and Placentia	476,187
	The duchy of Lucca	168,198
Middle Division.	The grand duchy of Tuscany	1,436,875
	The ecclesiastical state	2,750,600
Southern Division.	The kingdom of Naples	6,177,598
Islands.	Corsica	207,889
	Sardinia	524,600
	Sicily	1,957,287
	Total	22,780,567

FACE OF THE COUNTRY. — The beautiful prospects and scenery of Italy are themes of general admiration. In some parts, indeed, there are extensive plains which have rather a naked, though not a barren appearance, and in others, marshes and standing waters, such as the Pontine marshes in the papal territory, and the Maremma in Tuscany, which render the air unwholesome; but the general aspect of the country presents rich groves of olive, orange, citron, almond, and other fruit-trees, intermingled with corn-fields, enclosed by rows of tall poplars, elms, and mulberry-trees, which support the luxuriant branches of the vine; while transparent streams flow down the eminences, and meander through the valleys, exhibiting at once the image of the most exuberant fertility, and forming the most varied and enchanting landscapes.

MOUNTAINS.—The principal mountains are the Alps, on the borders of France, Switzerland, and Germany; and the Apennines, which run along the coast of Genoa, and then pass through the whole length of Italy, generally approaching nearer to the Adriatic than to the Mediterranean. Connected with the Apennine chain are four groups—one in the territory of Sienna, another to the southward of the valleys of the Salso, Velino, and Nera, and to the eastward of that of the Tiber; the Highlands, in the district where Mount Vesuvius is situated; and Mount Gargano, on the eastern coast. The Apennines are not so remarkable as the Alps for their elevation, the highest point (Monte Corno) not exceeding 9523 feet above the sea.

The volcanoes of Vesuvius and Ætna are situated, the former in the vicinity of Naples, and the latter in the island of Sicily; but we shall reserve the description of these for the head of "Natural Curiosities."

LAKES—RIVERS—MINERAL WATERS, &c.—The most considerable lakes in Italy are the Lago Maggiore, or the Greater Lake, called also Locarno, about 27 miles in length, and 3 in breadth; that of Como, 32 miles in length, and 2½ in breadth; Garda, 30 miles long, and 8 broad; and the lakes of Iseo, Lugano, Pe Albano, and Celano.

The principal rivers are the Po, A and Arno. The Po rises in Mount Piedmontese frontier, crosses the m and, after a course of 300 miles, joi atic Sea by four channels. It has taries, among which the chief are t Sesia, the Tanaro, the Trebbia, th Adda, the Oglio, the Mincio, the Par Secchia. Not far from one of the m Po, the Adige enters the same sea, from the Grison territory throug and the Veronese. The Tiber ar rise in the Apennines, and fall int Tuscany, the former near Rome, flowed through that city, and the Pisa.

Mineral springs are found in vari Italy. The baths of Baia, near N celebrated in the time of the Roma are medicinal springs, one of w exactly to resemble in taste the water in England.

Northern Italy is intersected b canals, most of which are rendered a system of artificial irrigation, and Among them may be named the can Cagliano, Rotto, Bra, Caluso, an The roads over the Alps are some magnificent works of modern time ample of making them was set b who ordered the route of the Sim constructed; and he has since be rivalled by the Austrian governm has disbursed immense sums in passes of the Alps.

METALS — MINERALS. — The abound in mines that produce emer agate, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, and ot stones. In Savoy and Piedmont iron and copper, and even gold a found in the principality. Parma also produce copper, lead, and iron dom of Naples and the papal territ particularly rich, in a mineralogi view; but the supposed deficienc arise from want of exploration. marble is one of the chief producti that of Carrara and of the Sienn considered as superior to the rest.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—Th Italy is various, and some parts of exhibit melancholy proofs of the which accidental causes make on nature; for the Campagna di Rom ancient Romans enjoyed the mos air, is now almost pestilential, thro crease of inhabitants, which has stagnation of waters and putrid exh which the task of draining, undert VI., proved only a partial and ve remedy. The air of the northern lie among the Alps or in their nei is keen and piercing, the ground be places covered with snow in winter

a great effect on the climate; the south being warm, those ild and temperate. The sea- he kingdom of Naples so much, able atmospherical inconve- there, except the enervating ed the *sirocco*. In general, the be said to be dry and pure. he climate, Mr. Eustace ob- principal and almost the only rise from the equinoctial rains heats. The influence of both Italy. That of the former is nvenient, and even sometimes ially in the northern provinces astern coast." The rivers, he led with continued rains, over- s; and these inundations do de so soon as might be expected l heat and dryness of the cli- rnicious effects are sometimes afterwards." We are sorry to s ingenious and worthy man fell limate which he thus describes. l of Italy liberally produces the uries of life: each district has ellency and commodity; wine, ous fruit, and oil, are the most ions. As much corn grows here habitants; and, if the ground cultivated, the Italians might s of grain in abundance. In p of corn, another of silk, and , are obtained every year from he vines being planted in rows, rees for their support, and the ces sown with corn. Hemp wise produced in great plenty: cco, and saffron, are also among ulture. Wool of a good quality ome provinces; but sheep are ch numbers as to render the that commodity unnecessary. is paid in many parts to es, asses, mules, horned cattle, t greater industry might be e useful departments of rural nt seriously encroaching on the lence of the people. here is little difference between Italy, and those of France and ly mentioned; but it has been the European buffalo is almost r.

NOSITIES.—Among the natural taly, the most conspicuous are Mount Vesuvius is about seven rom the city of Naples. The mountain toward the sea, is nes and fruit-trees, and it is ear the bottom. The circum- ords a delightful prospect, and nd wholesome. The south and e mountain form very different te the top, covered with black es. Its height has been computed to be 3932 feet above the sea. It has been a volcano beyond the reach of history or tradition; but had been for ages supposed to be extinct, when, in A.D. 79, a tremendous eruption took place. An animated description of its ravages is given by the younger Pliny, who was an eye-witness of the terrific scene. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were small and moderate; then, however, it broke out with accumulated fury, and desolated the country for many miles. In 1694 there was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with such force, that some of it fell at the distance of twenty-five miles, and a vast quantity of liquid lava ran down like a river for three miles, carrying everything before it which lay in its way. In 1770, such quantities of cinders and ashes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon. In 1767, a violent eruption occurred, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that of the year 79. On this occasion, the ashes or rather small cinders, showered down so fast at Naples, that the people in the streets were obliged to use umbrellas, or adopt some other expedient to guard themselves against them. The tops of the houses and balconies were covered with these effusions; and ships at sea, fifteen leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great astonishment of the sailors. An eruption happened also in 1766, another in 1779, which have been particularly described by Sir William Hamilton, in the Philosophical Transactions; and another in June 1794, which ravaged a considerable tract, and destroyed a great number of habitations. In 1804 there was also an eruption; another in 1805, when the ground occupied by the lava was actually on fire; and since then the mountain has several times broken out, though not so as to occasion any serious injury.

It has been observed, that, though Mount Vesuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet, as few things in nature are so absolutely noxious as not to produce some good, even this raging volcano, by its sulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its subterraneous fire, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country, and to the profusion of fruit and herbage with which it is covered. Besides, it is supposed that while open and active the mountain is less hostile to Naples, than it would be if its eruptions should cease, and its struggles be confined to its own bowels; for then might ensue the most fatal shocks to the unstable foundation of the whole Terra di Lavoro.

Mount Ætna is 10,870 feet in height, and has been computed to be 180 miles in circumference at its base, while Vesuvius is only about 30 miles. It stands separate from all other mountains, its figure is circular, and it terminates in a cone. To witness from its summit the rising of the sun, is a magnificent spectacle, which has been well described by Brydone. The lower parts of Ætna are very fruitful in corn

and sugar-canes; in the middle are woods, olive-trees, and vines; and the upper part is almost for the whole year covered with snow. Its fiery eruptions have rendered it famous: in one of these, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages were destroyed; and there have been several terrible eruptions since that time, particularly one which destroyed Catania in 1693, and another in 1755. In 1811, several new mouths, opening on the eastern side, discharged, with the greatest force, torrents of burning matter. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption.

Near the lake Agnano and Pozzuolo there is a valley called Solfatara, because vast quantities of sulphur are continually forced out of the clefts by subterranean fires. The grotto del Cane is remarkable for its poisonous steams, and is so called from its killing dogs that enter it, if they are forced to remain there.

Among the curiosities of Italy, those vast bodies of snow and ice, which are called the glaciers of Savoy, deserve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers, which extend almost to the plain of the vale of Chamouni, and are separated by wild forests, corn-fields, and rich meadows; so that immense tracts of ice are blended with the highest cultivation, exhibiting striking vicissitudes and all the force of contrast. All these valleys of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are some leagues in length, unite at the foot of Mont Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe: the height of this mountain above the level of the sea is 15,668 English feet. The highest part of this remarkable mountain is in the form of a compressed hemisphere: from that point it sinks gradually, and exhibits a kind of concave surface of snow, in the midst of which is a small pyramid of ice: it then rises into a second hemisphere, and thence descends into another concave surface, terminating in a point. The first person who reached the summit was Dr. Pacard. He ascended, in 1786, with the aid of one Balma, who, in searching for crystals, had discovered the only practicable route. They were employed about fifteen hours in reaching the "giddy height," and only five hours in descending. The snow and wind rendered them, for a time, almost blind; their faces were excoriated, and their lips swollen. A more philosophical observer was M. de Saussure, who found that, of all the organs, that of respiration was the most affected by the ascent. Having marched over turf or on the solid rock, he and his attendants passed the first night in tents on the top of La Côte, a mountain which is about 5440 feet above the sea. The rest of their adventurous journey was over ice or hardened snow. The next morning, they traversed a glacier which was intersected by wide and deep chasms, some of which could only be passed by bridges of snow; and thus they reached the foot of a small chain of rocks, enclosed in the snows of the principal mountain. In the afternoon they reached what may be called the se and encamped for the night at th 12,760 feet above the sea. On this re there was no appearance of vege nothing but snow of a dazzling could be seen around, while the s ceedingly dark. On the ensuing m sionally cutting places for their hatchets, they proceeded to the utt tion. The air was so rarefied as they the summit, that they were oblig almost continually, for the purpose breath; and the dryness of the a which contained only a sixth por humidity of the air of Geneva, hars with a burning thirst. Since that p Blanc has been repeatedly ascend one instance the attempt proved fat of the party. Among those who ha the summit are two English ladies.

A rival of Mont Blanc is the moun which was long supposed to be high former; but, according to some la metrical observations, the latter is feet lower. The two next loftiest o are the Finsteraarborn, and the Ju former of which has an altitude of and the latter of 13,730 feet.

A late tourist (Mr. Bakewell) s most striking object in the valley of next to the glaciers, and more deser labour of a journey than Mont Bl Aiguille de Dru, a spire of granite, w up to the height of 11,000 feet abov of the sea, and is apparently detach the surrounding mountains. The is utterly inaccessible; its sides ar and are said to have a polish or gl that which is sometimes seen on gra exposed to the action of the sea. I h seen, nor have I heard, of any p granite in the Alps that can be com it, for the elegance of its form or th its shaft."

The cascade of Terni is the fines the kind that Italy can exhibit. Velino, at a short distance from it with the Nar, falls suddenly down a nearly 300 feet in height, and da such violence on the rocks below, th part of its stream rises in mist. It falls down two other precipices, almo as the first, its waters each time r kind of mist. The aggregate heig descent of the falls, from the level o above the cascade, to its junction wi through a succession of rapids, is feet. Near Tivoli is a small but cascade, the river Teverone (the anc falling about 50 feet.

NATIONAL CHARACTER — MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.—The Italians are in general portioned, and have such expressiv nances, that they have greatly as ideas of their painters. The women shaped, and many of them are very h

e as amorous as those of Spain. ge ties, especially of the higher id to be of very little value in Italy. ias been represented as having her *cisbeo*, with whom she keeps com- ometimes cohabits, with very little nd no offence on either side. But aggerated statement, as it cannot . that the generality of husbands lless of their honour, as tamely to n the abominable criminality to ull extent of this practice would

the characters of the nations of t various shades of difference, they ne respects. Sobriety and tempe- ie considered as pervading all the , and every class of society. The ather vindictive than brave, and litious than devout. The middling long attached to their native cus- emed to have few ideas of improve- that disinclination to change or w declining. With exterior cour- ilious pride is sometimes mingled: perhaps all Italy does not contain idants of the ancient Romans, yet nhabitants speak of themselves as f the conquerors of the world, and hem seem to look upon the rest of h contempt.

e of Lombardy appear to be the table of all the Italian nations, ps the Savoyards, in morals, bene- . good-nature; and the Tuscans, of character, seem to claim the The Piedmontese are considered ns of Italy. Among the Neapoli- illians, a thirst of revenge is more an in the natives of the other s; but it is gratifying to find, that laxity of the police, which suffered assinations to be committed with gradually yielding to a conviction aity of repressing such outrages ergy of law. The Genoese are a race, and the generous feelings to influence every community are ong them by sordid selfishness. ges are regulated by motives of are usually settled by the parents without the least regard to the of the young persons. Their M. Vieusseux, "are about the of Italy. They have, in general, a, delicate complexions, dark hair pretty features; and their deport- rkably graceful." Persons of the it Rome are less refined and intel- ess upright than those of Florence d the people of the ecclesiastical eneral indolent and ignorant, and w cunning and a want of manly sing effects of arbitrary misrule. —The religion of Italy is the Ro- . It is asserted that the Romish church was founded by St. Peter, and that he gave it pre-eminence and authority over every other Christian establishment: but this assertion is strongly controverted by Protestants. However that may be, it appears that at an early period, the bishops of Rome began to claim spiritual supremacy, and gradually secured the acquiescence of many nations in the validity of their pretensions. A pompous establishment, inconsistent with the simplicity of religion, was at length formed in the imperial city; and temporal power was added to spiritual dignity. As a part of the establishment, cardinals to the number of seventy may be created; but that number is seldom complete: they are appointed by his holiness, who, in promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalship, attends to the nomination of the princes who profess the Catholic religion. His chief minister is the cardinal patron, generally his near relative, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amassing all the wealth that he can procure. The cardinals, when they meet in a consistory, pretend to control the pontiff in matters both spiritual and temporal, and have been sometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is seldom of long duration, as those who are elected are generally old men. The conclave is a scene where the cardinals principally endeavour to display their abilities, and where many transactions pass which are very inconsistent with their pretended inspiration by the Holy Ghost. During the election of a pope in 1721, the animosity rose to such a height, that they made a violent use of their hands and feet, and threw the ink-stands at each other.

We will here give an extract from the creed of Pope Pius IV. (1560) before his elevation to the chair, which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the Protestant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Christians in general agree, he thus proceeds:—

"I most firmly admit and embrace the apostolical and ecclesiastical traditions, and all other constitutions of the church of Rome.

"I admit the Holy Scriptures in the same sense that the holy mother-church doth, whose business it is to judge of the true sense and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous consent of the fathers.

"I profess and believe that there are seven sacraments of the law, properly so called, instituted by Jesus Christ our Lord, and necessary to the salvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptism, confirmation, eucharist, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage: and that they confer grace; and that of these, baptism, confirmation, and orders, may not be repeated without sacrilege. I also receive and admit the approved rites of the Catholic church in her solemn administration of the above-mentioned sacraments.

"I embrace and receive everything that hath

been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent concerning original sin and justification.

"I also profess, that in the mass there is offered to God a true, proper, and propitiatory sacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the most holy sacrament of the eucharist the body and blood, the soul and divinity, of our Lord Jesus Christ, are really and substantially present, and that there is a conversion made of the whole substance of the bread into the body, and of the whole substance of the wine into the blood; which conversion the Catholic church calls Transubstantiation. I confess that under one kind only, whole and entire, Christ and a true sacrament are taken and received.

"I firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the souls kept prisoners there receive help by the suffrages of the faithful.

"I likewise believe that the saints reigning with Christ are to be worshipped and prayed to; and that they offer up prayers to God for us; and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I most firmly assert, that the images of Christ, of the blessed Virgin the mother of God, and of other saints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given to them.

"I likewise affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Christ to the church, and that their use is very beneficial to Christian people.

"I acknowledge the holy catholic and apostolical Roman church to be the mother and mistress of all churches; and I promise and swear true obedience to the bishop of Rome, the successor of St. Peter, the prince of the apostles, and vicar of Jesus Christ.

"I undoubtedly receive and profess all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared, by the sacred canons and œcumenical councils, and especially by the holy synod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all heresies condemned, rejected, and anathematized, by the church, I likewise condemn, reject, and anathematize."

Learning and Learned Men, Painters, Statuaries, Architects, and Artists.—In the Introduction, we have particularized some of the great men whom ancient Italy produced. In modern times, that is, since the revival of learning, some Italians have excelled in controversial literature; but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own persuasion. The mathematics and natural philosophy owe much to Galileo, Torricelli, Malpighi, Borelli, Boscovich, Volta, and numerous other Italians. Strada is an excellent historian; and the History of the Council of Trent, by the celebrated Father Paul, is a standard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Davila, have been much commended as historians. Machiavel is equally famous as an historian and a political writer. His comedies have great merit; and the liberality of his sentiments, for t he lived, is amazing. Among t in the Italian language, Boc thought one of the most pur point of style: he was a very n life and manners, but his pro licentious. Petrarca, who wro and Italian, revived among t spirit and genius of ancient among the Italian poets, Dar Tasso, are the most distinguis said to be more than 1000 com lian language, though not ma cellent: but Alfieri was a author, and Metastasio acquir tation by writing dramatic pie set to music. Of late years, have acquired reputation as dr nazarius, Fracastorius, Bembo, natives of Italy, distinguished the elegance, correctness, and Latin poetry, many of thei scarcely yielding to the class Socinus, distinguished by his the doctrine of the Trinity, Italy.

The Italian painters, sculpt tects, are unrivalled, not only i but in their excellence. The ling, after the conquest of Cor the Turks, revived taste like mankind a relish for truth and and colouring; but Cimabue, l era, obtained by his talents appellation of the Father of modern painting. Leonardo improved upon existing mode the astonishment of succeedin faelle, from his own ideas, a ancients, struck out a new cr pencil, and still stands at the of painting. Michael Angelo B in his own person poetry, pain and architecture. The colouri perhaps never yet been equall his portraits are finely expressi Bernini, and many other Itali architecture and sculpture. Ju a painter, was great in design, accuracy and grace. Corre pious virgins and holy infants v elegance; Guido's heads are reg equal to those of Raffaelle; Lu shone both in design and in Bassano gave admired represen scapes and of animal life. At Canova bore away the palm in s of the modern Italian painters high as their predecessors.

In music, considered both science, the Italians have lon themselves. Corelli, Paesiello, others, extended their fame ov Rossini has many admirers, t ferior to some German compos originality.

ns.—Those of Italy are, Rome, a, Sienna, Padua, Parma, Pavia, ara, Perusia, Pisa, Naples, Pa-, and Cagliari. Some of these f languor and depression: those avia are said to be the most flou-

-The Italian language is remark- noothness, and the facility with ers into musical composition. ork of it is Latin, and it is easily ood classical scholar. The Tus- ost in repute, and the Roman . The Lord's Prayer runs thus:— ro, che sei nel cielo, sia santi- me; il tuo regno venga; la tua a siccome in cielo così anche in gi il nostro pane cotidiano; e itri debiti, siccome noi ancora ostri debitori; e non inducici ma liberaci dal maligno; per- regno, e la potenza, e la gloria, Amen."

1.—Among the antiquities of hitheatres claim the first rank, he most wonderful specimens of ificence. There are at Rome emains of that called the Coli- vas erected by Vespasian, and nitian. Twelve thousand Jewish mployed in building it by Ves- is said to have been capable of 00 spectators seated, and 20,000 e architecture of this amphi- fectly light; and its proportions t it does not appear so large as But, at various times, and by s, it has been stripped of all its llars and ornaments. Its de- egun by the Goths, and other d popes and cardinals have mplete its ruin. Cardinal Far- ular, robbed it of some fine re- arble cornices and other orna- vith infinite pains and labour, was practicable of the beautiful e, which he employed in erecting family.

eatre of Verona, erected by the ius, is in a fine state of pre- e external wall, which was of ld 1300 feet in circumference, e Tuscan style, was all but de- go: but there remain forty-five or ranges of seats, carried all f fine blocks of marble. Twenty- persons may be seated here, if ot and a half for each person. atre has been occasionally re- xpense of the inhabitants; and s give public spectacles in it, races, combats of wild beasts, ntains also other vestiges of the

theatres and amphitheatres are in other places. At *Rome*, *tri-* umphal arches of Titus, Septimius Severus, and Constantine the Great, are still standing, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, answer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is converted into a modern church, and which, from its circular figure, is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple now remaining. There are still left several of the niches which anciently contained the statues of the heathen deities. The outside of the building is of Tivoli free-stone, and within it is incrusted with marble. The roof is a round dome, without pillars, and its diameter is 144 feet; and, though it has no window, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement consists of large square stones and porphyry, sloping round toward the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain. The colonnade in the front, which consists of 16 columns of granite, 37 feet high, exclusive of the pedestals and capitals, each cut out of a single block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without astonishment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns 48 feet high, and the architrave is formed of a single piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vase of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain, with a basin of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter of inferior altitude, but both of them covered with historic sculpture, are still remaining. On the Trajan column there are no less than 2500 figures. A traveller forgets the devastations of the northern barbarians, when he sees the rostrated column erected by Duilius, in commemoration of the first naval victory which the Romans gained over the Carthaginians—the statue of the wolf giving suck to Romulus and Remus, with visible marks of the strokes of lightning, mentioned by Cicero—the original brass plates, containing the laws of the twelve tables—and a thousand other identical antiquities, some of them transmitted unhurt to the present times—not to mention medals, and the infinite variety of seals and engraven stones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, throughout Italy, are furnished with busts and statues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the first 200 miles, the second 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places still entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reservoirs, bridges, tombs, and the like, present themselves in every part of Italy. The subterraneous constructions of Italy are as stupendous as those above ground; such are the cloacæ or sewers, and the catacombs, or repositories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of *Rome* and Naples.

The curiosities of Herculaneum excite the attention of every classical antiquary. That city, situated between Naples and Mount Vesuvius, was, in the reign of Nero, almost destroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the first year of the reign of Titus, was overwhelmed by a shower of ashes, followed by a stream of lava. In its course the melted lava filled up the streets in some places to the height of 68 feet above the tops of the houses, and in others 110 feet. This lava is now of a consistency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is composed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallic, and vitrified sandy substances, which form a close and heavy mass. In the revolution of so many ages, the spot upon which the town stood was forgotten; but, in the year 1713, on digging into these parts to make a well, some remains of the city were discovered, and many antiquities were taken out. The search was afterwards discontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig to the depth of 80 feet. Not only the city then made its appearance, but also the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter and another temple were disclosed, and the whole of the theatre was uncovered. In one temple was found a statue of gold; and, in the theatre, the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze appeared, with horses of the same metal, likewise gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. There were likewise found among the ruins, multitudes of statues, busts, pillars, paintings, manuscripts, furniture, and various utensils, most of which are deposited in the museum of the palace at Portici. The streets of the town appear to have been quite straight and regular, the houses well built, and much alike; some of the rooms paved with mosaic, others with fine marble, and some with bricks three feet long and six inches thick. Nearly the whole of the excavation has since been filled up, and only a small part of the theatre is now accessible.

The town of Pompeii was destroyed by the same eruption which overwhelmed Herculaneum, but was covered only with stones, cinders, and ashes. Its ruins were discovered by means of a hoe striking against a statue of Minerva, which adorned the roof of a temple. The houses in general consisted only of a ground-floor with neat rooms, many of which had floors of Mosaic, and walls elegantly painted, with windows opening into a square court. One house appeared to have belonged to a statuary, as it was full of the vestiges of his art; another, by displaying chirurgical instruments, pointed out the profession of its last occupant; another was a sort of tavern. Suitable accommodations for hot and cold baths were discovered. A rectangular building was found with a colonnade toward the court, in the *style* of the late Royal Exchange at London, *but smaller*. Three temples have been discovered, dedicated to Jupiter, Hercules, and Venus; that of Jupiter is 120 feet long, and 43 feet wide, and appears to have been 60 feet high. Two theatres have also been partly preserved, and they were seemingly well adapted both for seeing and hearing; the largest would contain 5000 persons. The ruins of a spacious and well-constructed amphitheatre are likewise visible. The high street had a raised pavement for foot passengers, and the middle was formed in some places of lava, and in others of marble. Few skeletons were found in the streets, but a considerable number in the houses.

But, of all the Italian antiquities, those of the Etrurians are, perhaps, the most curious. Etruria was a highly civilized state before Rome was in existence. The discovery of the principal Etruscan antiquities is comparatively of recent date. Many tombs of this ancient people have been opened, and numerous bronzes, vases, urns, pictures, pieces of armour, golden ornaments, &c., &c., have been found. An animated account of the contents of some of these tombs has been given by Mrs. Gray. She thus describes one of the pictures which she saw in the ruined city of Tarquinia:—"In the picture in the middle wall are three couches, each containing a man and a woman, and in front of two of them are tables covered with vases, while in front of the other is a large vessel, out of which wine is poured into smaller vessels, to be handed round to the guests. There is a sort of buffet at the side, filled with cups and vessels of various forms. The richness and beauty of the party-coloured coverings of the tables and of the couches are remarkable, as well as the splendid festal dresses of the guests, and their crowns of ivy and olive. An attendant richly dressed plays on the flute, while a naked boy serves the tables, having in one hand a small vase, and in the other an instrument with which he is studiously sprinkling the meats with salt, or some other condiment. The guests are turning to each other in various attitudes, and with lively gestures, and seem much more occupied with the pleasures of society than with those of the table. But the feast is already begun, for one of the ladies is in the act of eating an egg, while the gentleman next her is emptying a cup to her health. The ladies are adorned with rich necklaces and bracelets. Ointments and perfumes also, so essential to the luxurious habits of the ancients, are not wanting to this banquet. The clatter of the dishes, and the smell of the meats, have attracted to the feast a tame cat, a partridge, and a cock, which are assiduously picking up the crumbs of good things. Above the couches hang crowns or chaplets, with which the guests, at the end of the entertainment, used to adorn their heads, necks, and arms, when they took their luxurious siesta, or further indulged in the pleasures of the goblet. The feast being concluded, the dance commences. The ballet consists of eight per-

nusicians are two, a player on
e on the double flute; but even
rt in the dance. The prima
es her hands as if she had
the last holds a wreath of ivy,
t of them are crowned. They
ıely buskined, and accompany
ı lively movement of the head
ı reminded me of the tarantela.
these dancers are of the most
als, embroidered with minute
ıed with party-coloured garni-
ks are ornamented with costly
ars with pendants, and their
ılets. The youths are divided
ng girls by olive and myrtle
ith chaplets, in the branches
perched various birds; while
deer, and other animals are
ıe stems, or gambolling below
ment of the feast. The vase
round is filled with wine, to be
nceæs, in honour of Bacchus.
urians believed in a future state
nishment, is proved by indica-
bs. In one of them there is a
ısists of a procession of souls
represents the soul of a person
e been of doubtful character,
od and evil being attributed to
ease the nicely-balanced scales
ıle. He is dragged in a car
by two winged genii, the one
ther evil, who are contending
e possession of him. In the
ute the car stops, they cannot
remain stationary to mark the
ation of the deceased. The
ıresented as black, and all the
cothurnus, or buskin, of that
sacred among the Etruscans
xistences, especially the genii
:h, and sleep. It is not winged,
wings in a sheath, and reaches
eg. The genii are all winged;
ıf which there are many, have

the Tarquinian tombs, Signor
d the remains of an Etrurian
d down on him for five minutes,
e above the door of the sepul-
ictly saw him, crowned with
armour, with a shield, spear,
his side, and extended on his
a change soon came over the
ed, and crumbled, and vanished
ıe time that an entrance was
at remained was the golden
ndful of dust, with some frag-
ms. This sudden mouldering
se, on the admission of the
by no means an uncommon

THE LOMBARDO-VENETIAN KINGDOM.

This kingdom, which comprehends the Austrian possessions in Italy, consists of the former duchies of Milan and Mantua, the Valteline, and the provinces which once belonged to the Venetian republic. It now forms two administrative divisions, the Lombard and the Venetian, each of which is subdivided into delegations or provinces. The Lombard delegations are Milan, Como, Sondrio, Pavia, Lodi, Bergamo, Brescia, Cremona, and Mantua; the Venetian are, Venice, Padua, Vicenza, Verona, Rovigo, Treviso, Belluno, and Udine. These are again further subdivided into districts and communes. Each delegation has at its head a delegate, each district a commissary, and each commune a podestà, or local magistrate.

Chief Towns, Government, &c.—Milan, the capital of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and the residence of the viceroy, is one of the most flourishing cities in Italy. Its immediate fortifications are insignificant; but the citadel is a place of great strength. The handsome buildings are too numerous to be particularized in this sketch. The cathedral is one of the most stately and splendid edifices in Europe; but, though its foundations were laid in the year 1386, it is scarcely yet completed. Napoleon, who, when he first arrived in this part of Italy, viewed it with admiration and delight, ordered the works to be proceeded with when he assumed the Italian crown; and they have been continued by the Austrian government. The Jesuits' college was applied, in 1766, to the use of a university which Maria Theresa then endowed. There are many other institutions connected with the important object of education, and some well-conducted establishments for the relief of the poor. Not only the admirers of the fine arts have the benefit of an academy, but there is one also for the promotion of agriculture and the mechanic arts. The trade of the town is considerable, and manufactures are numerous; among which those of silk and velvet are particularly worthy of notice. The population is about 155,000.

When the Milanese territory was under the government of its own dukes, it gave law to the other states of Italy; and, when it was transferred to the Austrians, it was considered, even under its degradation, as a very important province. It was supposed to be capable of raising an army of 30,000 men, who formed better soldiers than the southern Italians: yet its revenue did not far exceed £350,000 sterling, including the produce of the Mantuan duchy. When it composed the principal part of Napoleon's kingdom of Italy, he probably rendered it more productive. He gave it the form of a representative government; but his arbitrary influence predominated over all external appearances. The new realm is governed for the emperor by a prince of his family, without *those checks* which every country ought to

have upon its rulers; yet the administration is represented as mild and paternal.

Bergamo, Brescia, Pavia, Cremona, and Mantua, the latter of which is celebrated for its fortifications, are the other principal towns of this division.

The former Venetian territory, now a part of the kingdom of Lombardy, was one of the most celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its constitution and former power. As to the constitution of the subverted republic, it was originally democratic, the magistrates being chosen by a general assembly of the people, and it so continued for 150 years; but various changes afterwards took place: doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were invested with great power, which they often so grossly abused, that some of them were put to death by the people. By degrees, a body of hereditary nobility was formed; progressive encroachments were made on the national rights; and a complete aristocracy was at length established upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobles were divided into six classes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, was by right a member of the grand council. Before the late revolution, these elected a doge in a peculiar manner by ballot, which was managed by gold and silver balls. He was invested with great state, and with emblems of supreme authority, but possessed very little power, and was not even permitted to go out of the city without the permission of the grand council. The government and laws were administered by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwise called the signory, was the supreme cabinet council of the state, and also the representative of the republic. It gave audience, and delivered answers, to foreign ambassadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and the military commanders. It also received all requests and memorials on state affairs, summoned the senate at pleasure, and arranged the business to be discussed in that assembly. The council often took cognizance of state crimes, and had the power of seizing accused persons, examining them in prison, and taking their answers in writing, with the evidence against them. But the tribunal of state inquisitors, which consisted only of three members, and which was in the highest degree despotic in its manner of proceeding, had the power of deciding, without any appeal, on the life of every citizen belonging to the Venetian state; the highest of the nobility, even the doge himself, not being excepted. These inquisitors were allowed to employ spies, to act upon secret intelligence, to issue orders for the seizure of all persons whose words or actions they might think reprehensible, and afterwards try them and put them to death. They had keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and could thus penetrate into the very bedchamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers, and, in course, might command access to the house of every individual in the community. They continued in office only one year, but were not responsible afterwards for the conduct which they had pursued while in authority. So much distrust was displayed by this government, that the noble Venetians were afraid of having any intercourse with ambassadors, or foreigners of any kind, and were even cautious of visiting each other.

Notwithstanding the terrific nature of this government, it was exercised in modern times with such lenity, that many of the Venetians would rather revert to it than to be subject to Austrian domination; and it is said that the arbitrary treatment of the people, during the emperor's first possession of the country, before the French withdrew it from his yoke, gave them a strong disgust to that transfer to which their weakness obliged them to submit. But it does not appear that, since the incorporation of the Venetian provinces with the Milanese, the yoke has been so grievous or oppressive as to produce general discontent.

While the superb Genoa stands on the shore, the equally stately city of Venice seems to lie in the sea. It is seated on a great number of islands near the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and is separated from the continent by a strait of four miles in breadth. The grandeur of this city is almost beyond expression. "Its churches, palaces, and public buildings of every description," says Mr. Eustace, "and sometimes even its private edifices, have in their size, materials, and decorations, a certain air of magnificence truly Roman." Among the churches, those of St. Mark and St. Zemiaiano, Della Salute, and the greater St. George, are, if not the most splendid, highly worthy of the most attentive notice. The ducal palace is a fabric of vast extent, of great solidity, and of venerable appearance. A late tourist says, "The richest palace in interior decoration that I saw, was that of the Grimani family. Its floors are of marble, the tables of precious stones, the chairs and curtains of rich silk, the walls covered with looking-glasses; and it contains a cabinet of valuable antique sculpture, and some of Titian's finest portraits. All that it wanted of an eastern palace was light and air, with distant vistas of hill and grove." Such, indeed, is the architectural splendour of Venice, that it has, not unaptly, been called the maritime Palmyra.

The arsenal of Venice is one of the best in Europe, considered as a repository; but it is miserably deficient in arms, stores, and shipping. The celebrated Rialto is a very bold arch, of a considerable but now far from unprecedented span, thrown over the grand canal. Round this spot is said to have been the seat of the original city, founded in the fifth century. The halls and chapels of various commercial fraternities are all of noble proportions, richly furnished, and decorated, like the churches, with masterly works of the pencil. It is perhaps unnecessary to observe, that a city which

some distance, seems to be in a
t in the sea, must not only be an
it an incommodious place of resi-
latness of the situation, the effluvia
ıy canals, the narrowness of the
necessity of making use of gon-
crossing a multiplicity of ill-con-
ages, and the want of pleasant
ralks, are sufficient to deter a
n settling in this renowned city.
Revolution in this state, the capital
0,000 inhabitants; but the popula-
:reased considerably since that
es not exceed about 115,000 persons.
rce of the city has also declined:
insignificant or contemptible; for
: mirrors produced by the Venetian
rs, their scarlet cloth, wrought
mbroidered articles, and gold and
are still in great request; and their
opiously receive and re-export the
of other nations. The harbour is
venient, nor is it altogether safe at
; but, to protect the city and port
well and the storms of the Adriatic,
part, more than twenty yards wide,
x yards above the waves, has been
locks of Istrian stone for between
e miles along the shore. It bears
but emphatic inscription, "Ausu
: Veneto"—with Roman daring and
id.

of Venice, at the commencement
century, was very formidable, if it
ge are informed, of 300 ships of
h 80,000 men were ready to act, and
ys, in which 11,000 served. The
essels, at the same time, amounted
in 1782, not so many as 400 were
Before the subversion of the re-
navy dwindled to 12 ships of the
ates, and 15 galleys, beside a few
cutters. To maintain this fleet,
of about 16,000 men, and to pro-
r branches of the public service,
l a revenue of £1,500,000 sterling.
stical affairs, Venice had two patri-
uthority of one extended over all
s, but neither of them had much
religious sects, even Jews, Moham-
l Pagans, were tolerated by the
in the public exercise of their reli-
Protestants, who were only suffered
lod in private.

ians are a lively ingenious people,
y fond of theatrical amusements,
ommon relish for humour. They
al tall and well made; and many
ountenances are met with in the
enice, resembling those which are
to us by the pencils of Paul Ve-
ltian. The women are of a fine
ntenance, with expressive features,
easy address. The common people
bly sober, obliging to strangers,
their intercourse with each other.
As it was very much the custom to go about in masks at Venice, and great liberties were taken during the time of the Carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there was much more licentiousness of manners here than in other places; but this opinion seems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of strangers visit Venice during the time of the Carnival; and the ceremony of espousing the Adriatic, by throwing a ring into the sea, on Ascension-day, was also an object of attraction; but that custom is now discontinued.

Verona is beautifully situated near the Adige, partly on a hill, which forms the last swell of the Alps, and partly on the borders of an immense plain, extending from those mountains to the Apennines. Most of the streets are narrow and crooked; but some are wide, regular, and handsome. In the middle of that which is called the Corso, stands a double Roman gate, built of marble, and highly ornamented. The more pleasing remains of another gate form the front of an insignificant house; and a stately modern gate is also admired. Some fine palaces and religious structures likewise decorate the city: among the latter, the chapel of St. Bernardino and the painted cloister of St. Zeno are more particularly striking. The museum is elegantly built, and contains a large collection of antiquities, principally formed and arranged by Maffei, a learned Veronese. When the French, during the revolutionary war, were masters of this town, they destroyed its fortifications, and wantonly injured some of the buildings, beside committing many base acts of depredation. The city has recently been re-fortified, on the tower system of the archduke Maximilian. For several centuries, Verona and the neighbouring territory composed an independent republic, which at length submitted to the superior power of Venice. Its present population is not inconsiderable, as it is supposed to be about 55,000. Here are considerable silk manufactories.

Vicenza, having been consigned to the flames by the emperor Frederic II., cannot be expected to display any Roman fabrics; but it contains numerous productions of modern genius, particularly many beautiful works of Palladio, who was born within its walls. The Olympic theatre, which was built in 1584, and is considered as his masterpiece, is now used for the meetings of a literary society. Twenty palaces, inferior to those of Genoa in materials and magnitude, but superior in beauty, are attributed to that celebrated architect, and form the glory of Vicenza. The silk manufactory flourishes at Vicenza, in the neighbourhood of which an immense quantity of the raw material is produced. The population of the city is about 31,000. The whole of the territory around it is very fertile, and is cultivated like a garden.

The decline of Padua has been frequently noticed, and travellers have repeated the observation, that grass grows in most of the streets; yet, says Mr. Eustace, "it is still a

of manufactures and trade. Padua is also remarkable for the first suspension-bridge which was erected in Italy, and for the most magnificent coffee-house in Europe, the walls, columns, and pavement being all of marble.

THE KINGDOM OF SARDINIA.

This kingdom consists of the island of Sardinia, in the Mediterranean, and the duchy of Savoy, the principality of Piedmont, and the late republic of Genoa, on the Italian mainland. The continental part is divided into eight intendancies, or military divisions, (Turin, Coni, Alexandria, Novara, Aosta, Nice, Genoa, and Chambery,) which, for civil purposes, are subdivided into forty small provinces. The island of Sardinia forms two divisions, those of Cagliari and Sassari, which are subdivided into eleven provinces. The population of the continental part is 4,123,750; of Sardinia, 524,600. The peace establishment of the Sardinian army is 25,000 men, which in war is augmented to four times that number. The maritime force consists of 26 sail, mostly of the smaller class.

The duchy of Savoy and principality of Piedmont, after being for many years under the sway of France, were restored, in 1814, to the king of Sardinia. Of the former territory Chambery is the capital, and Turin of the latter. There is a great difference in the population of each of these cities; for Chambery contains only about 15,000 inhabitants, while the gay metropolis of the principality has more than 114,000. The chief town of the duchy is situated in a fertile valley: it is defended by a citadel and other works in the old style of fortification

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without some reason; for,
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cent churches, and fine pal
it has only two wide stre
city being intersected by
lanes, full of ill-built and in
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the finest in the whole to
attract so many strangers
of San-Stefano, which exh
Martyrdom of St. Stephen
Raffaelle and Julio Roman
of the Albergo dei Poveri
institution, which display
relievo by Michael Angel
altar-piece by Puget. The
of the city are velvet, dam
tissue, and paper. It c
inhabitants. Its maritime
to a few galleys. The
wretched beyond expressi
part of the soil of its territ

onarch of Sardinia is Charles tober 2, 1798; married September ria Theresa, daughter of Ferdi- ke of Tuscany; by whom he has Emmanuel, duke of Savoy, born); and, 2. Ferdinand, duke of vember 15, 1822.

PARMA, to which Placentia and nited, forms one of the most es in Italy, in proportion to its s a population of 476,187 souls. le in corn and fruit; and con- factures of silk are carried on nts. The city of Parma is the op, and has a university; and rches and palaces are enriched tiful productions of Correggio. out 30,000 inhabitants, and Pla- ,000. Both are embellished with ifices. The late duke of Parma of the House of Bourbon, being hilip, the younger brother of Spain. His court was thought itest of any in Italy; and his ited to £175,000 sterling a year. , in 1803, the French took pos- luchy. On the ruin of Napoleon, ted it to his wife Maria Louisa, is it. On her death, the duke of ume the sovereignty, and the will be united to Tuscany.

f MODENA was restored by the nna to the House of Este, with tories of Mirandola and Massa. ntry is nearly of the same extent y of Genoa, or that of Parma; tion amounts to 378,700, of whom cupy the capital, which stands plain between the Secchia and is strengthened by a citadel. Of ale visitant of Italy says, "It is as that air of liveliness which dis- pital. Its general architecture elegant, and somewhat striking he majority of the streets being arcades, which add greatly to he place. The ducal palace is ucture, not (like that of Parma) a scale for the state, but com- , superbly furnished, and kept up yle. Among its decorations is beautiful marble, called scog- ht azure blue, slightly mixed ades of the same colour. The alace is numerous and excellent, gallery is esteemed one of the Reggio, an episcopal city, is ortance to the capital. It has its, a cathedral, public library, of natural history, the last of to the celebrated Spallanzani.

DUCHY OF TUSCANY consists of ad duchy, the state of the Pre- part of the isle of Elba which to Naples, the principality of the ancient imperial fiefs of Vernio, Montauto, and Monte Santa Maria. It is divided into five compartimenti, or compartments—Florence, Arezzo, Sienna, Grossetto, and Pisa, which are subdivided into several communes or districts. The population is 1,436,785. The military establishment is 5500 men, and the naval consists of four or five diminutive vessels.

Florence, its well-known capital, contains about 95,000 inhabitants. It is situated between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno. It is a place of some strength, and its large old structures, which were occasionally used as fortresses, have an imposing aspect, while its modern buildings make a more pleasing impression. The valuable antiquities accumulated in the courts and gardens of the mansion of the Medici family by Lorenzo the Magnificent, and the permission given by him to the Florentine artists to examine such fine models, rendered his residence a sort of studio, and led to the establishment of the celebrated gallery. The busts of the Roman emperors and other personages are very striking; two statues of Apollo, and the representation of the death of Laocoön and his two sons, are viewed with earnest attention; but, of the sculptural remains, the most admired is the statue of Venus, which, from the inscription on its base, appears to have been fabricated by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the son of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and is a model of fine proportions, beauty, and elegance. The scientific establishments of Florence are numerous, and of high reputation.

The palace Pitti is now the residence of the grand duke; and it is a brilliant school of pictorial art. Some of its apartments are decorated by many of the finest portraits and history-pieces that the world can exhibit, and the walls are said to "breathe an air of the highest art."

The other chief towns of Tuscany are Pisa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the first and last are much decayed, the population of Pisa having sunk from 150,000 to 20,000, and that of Sienna from 100,000 to 18,000; but the second, which the Italians call Livorno, is a very handsome city, built in the modern style with such regularity, that both gates are seen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts toward the sea, beside the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable prospect of the sea, and of many villas on the land side. Here all nations, even the Mohammedans, have free access, and are allowed to settle. The inhabitants are reckoned at more than 66,000, among whom are said to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handsome synagogue, which is the finest in Europe except that of Amsterdam, and, though subject to heavy imposts, are in a thriving condition. This town has a fine harbour, and docks in which 60-gun ships have been built; and its merchants supply a great part of Italy with

colonial produce, the commodities of the Levant, and the general merchandise of Europe. A new quarter of the town is now being constructed, which will add one-third to the size of Leghorn.

The description of Elba will be found under the head of "Italian Islands."

The sovereign of Tuscany is Leopold II., archduke of Austria, born October 3, 1797; married, first, to Mary Anne, daughter of Prince Maximilian of Saxony: by whom he has issue, Maria Caroline, born 1822, and Augustus, born 1825; and, secondly, in 1833, to Maria Antoinetta, daughter of the late king of Naples; by whom he has three daughters and two sons.

The inhabitants of the duchy of Lucca are among the most industrious of the Italians. The population of the duchy is about 169,000. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, so that the annual revenue of the state amounts to more than £100,000 sterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 22,000 inhabitants, who deal in silk, wine, and fruit, especially olives. It has a university, which now bears the classical name of Lyceum, with various scientific and literary institutions. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuscany kept, of old, the people of Lucca constantly on their guard, in order to preserve their freedom; for, in such a situation, universal concord and harmony could alone enable them to preserve the blessings of their darling liberty, whose name they bore on their arms, and whose image was not only impressed on their coin, but also on the city gates, and all their public buildings. They have now, however, lost their republican liberty, being subjected to Duke Charles Louis, son of Maria Louisa, infanta of Spain.

The republic of St. Marino, which is situated in the midst of the papal territory, between Cesena, Rimini, and Urbino, is here mentioned as a geographical curiosity. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences near the bottom, containing the town of the same name, and four villages; and the inhabitants boast of having preserved their liberties as a republic, with no intermission, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope, and has about 8000 inhabitants.

The Ecclesiastical or Papal State has an area of nearly 18,000 square miles, and a population of nearly 2,800,000. It is divided into twenty-one provinces, which are variously denominated by the name of Comarca, Legation, Delegation, and Commissariat. Rome and its district constitute a Comarca, and Loretto a Commissariat. The Legations, so called because each of them is governed by a legate, are Bologna, Ferrara, Forli, Ravenna, Urbino with Pesaro, and Velletri. The Delegations are Ancona, Macerata, Camerino, Ascoli, Ferino, Perugia, Spoleto, Rieti, Orvieto, Viterbo, Civita Vecchia, Frosinone, and Benevento.

Rome, formerly the splendid capital of civilized paganism, is the capital territory. That city is thirteen ference, and its population pro to nearly 160,000. It stands u an inconsiderable river when c Thames, navigated only by s barges.

The castle of St. Angelo, t fortress, would be found to be of if it should be regularly besie standing upon the ruins of anc much higher, so that it is diff guish the seven hills on which built. When we consider R stands, there is the strongest r that it exceeds the old town cence of its structures. Noth the city, when it was mistres could come in competition w church; and probably other ch exceed, in beauty of architectu materials, utensils, and furnitu temples, though it must be ack the Pantheon must have bee structure. No city, in its gene can unite more magnificence a this; as, adjoining the most su see the meanest habitations, a boasted ornaments of antiquit sheds and cottages. It is, how points of view, a most attrac even a cursory survey of its c occupy a long period. The p laces, those of the chief nobilit structures, the colleges and ac with the numerous remains of most striking of which we hav another place) to interest the very high degree.

The cities of Bologna, Ferrar have been restored with their t pope. The first, which has about 71,000, is the most flou three, and therefore deserves, sient notice. Its situation is and picturesque. Villas and vi suburbs. Like Modena, it arcades; and, like other cities a number of fine paintings dis its churches and the mansions inhabitants. Lady Morgan say nese, always characterised by *francki e giocondi*, have ad French Revolution, to these an tions, a certain weight, which their improved system of edu sexes. By the overthrow of tutions, parents are obliged t children at home, or to send the schools newly established, wh lated to prepare the males for t and then for the world, and t domestic duties, once so little The abolition of vain distin served only to separate and dis willingly submitted to in Bolo

he peninsula; and the perma-
' this change are visible in the
of society, in which birth forms
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has a university, and once had
00 inhabitants, has now little
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ated on the Adriatic, is a place
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who formed a mole on the
cient one, raised by the emperor
2000 feet in length, 100 in
about 60 in depth, from the
e sea. Near this stands the
h of Trajan, which, next to
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arried thither through the air by
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sion, bowed with the profoundest
e image of the Virgin, and that
nfant, are of cedar, placed in a
nt, separated from the others by
rade, which had a gate of the
The two figures were loaded with
rings and jewels, emeralds,
bies; and the angels of solid
n every side, were equally en-
ecious stones. To the super-
lic princes Loretto was indebted
f treasure. But, on the approach
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rnment at Rome. Like other
guards, or *sbirri*, who keep the
ity, under proper magistrates,
tical and civil. The Campagna
h contains Rome, is under the
is holiness. In the other pro-
ns by legates and vice-legates.
ope is Gregory XVI. (formerly
Cardinal Capellari,) who was elected on the 2nd of February, 1831.

NAPLES and SICILY.—The monarch of these territories, or, as he is sometimes styled, the King of the Two Sicilies, possesses the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna Græcia, and the island of Sicily, containing, exclusive of the latter, in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-west, where Naples borders upon the Ecclesiastical State. The air is hot, and the soil fruitful. The kingdom of Naples is divided into thirteen provinces, and that of Sicily into seven. Those of Naples are Napoli, Terra di Lavoro, Principato Citeriore, Basilicata, Principato Ulteriore, Capitanata, Terra di Bari, Terra d'Otranto, Calabria Citeriore, Calabria Ulteriore I. and II., Mollise, Abruzzo Citeriore, and Abruzzo Ulteriore I. and II. The population is about 6,250,000.

The city of Naples, the capital, which is adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its charming neighbourhood, would be a most delightful place of residence were it not for the vicinity of Vesuvius, which sometimes seems to threaten the city with destruction, and for the number of insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous. The houses are inadequate to the population, but in general are five or six stories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower-vases, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the streets are very handsome: no street in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo at Naples, or the streets which are open to the bay.

Though above two-thirds of the property of the nation were in the hands of the ecclesiastics, before the French seized the kingdom in 1806, the Protestants lived here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majesty presented to his holiness every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom was a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquisition was established in Naples. The royal revenue amounted to about £1,400,000 sterling a year, of which Sicily only contributed £280,000. The exports of the kingdom were legumes, hemp, wool, oil, wine, cheese, fish, honey, wax, manna, saffron, gums, capers, macaroni, salt, pot-ash, flax, cotton, silk, and various manufactures. The king had a numerous but generally poor nobility, consisting of princes, dukes, marquises, and other high-sounding titles: and his capital, the most populous in Italy, contained at least 350,000 inhabitants. Among these there were 30,000 *lazzaroni*, or blackguards, the greater part of whom had no dwelling-houses, but slept every night in summer under porticoes, piazzas, or any kind of shelter they could find; and in the winter, or rainy time of the year, which lasts several weeks, the rain falling in torrents, they resorted to the caverns

under Capo di Monte, where they slept in crowds like sheep in a fold. Those who had wives and children lived in the suburbs of Naples, in huts or in caverns. Some gained a livelihood by fishing, others by carrying burdens to and from the shipping; many walked about the streets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very small recompense. As they did not meet with constant employment, their wages were not sufficient for their maintenance: but the deficiency was in some degree supplied by the soup, bread, and other provisions, which were distributed at the gates of the convents. But the success of the French, and their spirit of reform, occasioned a great change in some of these respects. If their hostility to monastic foundations soon showed itself, their conduct in that instance ought not to be severely blamed: but they deserve the asperity of censure for having aggravated the general poverty by extortion and rapine: they neither encouraged trade nor the arts, nor properly attended to the welfare and happiness of the nation. In one point, however, they acted in such a manner as to claim our praise. It is well known that the horrible practice of assassination was encouraged under the preceding government, by impunity; but the usurpers Joseph and Joachim repressed that enormity by condign punishment.

With regard to the present state of the country, we may observe, that it is not very flourishing: the energies of the people, which might make it a most desirable spot, are not properly called into action; and a general reform is requisite to give it its due rank among civilized kingdoms.

Although there is so much poverty among the middle and lower classes, there is a great appearance of wealth among some of the nobles, who are excessively fond of show and splendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richness of their dress, and the grandeur of their titles. The clergy also are addicted to parade and ostentation. Religious processions are more numerous and splendid at Naples than in Rome: the churches are more magnificently decorated, and more rich in silver.

In all parts of the kingdom of Naples the traveller may be said to tread on classic ground. There are still traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as, fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and granaries; and the scene of action between Hannibal and the Romans is still marked out to posterity by the name of *pezzo di sangue*—"the field of blood." Tarento was once the rival of Rome; but it is at present scarcely remarkable for anything but its extensive salt pits, and a tolerably active commerce. Sorrento, the birthplace of Tasso, stands on the verge of steep rocks that overhang the bay, and, of all the places in the kingdom, has the most delightful climate. Brindisi, formerly Brundusium, has a fine port; but the buildings are poor and ruinous, and it has only 6000 inhabitants: the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a state of inactivity and poverty, from which it has not emerged. Except Rome, no city can boast of so many remains of ancient sculpture as Benevento; while Reggio, though a flourishing commercial town, with 17,000 inhabitants, contains nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral.

ITALIAN ISLANDS.

Of these, the largest is Sicily, which has a circumference of about 470 miles, an area of about 9000, and a population of 1,958,000 souls. It is divided into seven provinces: Palermo, Messina, Catania, Girgenti, Noto, Trapani, and Caltanisetta. Both the ancients and moderns have maintained that it was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually separated from it by the encroachments of the sea, and the shocks of earthquakes, so as to become a perfect island. Its climate is so hot, that even in the beginning of January the shade is refreshing; and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a small fire is sufficient to banish the cold. The only appearance of winter is found near the summit of Mount Ætna, where snow falls, which the inhabitants preserve for use, as our pastry-cooks do ice. Next to Ætna, the chief mountains of Sicily, says Captain Smyth, are "the Madoria and Pelorian or Neptunian ranges, from which inferior chains diverge in various ramifications. These are of primitive formation, more or less covered with calcareous strata, intermixed with pyrites, schistus, talc, and marine deposits, and abounding with mineral riches and organic remains." The soil is of considerable depth, and, by the genial influence of the climate, with the aid of volcanic impregnations, vegetation is rendered very quick and abundant. With regard to the aspect of the country, he observes, that "the appearance of the coast is romantic, and formed by nature into strong positions of defence, while the interior presents a combination of mountains, ravines, and valleys, the last of which in many parts branch out into extensive plains, possessing a soil exuberantly fertile, and animated by numerous flocks and herds. The hilly regions, presenting alternately undulating slopes, bold crags, and rugged elevations, with woody declivities, complete the prospect."

The Sicilians in general have good natural capacities, which, however, they do not properly cultivate. In conversation they are cheerful, fanciful, and inquisitive; their delivery, like that of the people of Naples, is vehement, rapid, full of action, and their gesticulation violent; the latter is so significant as almost to possess the powers of speech. But, says Mr. Smyth, the principal trait of Sicilian character is an "effeminate laziness among persons of easy circumstances, which they attempt to excuse, by alleging the intense heat of the climate, without either taking example from the warmer regions of Egypt and India, or the

e British colonists in the torrid
ıding to the practical illustration
ave near them, in the hardy labour
ıdustry of the peasants and porters

and science appear to be at a low
. A considerable number of *lite-*
extemporaneous versifiers, may
ınd, and there are many who have
of science; but the learning which
is rather the glitter of a fictitious
e radiance of a true one.
ıe capital, is supposed to contain
inhabitants. The two principal
ing each other, form a regular
illished with handsome and uni-
rs. The palaces of the viceroy and
op, the cathedral, and many other
e town-house, several hospitals,
-felice, or happy gate, are striking
iew of the city; but, in the opinion
all these are inferior in construc-
ıbellishments to that edifice which
a college of the Jesuits. The uni-
ı was founded in 1447, has about 600
l a library of 40,000 volumes.
earthquake of the year 1783, Mes-
arge, handsome, and flourishing
ıt dreadful accident, a great part
district, and of the port, was de-
ıo small damage done to the lofty
ldings called the "Palazzata," in
a crescent; but the force of the
ras inconsiderable at Messina or
ared with its violence in the plain;
the supposed population of the
are said to have perished. "The
tality fell upon those towns and
ıated in the plain of Ulterior Ca-
e western side of the mountains
and Caulone. At Casal-Nuovo,
Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the
lost their lives: at Bagnara, the
ead amounted to 3017; Radicina
unt their loss at 3000 each;
about 1400; Seminari still more.
ıl of the mortality in both Cala-
Sicily, by the earthquakes alone,
the returns in the office of the
ıtate at Naples, was 32,367." But
Hamilton says, he has good reason
ıt, including strangers, the num-
ost must have been considerably
0 at least may be allowed, he be-
t exaggeration. Messina has at
red in a degree from the effects of
ce. Its advantageous situation
, its good harbour, its silken
, the fruit and wine, and other
s environs, will always command
he inhabitants are attentive to
rest. It is strongly fortified, and
re among the most populous and
ıl parts of the island.
er the earthquake of 1693, rose
s, like the phœnix, with fresh
splendour. The city is elegantly built, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants; manufactures and trade are carried on with spirit and success; and the inhabitants are distinguished by their superiority to the rest of the islanders in politeness and social virtues.

Syracuse, which has a population of 14,000, displays some vestiges of its ancient importance. The ruins of its theatre and amphitheatre, having been excavated in the rock on which the city was built, are still considerable; and the catacombs remain, to excite the wonder of the spectator. It has two harbours, between which stands the citadel, a work of great strength; but its trade is insignificant. The remains of its ancient splendour form its chief attraction for the traveller.

The present monarch of the Two Sicilies is Ferdinand II., born January 12, 1810; succeeded to the throne in 1830; married, first, in 1832, to Maria Christina, daughter of the late king of Sardinia; by whom he has issue, Francis, prince royal, born in 1836; and, secondly, in 1837, to Maria Theresa, archduchess of Austria, by whom he has Louis, born 1838; Albert, born 1839; and Alfonso, born 1841.

The island of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles south by west of Leghorn: it is 140 miles in length, and, on an average, 60 in breadth, is intersected from north to south by mountains, the summits of some of which are generally covered with snow. It is divided into the provinces of Cagliari and Sassari. The lower grounds are fertile, and produce the finest wheat and barley, oil and wine; but the land does not receive its full share of cultivation. In the hands of an industrious and intelligent people, this island would be far more productive than it now is, and might be rendered the seat of a very lucrative commerce. It has mines of silver and of lead, a variety of precious stones, and quarries of granite and porphyry. A tunny fishery is carried on along the coast; the natives also fish for coral with success; salt is a great article of exportation; and barilla, though inferior to that of Spain, is furnished in considerable quantities. The skins of wild and tame animals may be procured in abundance; and all kinds of provisions may be obtained on more reasonable terms than in any other part of the Mediterranean, except Algier.

Cagliari, which is the Sardinian capital, and the see of an archbishop, has about 30,000 inhabitants. It has a safe harbour, and carries on a considerable trade. A castle and other fortifications, and a cathedral, built by the Pisans, give an air of dignity to the place, and the university adds to its respectability, though it has not diffused any great degree of learning over the island. There is also a seminary for the particular instruction of the rustic children, who, when they are invited to the metropolis for that purpose, are allowed to attend the school even while they are in domestic service.

Sassari, which contains about 20,000 inhabit-

ants, is the next town to Cagliari, in point of importance, and is superior to it in healthiness. It has a university, and various institutions. An excellent carriage-road has lately been made, which extends the whole length of the island, from Sassari to Cagliari, and has branch roads to the chief towns.

The islanders are a motley assemblage, in consequence of the number of nations that have at different times possessed the country. The Iberi from Spain are supposed to have been the first inhabitants; the Carthaginians, Romans, Vandals, Saracens, Pisans, Genoese, Spaniards, and Piedmontese, have successively exercised their sway over the island. To the House of Savoy it has belonged since the quadruple alliance of the year 1718. During the long usurpation of Savoy and Piedmont by the French, it was honoured with the residence of the sovereign; but it is now consigned to a vice-regal administration, as the king is more pleased with the *agrémens* of Turin, and the manners of his continental subjects, than with the meanness of Cagliari or the rudeness of the skin-clad provincials.

The island of CORSICA, one of the French departments, is about 116 miles long, and 51 in its greatest breadth. It has a population of about 210,000 souls. A mountainous chain traverses the country from north to south, the highest point being 8700 feet above the level of the sea. The heat of the summer is moderated by the sea-breeze; but the cold of the winter is intense; and the exhalations from the low grounds are frequently productive of disorders. The soil is not infertile; and corn, wine, oil, and fruit, might be produced in great abundance, if the natives were active and industrious; but, unfortunately, they are diametrically the reverse. Mines of copper, lead, and iron, and quarries of marble, are found in the island. The strongest and most populous town is Bastia, which was occupied, in 1841, by 14,568 persons. It is a place of considerable trade: its exports consist of grain, flour, oil, wine, citrons, hides, and oak bark. It has a royal college, a royal hydrographical school, and a public library. Ajaccio, the birthplace of Napoleon, has about 10,000 inhabitants, is the seat of government, and the see of a bishop; it is well-built, and has a good harbour, with a considerable commerce. Corte was the seat of government while Paoli was struggling for the independence of his country. The island has been successively in the hands of the Carthaginians, Romans, Goths, Saracens, Pisans, Genoese, French, and English. Our countrymen were not suffered long to retain it, though they endeavoured to conciliate the inhabitants by the grant of a representative government. It was recovered by the French in 1796; but they derived little benefit from it. Hospitality is the chief virtue of a Corsican: it is one of the first duties instilled into his mind in his infancy. But his general character is not so friendly as that circumstance would induce us to suppose; for there is a degree of fierceness in his demeanour which is unpleasant and repulsive. He compels his wife to be his drudge and his slave; he rides on his mule, while she paces along at his side: and he expects that she will attend to the concerns of agriculture, while he smokes his pipe in the shade, or roams about the mountains with his dog and his gun. It might be thought that the fondness of the Corsicans for poetry would soften their manners in this respect; for a poetical turn is usually accompanied with gallantry. They are great *improvisatori*, and some of the songs and other pieces which they compose or recite are very interesting. The worst feature in the character of the Corsican is his love of revenge, which is uncontrollable, and is transmitted from father to son, from one generation to another.

CAPRI, the ancient Capreæ, is an island at the entrance of the Gulf of Naples, to which Augustus Cæsar often retired for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a scene of the most infamous pleasures. It extends four miles in length from east to west, and about one in breadth. The western part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, very high, and inaccessible next to the sea; yet Ana-Capri, the largest town, is situated here; and in this part are several places which have a very fruitful soil. The eastern end of the island also rises in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite so long, as the western. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a slip of lower ground that runs across the island, and is one of the pleasantest spots that can easily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, various fruit-trees, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely fresh and beautiful, and afford a most delightful little landscape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. In the midst of this fertile tract rises a hill, probably covered, in the reign of Tiberius, with buildings, some remains of which still appear: but the most considerable ruins are at the extremity of the eastern promontory. The island contains between 3000 and 4000 inhabitants, and exports wine and quails, of which latter, great numbers are annually taken.

ELBA is a small island near the Tuscan coast, about 18 miles in length and about 10 in its greatest breadth. It was divided between the grand duke of Tuscany and the king of Naples, one of whom possessed the port of Ferrajo, and the other that of Longone. On the deposition of the emperor Napoleon, he was allowed to exercise full sovereignty over it; but he was soon disgusted with the insignificant grant. It now belongs to the grand duke of Tuscany. The metallic wealth of the island was known to the Romans. Beside iron, for the excellence of which it was anciently famous, it has mines of copper, tin, and lead: vitriol, sulphur, and the load-stone, are also among its products; but it is not fertile in corn, though it boasts of oil and wine. The

the island is about 14,000, of
1 3000 and 4000 reside in Porto
pital.

ISLANDS lie to the north of
re anciently called the Æolian
are twelve in number, five of
e barren rocks, are subject to
ples, and produce great quanti-
ulphur, nitre, cinnabar, and most
n great perfection; and some of
e much esteemed. Great quan-
e are exported from Lipari. All
re of volcanic origin, and Strom-
000 feet high, is remarkable
inually in a state of eruption.
about 12,500 inhabitants, Saline
aboli 300; but Vulcano is unin-

introduce MALTA, though it is
anked with the Italian islands.
ernmost island in Europe, and
reen Sicily and Africa. Its cir-
about 44 miles, its length 17½,
1 10. It contains two cities and
lages. The old capital is called
, the city, by way of eminence,
1 name is Città Vecchia, and its
Città Notabile. Its most re-
tures are the cathedral and the
grand master. The catacombs
nearly as great attention as the
s surface; they are very exten-
ey contain regular streets in all
y have procured for the place
of the subterraneous city. On
hich is defended by the fort of
ds the city of Valetta, neatly
. The fortifications may be
nable. Most of the houses have
the roofs form a terrace, fur-
es leading to the cisterns, so as
a place where fresh water is
drop of rain. Some of the
very rich before the arrival of
ho studiously reduced them to
poverty; not from any love of
simplicity, but from their
ity to plunder. Of the other
gs, the most striking are the
different knightly fraternities,
the treasury, town-hall, and
e.

lta is clear, but excessively hot.
owever, is one of the steadiest
l is free from all pestilential
whole island is a white rock,
thin surface of earth; yet, by
perseverance, the inhabitants
all apparent obstacles to culti-
the shallow soil," says Mr.
1 a manner forced to support its
r, although it produces very
cotton raised in the island is a
wealth to the inhabitants. The
does not, however, consist so
ortation of its produce, (among
which oranges and all kinds of fruit are not the least considerable,) as in the supplies of various articles received in English, French, and Italian vessels, and in large importations of grain from Italy." The cotton gloves and stockings, manufactured in this island, and in the adjacent isle of Gozo, are in high repute.

From the reign of Charles V. to the time of the French Revolution, the island remained under the government of the gallant knights of St. John of Jerusalem, a religious and military order founded in 1104, soon after the first crusade. Being driven by the Turks from the isle of Rhodes, they were permitted by the emperor, in 1530, to settle in Malta. When the English took the island from the French, who had treacherously seized it, they were willing to recognise the authority of the knights, if the independence of the order should be guaranteed by the chief powers of Europe; but the intrigues and encroachments of Napoleon induced our court to retain an important station, which, by the convenience of its situation and its extraordinary strength, might contribute with Gibraltar to secure the command of the Mediterranean.

The population of the island is not much less than 125,000. The majority of the inhabitants are of African descent. They are characterized by M. de Boisgelin, as "very industrious, active, faithful, economical, courageous, and the best sailors in the Mediterranean:" but he adds, that they are "mercenary, passionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving." It is obvious, that the censure which M. de Boisgelin bestows, can apply only to a part of the population, and that but a small one, and that there is no country to some of the inhabitants of which it might not justly be applied. The Maltese are much attached to the British government, by which their prosperity has been so greatly increased.

ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.—The order of St. Januarius was instituted by the king of Naples, in 1738. He limited the number of knights to thirty, and required that all should prove the nobility of their descent for four centuries. St. Januarius, the celebrated protector of Naples, is the patron of this order. The order of the Annunciation was instituted in 1355, by Amadeus V. count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I., who bravely defended Rhodes against the Turks. It is reckoned among the most respectable orders in Europe: the knight must be a Catholic, of a noble family. In 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, instituted the order of St. Lazarus, and revived and united to it the obsolete order of St. Maurice, or the Annunciation, which was confirmed by the pope, on the condition of maintaining two galleys against the Turks.

It is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in 828, to Venice. This saint was immediately declared by the government and people to be their guardian, and his picture was painted on their ensigns

... schemes, proclaimed at
ria the constitution of the Spanish
s; and, as the flame of liberty began
l over the country, the intimidated
gned the sovereignty. As his brother
the succession, Charles Albert acted
; but he soon relinquished his office.
dvance of an Austrian force, a slight
nsued, and the insurgents were over-
o submission. The king, persisting
dication, Charles Felix consented to
e throne, and the transient storm sub-

next ten years, the fire of revolution
ay smouldering under its ashes. The
the three days' struggle at Paris, in
le it once more burst forth. In the
le, three of the Italian states changed
sters, just at the period when the
had broken out in some parts, and
d to explode in others. In Novem-
, Francis I. of Naples died, and was
d by Ferdinand II., his son. Pope
I. expired on the last day of the same
nd was soon afterwards replaced by
Capellari, who assumed the name of
XVI. Charles Felix, the king of Sar-
d in the following April, and his suc-
s Charles Albert, who was supposed
ourable to some degree of reform,
, as the reader has just seen, had
ed in the schemes of Santa Rosa,

the Italian potentates, with one ex-
ad recognised the new monarch of
ey were not the less terrified by the
ch had placed him on the throne.
nian government, from its proximity
se of its fears, was, of course, the
ned. It ordered a general disarming
oyards, increased its army, strength-
rtresses, stopped, as far as possible,
unication with France, and drew
bonds of alliance with the Austrian
Austria also poured between 30,000
troops into its Lombardo-Venetian
nd its police manifested a largely
degree of vigilance and severity.
ptoms of dissatisfaction with the
order of things having appeared in
ity of Pavia, the students were dis-
heir homes, and the university was
be closed for twelve months. At
vise, the apprehensions which were
e rise to the arrest of several indi-
listinguished families, and to the

part in the revolution of July, had encouraged and stimulated the malcontents in Italy. The duke of Modena, one of the most despotic and worthless of the petty tyrants of Italy, was the only Italian ruler who had not recognised the Orleans dynasty, and his court had been an asylum for the Carlist refugees. It was in his capital that, on the 3rd of February, the insurrection was intended to be commenced. A rich merchant, named Menotti, was at the head of the insurgents: but they had been betrayed; and, while he and his confederates were at his house, preparing for an outbreak, the house was besieged by the military and police. The conspirators barricaded the dwelling, and made a stout resistance, which, however, was fruitless; for, cannon being brought against them, the building was nearly demolished, and thirty of them, among whom was Menotti, were made prisoners. In the course of a few days, nevertheless, the success of the Bolognese insurgents so frightened the duke, that he ran away to Mantua, taking with him Menotti, and Modena remained in possession of the revolters, who pillaged the ducal palace, and established a temporary government.

It was on the 4th of February that the insurrection took place at Bologna. The revolters being numerous, and the garrison consisting of only 700 men, the pro-legate humanely forbore from wasting human blood in a useless resistance, and consented to resign his authority into the hands of the insurgents. This success was the signal for similar risings in various parts of the Papal States; so that, in the course of four days, a considerable portion of those states had renounced the temporal supremacy of the pope. Even Ancona and its citadel were surrendered without an attempt at defence. Rome, however, against which the insurgents made some movements, remained faithful to the pope. Parma next essayed to throw off the yoke. A deputation of her subjects respectfully intimated to the duchess, that she must retire, as the inhabitants of the duchy had resolved to join the Italian confederacy. She accordingly retired to Piacenza. The leaders of the insurgents had hoped that Piedmont, Tuscany, and Naples would take a share in the insurrectionary movement; but in this they were disappointed, those states remaining quiet spectators of the contest. Nor were they more fortunate with respect to Lombardy, to the natives of which they addressed a proclamation, urging them to "break

the shameful chains in which they had been bound by the Holy Alliance." The Lombards, whatever might be their feelings, were too prudent to commit themselves in a struggle against the numerous forces of Austria, with such inadequate resources, and such feeble and unprepared allies.

Had the insurgents not openly declared their intention to overthrow the Austrian power in Italy, there is no doubt that Austria would have interfered to stop the progress of an insurrection which could not fail to endanger its authority; but the proclamation to the Lombards gave it an undoubted right to oppose men who had, in fact, issued against it a declaration of war. It is probable that the leaders of the revolt were tempted into this imprudent step by the declarations of France, that it would not allow the Austrian troops to interfere in the quarrel between the Italian princes and their subjects. France, however, deemed it prudent to forget its threats, and to leave the liberals of Italy to their fate.

Early in March, the Austrian army crossed the Po. One column bent its march towards Modena and Parma; while another, consisting of 20,000 men, proceeded to Bologna. The Modenese insurgents attempted to make a stand at Novi, but were overwhelmed, and all resistance in that quarter was at an end. The duke of Modena re-entered his capital, and gratified his sanguinary feelings by the establishment of military commissions for the slaughter of his offending subjects. With a nobler spirit, the duchess of Parma extended forgiveness to those who expelled her: the only penalty inflicted was the exclusion, for three years, from any public function, of the members of the congress by which the provisional government was established.

The insurgents of Bologna had collected some troops, but not sufficient in number to face the formidable disciplined army, which was advancing against them. Bologna was entered by the Austrians on the 21st of March, and they did not delay to follow up the enemy, who were retreating through the province of Romagna. At Rimini and Catholica, the insurgents made vain attempts to check their pursuers: though they fought bravely, and sustained severe loss, they were overpowered, and compelled to shut themselves up in Ancona. As the last resource, the chiefs of the revolt entered into a negotiation with Cardinal Benvenuto, who had been seized and sent to Ancona as a hostage. The cardinal consented to the terms which they proposed, and, in consequence, ninety-eight of them took their departure in a merchant vessel. They were, however, taken prisoners by an Austrian corvette, and sent to Vienna, where they were thrown into a dungeon. The pope refused to ratify the agreement which the cardinal had signed, and proceedings were instituted against some of the offenders, but no capital punishment was inflicted; and, on the whole, the papal government was deserving of praise for the clemency which it displayed. I several reforms in the judicial and tive departments, which were the mc as they were made in the moment In July, the Austrian troops were from the States of the Church; strances of France are said to ha their departure.

The insurrectionary spirit, thoug was not destroyed in Italy. In 1 displayed itself in various quarters. disturbances took place, which led to serious consequences, had vernment put a timely stop to the cany alarming symptoms appeare were dispelled by the prudence and of the grand duke. While Italy w tated by moral causes, it was also physical causes. Early in the y parts of it suffered severely from e These convulsions of nature, which as proofs of Divine anger against re furnished the despicable duke of M a pretext for persecuting his unfor jects. It is difficult to decide whet dered himself most hateful by his ridiculous by the fulsome panegyri his state papers, he lavished upon l passing talents and virtues. The F were, during this year, again in Conflicts took place between the troops and the civic guards of B Romagna, in which much blood This produced a second interven Austrian forces; and that interv made a reason, or a pretext, by Frar ing upon the fortress of Ancona.

The history of Italy, in the tw years, (1833-1834,) presents little t notice, except two abortive attem spiracy in Piedmont and Naples, a tinued tyranny of the pigmy sover dena. His tribunals deemed it proof of guilt in a prisoner, for hi been accustomed to converse wi whose opinions were hostile to t ment, or who were objects of its su

In 1835, Italy was visited by that ease the cholera morbus. It passed into Piedmont, in July, and made its upon the inhabitants of Coni. Then to Turin, Genoa, and many other Piedmontese territory. At Genoa nearly 3000 persons. Tuscany and t provinces were next ravaged by it, less degree. The consternation whi was universal and extreme, and gr was caused by the suspension of bc the stoppage of free communicat were caused by it. But this was onl to still greater horrors. In the tw years the scourge fell with redo upon this unfortunate country, an precipitated thousands into the gra lated to madness the passions of In 1836 and 1837, its ravages wer

lmost, the Lombardo-Venetian king- papal dominions, Naples, and Sicily. ast three of these states it was even tructive than in the others, and its ience was perhaps increased by the is measures of the government. Ignoirascible, the multitude refused to be- : the disease was produced by natural t was to the malignity of man that ibuted it. A furious cry arose, which ost general in southern Italy, that as the cause. The water, the wine, , the bread, were all declared to be . In the continental part of Italy fortunate persons were the victims of ard popular prejudice. But it was y in Sicily that this prejudice was ciously manifested. At Palermo, Sy- atania, and many other towns, exten- sacres took place. The Neapolitan ent was at length obliged to send) Sicily, to prevent and punish these es. Military commissions were insti- the trial of the offenders, and num- e punished with death. At Catania a tempt had been made to direct the fury of the mob to revolutionary purposes, and this circumstance afforded the government a pretext for curtailing the privileges of the Sicilians, and incorporating their island with the kingdom of Naples. Their privileges were, however, subsequently restored. Towards the close of 1837 the cholera ceased. In Palermo alone it had destroyed more than 25,000 persons.

While, in 1836 and 1837, Sicily was thus suffering, the condition of the island of Sardinia was greatly ameliorated. By various decrees, in those two years, the monarch suppressed the feudal jurisdictions, both civil and criminal, promulgated a new civil code, abolished all personal services, established an improved municipal administration, and made several other reforms of an important kind.

For the last five years the peace of Italy has not been disturbed. Most of the rulers of that country seem to have made their subjects feel their authority less obnoxiously than they were wont to do, and to have turned more of their attention to beneficial objects—to the building of bridges, making roads, opening communications, extending steam transit by sea and land, and encouraging commerce and arts.

EUROPEAN TURKEY.

tensive empire derives its name from ks, or Turkmans, a name which, ac- to some writers, signifies wanderers. rkish historians, on the other hand, ie name from that of Turk, who, they the son of Yufes, or Japheth.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
h, 630 / h, 660	between	39. & 48. N. lat. / 16. & 30. E. long.

th here, which is taken from the most part of Moldavia, is, however, far too be admitted as that of all European which may, more accurately, be circ- bed within the 39th and 45th degrees latitude; thus reducing it to 420 miles. e southern part of Turkey, the width nuch contracted by the Adriatic and ipelago, the whole area falls short of square miles; with a population of, 50 to a square mile.

DARIES.—Turkey in Europe is bounded ia, Transylvania, the Banat, Slavonia, tia, on the north; by Russia, the Black the Archipelago, on the east; by the Marmora, the Archipelago, and the of Greece, on the south; by the Medi- a, the Adriatic, and Dalmatia, on the

ONS.—The customary geographical of European Turkey, (which, however, llowed by the Turks themselves,) is into provinces. These provinces are Moldavia and Walachia, on the north of the Danube; Bulgaria, Servia, and Bosnia, on the south of the Danube; Romania, or Roumili, on the Bosphorus and Hellespont; Thessaly, or Triccala, on the eastern coast of the Archipelago; and Albania and Turkish Croatia, on the Adriatic Sea. Moldavia, Walachia, and Servia, are rather vassal states than integral parts of the empire.

The Turks themselves divide their European dominions into four eyalets, or governments, which are subdivided into livas, or sanjaks, that is to say, banners. The eyalets are those of Roumili, Bosnia, Silistria, and the Jezayrs, or islands. The eyalets are governed by vizirs, or pashas of three tails. The sanjaks, into which they are divided, are about thirty in number, and each is governed by a mirmiran, or pasha of two tails. Of these sanjaks, Roumili contains 15, Bosnia 5, Silistria 4, and the islands 5. Paramount over the whole is a beylerbey, or captain-general, who resides sometimes at Monastir, and sometimes at Sophia.

SEAS AND STRAITS.—The Euxine, the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Asoph, the Sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, the Ionian Sea, and the Levant, would, were they properly improved, give to European Turkey, particularly that part of it where Constantinople stands, every advantage both for trade and dominion. The strait of the *Hellespont*, or Dardanelles, is about 2½ miles

in breadth, and is famous for the passage of Xerxes over it, preparatory to his invasion of Greece, and for that of Alexander in his expedition against Asia. The Persian king, for the more easy transportation of his numerous forces, formed a bridge of boats over it. It is also celebrated by the poets in the story of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom the latter swam across it to his mistress; but, on repeating his adventurous visit, he was unhappily drowned. The Bosphorus is about the same breadth, but has not been so much celebrated by historians and poets.

Mountains.—The principal mountains of Turkey in Europe are, the chain of the ancient Hæmus, now called Eminch Dag, or Balkan; the Despoto Dag, the ancient Rhodope, in Romania; the Glubotan mountains, which divide Servia from Albania, and, under various names, extend northward to Croatia, and southward to the frontier of Greece.

Lakes.—The largest of these is Lake Raselm, in Bulgaria, a short distance to the south of the mouths of the Danube. The others, most worthy of notice, are those of Scutari, Ochrida, and Janina, in Albania, and Kodoka, Kilcsili, Betchik, and Jenidja, in Roumili.

Rivers.—The chief rivers of European Turkey are the Danube, which we have described and traced in our account of Germany; the Save, the Mariza, the Vardari, the Morava, and the Drino. The Save is the boundary between Bosnia and Slavonia. The Mariza, or Hebrus, rises in the mountainous chain of Hæmus, and falls into the gulf of Enos; the Vardari, or Axius, runs from Mount Scardus to the gulf of Salonica, where it is lost in the Ægean Sea; the Morava rises in Mount Orbelos, waters Servia, and falls into the Danube at Semendria; and the Drino flows from Lake Ochrida, and falls into the Adriatic Sea.

Metals—Minerals.—Mines of iron, lead, and copper, are found in several parts of Turkey, but they are neglected by the ignorance and indoleuce of the people. In Macedonia were anciently gold-mines, which annually produced to Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, 1000 talents, or nearly £3,000,000 sterling. The ancient Phrygia, and the Troad, are likewise said to abound with silver.

Climate—Soil—Agriculture.—The climate is salubrious, except when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanliness of the Turkish manner of living. The seasons are here regular and pleasant; the soil is luxuriant beyond description; and it is necessary that it should be so for the subsistence of the inhabitants; for agriculture is not practised by the Turks, either with diligence or with skill.

Vegetable Productions.—These are excellent all over Turkey, especially when assisted by the smallest degree of industry. Beside herbs and plants of almost every kind, this country produces, in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon sweetness, figs, almonds, olives, and other fruits. In addition to these, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

Animals.—The Thessalian or Turkish horses are excellent both for their beauty and utility. The black cattle are large. The goats are a most valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutriment which they afford both in milk and flesh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Baldagi, furnish the best feathers for arrows for the Turkish archers, and they are sold at a high price. Partridges and other game are abundant; and, indeed, most of the ordinary birds, as well as quadrupeds, are found in all parts of European Turkey; but the Turks and Mohammedans in general are not very fond of animal food.

Natural Curiosities.—Among these we may class Mount Athos in Macedonia, called Monte Santo, from the numerous monasteries erected on it. It is situated on a peninsula which extends into the Ægean Sea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninsula; but it is only a single mountain that is properly called Athos. This is so lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the sun-rising was beheld four hours sooner than by the inhabitants of the coast: and, at the solstice, its shade reached into the *agora* or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which was distant 87 miles eastward. There are 22 convents on Mount Athos, beside a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of about 6000 monks and hermits: though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not more than 20: the other monks are anchorets, or such as live in cells. These Greek monks, who call themselves the inhabitants of the holy mountains, are so far from being a set of slothful people, that, beside their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and the vine, are carpenters, masons, cloth-workers, tailors, &c. They also live a very austere life: their usual food, instead of flesh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheese, and, on certain days, (Lent excepted,) fish. Their fasts are many and severe, and conduce, with the salubrity of the air, to render longevity common. It appears from Ælian, that anciently this mountain was considered as very healthy, and conducive to long life: whence the inhabitants were called *Macrobii*: and we are informed by Philostratus, in the "Life of Apollonius," that many philosophers used to retire to it, for the better contemplation of the heavens and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtless built their cells.

Population.—The population of this great empire is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility; nor is it possible to state it with perfect accuracy. It certainly is not so great as it was before the Christian era, under the emperors, or even a century ago. Various causes have been assigned for this decline of

ber. One is, the tyranny under which the ves groan; yet that has been the same for y centuries. Another cause is said to be prevalence of polygamy; but this also has ailed for ages. Such a practice is undoubt- unfavourable to population, as may be ced by various reasons, and particularly by consideration, that the Greeks and Arme- ns, by whom it is not followed, are much e prolific than the Turks. The plague is tioned as a third cause; but that disease not in general make such dreadful ravages formerly did. Whatever may be the prin- l or the subordinate causes of the modern opulation of Turkey, it is presumed that sultan's dominions in Europe do not con- more, at the utmost, than between 9,000,000 10,000,000 of inhabitants.

ATIONAL CHARACTER — MANNERS — CUS- MS.—The Turks are generally well made and ust men: in youth, their complexions are , and their faces handsome: their hair and s are black, or dark brown. The women, en young, are commonly handsome; but y generally look old at thirty. They usually ow corpulent as they advance in years; and s increase of person is not considered as a formity: on the contrary, a degree of plump- ss is admired in Turkey, and this habit is sequently rather encouraged than avoided. In their demeanour, the Turks are hypochon- iac, grave, sedate, and passive; but, when itated by passion, they are furious, raging, ungovernable; full of dissimulation, jealous, uspicious, and vindictive beyond conception; matters of religion, tenacious, superstitious, d morose. Though the generality seem ully capable of much benevolence, or even manity, with regard to Jews, Christians, or y who differ from them on religious topics, ey are far from being devoid of social affec- ns for those of their own religion. But in- rest is their supreme good; and, when that mes in competition, all ties of religion, con- nguinity, or friendship, are, with the gene- lity, speedily dissolved.

The morals of the Asiatic Turks are far pre- rable to those of the European. They are spitable to strangers, and the vices of avarice d inhumanity reign chiefly among their st men. They are likewise said to be cha- able to one another, and punctual in their ilings. Their charity and public spirit are st conspicuous in their building of caravan- ais, or places of entertainment, on roads that destitute of accommodations, for the refresh- nt of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the se laudable view they search out the best ings, and dig wells, which in those countries a luxury to the wandering poor.

he ideas of the Turks are simple and con- d, seldom reaching beyond the walls of r own houses, where they sit conversing h their women, drinking coffee, smoking acco, or chewing opium. To wit and agree- e conversation they are, for the most part, absolute strangers; and they rarely think of the improvement of the mind. They have little curiosity to be informed of the state of their own, or any other country. If a vizir, pasha, or other officer, be dismissed, or strangled, they say no more on the occasion than that there will be a new vizir or governor, seldom inquiring into the reason of the disgrace of the former minister.

The Turks dine and sup early, and supper is their principal meal, during which they sit cross-legged upon mats. Among the great people, the dishes are served up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to use gold or silver spoons. Their victuals are always highly seasoned. Rice is the common food of the lower sort, and sometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief dish is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags; and, the rice being boiled quite dry, the soup is highly seasoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, sherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them sensations resembling those of intoxication. Guests of high rank sometimes have their beards perfumed by a female slave of the family. They are temperate and sober, from a principle of their religion, which prohibits the use of wine, though in private many of them indulge themselves in strong liquors. Their common salutation is by an inclination of the head, and by laying the right hand on the breast. They sleep in linen waistcoats and drawers, upon mattresses covered by a quilt. Few or none of the considerable inhabitants of this vast empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diversion. The most religious among them find, however, sufficient exercise when they conform themselves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites, prescribed to them by the Mohammedan law.

Their active diversions consist in shooting at a mark, or tilting with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purposes, that they may know the strength of their dependents. Within doors, chess and draught-boards are their usual amusements; and if they play at games of chance, they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

With the entertainments of the genuine drama, the Turks have no concern; but they sometimes have a sort of show or spectacle, in which, beside rope-dancing and wrestling, something like a farce is acted, chiefly by Jews. Their music is not very refined; for the performers play by the ear rather than by notes. The usual instruments are the dulcimer, the flute, the Arabian violin, a kind of guitar, and a tambourine, resembling the ancient tympanum.

A frequent practice is warm bathing, which the Turks consider as an amusing pastime and

a luxurious enjoyment. In all the great towns, public baths are provided, in which the body is not merely dipped or washed, but is rubbed, kneaded as it were, and handled with such violence as would almost excite in strangers a dread of dislocation. This practice has been introduced into England, under the name of shampooing. Yet, with all their ablutions, neither the men nor the women are remarkable for cleanliness, as the articles of dress which are next their persons are rarely washed: indeed, they have no regular change of linen.

The men shave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover the head with a turban, which they never put off but when they sleep. The shirt is without collar or wristband: over it a long vest is worn, which is tied with a sash; and the exterior garment is a loose robe. The breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with the stockings; and instead of shoes, slippers are worn, which are put off on entering a mosque or house. Christians, or others who are not Turks, are not suffered to wear white turbans.

"The Turks," says Mr. Thornton, "do not attempt by art or by dress to improve or to correct the human shape. The clothes of persons of both sexes and of all ages, though more in quantity than the climate seems to require, are free from ligatures. They neither confine the neck nor the wrist, the knees nor the feet; and, though their clothes may encumber them in quick motion, they sit easily and gracefully upon them, when walking with their usual gravity, or when reclining on a sofa. The female dress differs little from that of the men, only the ladies wear stiffened caps upon their heads, with horns resembling a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are so muffled up as not to be known by their nearest relatives. Such of the women as are virtuous, make no use of paint to heighten their beauty, or to disguise their complexions; but they often tinge their hands and feet with henna, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make use of the same expedient to colour their beards."

Marriages in this country are chiefly negotiated by the females. When the terms are adjusted, the bridegroom pays a sum of money, a licence is procured from a magistrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated with mirth and jollity, and the money is generally employed in furnishing the house of the young couple. The Turks are not allowed by the law to have more than four wives; but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain.

The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpse is attended by the relatives chanting passages from the Koran; and, after being deposited in a mosque, it is buried in a burying-ground, by the imam, or priest, who pronounces a sermon at the time of the interment. The male relatives express their sorrow by alms and prayers; the women by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and

and, in mourning for a husban particular head-dress, and relin for twelve months.

Of the character of the Gre composed a large portion of the Turkey in Europe, and of whom to be found there, a descriptio under the head of "Greece."

Chief Towns—Edifices.—(called Stambool, by the Turks this great empire, is situated in Roumili, on the European sid phorus. It was built by Con the ruins of the ancient Byzan inviting situation than Rome empire. It became afterwards the Greek empire; and, havir destructive rage of the barbar was the greatest as well as the city in Europe, and the only c middle ages, in which there traces of the ancient elegance i arts. While it remained in th the Greek emperors, it was the Europe for the commodities of t derived great advantages from rendezvous of the crusaders; then in the meridian of its glory writers, in the ages of the crusa with astonishment.

Constantinople is at this day c cities in the world, by its situati The prospect from it is noble. gular part is the Bezestein, enc and gates, where the mercha shops excellently ranged. In t the city is the Hippodrome, an of 350 paces by 100, where, as ports, equestrian exercises wer are still practised and enjoyed. or parade, is a large spacious sq ral resort of all ranks. The ba Sultan Mahmoud form also a mented pile. The public fount rous and elegant. Among the curiosities of this city may be immense subterraneous reservoi roofs, supported by innumerabl were constructed by the Gree ensure a supply of water in c One of them extends under t They are now in a dilapidated opposite side of the port are f considered as a part of the sub tance being so short, that a per be heard on the other side. T Pera, Galata, Scutari, and Toph the foreign ambassadors and al strangers reside, not being perm the city. Galata, also, is most Franks or Jews. The comm these suburbs is kept up by ma sort of light and swift wherry. there are several other suburbs are those of Ayoub and San Dem

tains about 300 mosques. That
nost interesting to a Christian,
t magnificent, was formerly a
dedicated to the Holy Wisdom,
hia. It was built by the em-
: its form is quadrangular; its
et, and its breadth 240 feet. The
is lined with mosaic work, rests
arble, and has a fine effect; but
sufficient light to the building.
hough many of its ornaments
aced, still retains considerable
ncient grandeur, and the pave-
ly composed of marble, worked
compartments. Dr. Neale says,
he other mosques appeared to
worthy of admiration than this,
ose of the sultans Solyman and
hat a small mosque, built by
d with highly-polished slabs of
nd simply adorned with tablets
inscriptions from the Koran,
very beautiful. Dr. Neale has
good taste; for the mosque of
is, in reality, far less beautiful
hers. The churches which the
allowed to frequent are un-
gard to the exterior; but some
internal elegance.
part of the city is ill built, con-
vooden houses; and the streets,
tions, are narrow, irregular, and
Thus the pleasure which arises
view, sinks into disgust on a
n; and the insalubrity of the
the danger of fires, which are
often extremely destructive,
nis boasted capital from being a
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gnitude and population of Con-
re been exaggerated by credu-
. Some have estimated it to
800,000 inhabitants, and others
ccording to more accurate ob-
o not far exceed 500,000; and
de the occupants of the suburbs,
the Bosphorus, the number will
ian 700,000 or 800,000. Three-
rks, the Greeks are in consider-
and the remainder are Jews,
l Franks.
f the sultan, called the seral, is
it it is said to occupy the whole
on which the ancient city of
od. The treasures contained
erial residence, are prodigious;
re is distinguished not by its
e richness of the materials of
posed: silk and cloth of gold
for cotton and woollen stuffs;
ung with pearls and inferior
walls are wainscoted with jas-
pearl, and veneered ivory. In
iamber is a throne as resplen-
nes of the East can make it,
of velvet, fringed with jewels,
under which the sultan sits for a few minutes to hear the compliments of the sovereign who solicits his friendship.

The ladies of the seraglio are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly sent as presents from the provinces and the Greek islands—most of them the children of Christian parents. The number depends on the taste of the reigning monarch. Selim is said to have had 2000; but the present sultan is content with a smaller number. On their admission, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to sew and embroider, instructed in music, dancing, and other accomplishments, and furnished with the richest clothes and ornaments. They are scarcely ever suffered to go abroad, except when the grand signor removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs convey them to the boats, which are enclosed with lattices and linen curtains; and, when they go by land, they are put into close chariots, and signals are made at certain distances, to give notice that none may approach the roads through which they march. Among the sultan's attendants are a number of mutes who act and converse by signs with great quickness; and also some dwarfs, who are exhibited for his diversion.

Opposite to the seraglio, on the Asiatic side, is Scutari, adorned with an imperial mosque and villa. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand prospect, embracing in one view the city of Constantinople, the suburbs of Galata and Pera, the small seas of the Bosphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent country on each shore.

The fortifications of Constantinople are contemptible in point of strength. They consist of three ranges of walls, extending across the neck of the isthmus, from the sea of Marmora to the end of the harbour, furnished at intervals with square and round towers, and with a fosse thirty feet wide, faced by a low wall or counterscarp. The harbour is both deep and spacious: it is not on the side of the sea, but in a long inlet, running along the northern side of the town.

The other principal cities in ROUMILI are Adrianople, Salonica, Gallipoli, Philippopoli, Rodosto, Seres, Kirk-Kilissi, and Bitoglia.

Adrianople, called Ederneh by the Turks, stands on a rising ground near the confluence of the Arda, Toonja, and Maritza; and the bridge over the first stream is so elegantly and substantially built, that it would not discredit a more splendid city. The mosques in this town were formerly very numerous; but, at this day, many of them are hastening to ruin. That of Selim is particularly magnificent, and the bazaar of the pasha Ali is also a fine edifice. The population of the city is variously estimated at from 100,000 to 130,000, the Greeks forming a fourth part of the number. The palace is pleasantly situated, being separated from the city by the stream of the Arda, and commanding an extensive view of the country,

which is fertile, and celebrated for its excellent plantations of vines. The Maritza being navigable for small craft to the Archipelago, procures a considerable trade for the city. Silks, woollens, and cottons are manufactured here.

Salonica, denominated Seloniki by the Turks, has a population of 70,000. It was formerly a celebrated city of the Greek empire, under the appellation of Thessalonica, and, for a Turkish town, is still populous and flourishing. It is the second commercial city in European Turkey. The Jews in this city are more favoured than the Greeks, being less severely taxed; and they are the chief managers of the commercial establishments. Their ancestors, it is said, bargained for certain privileges, when they transplanted themselves to this province. One street is chiefly occupied by workers in iron, who trace their origin from Egypt. They profess the Mohammedan faith, but the Turks do not esteem them as true believers. A considerable trade is carried on in wool, cotton, silk, corn, and tobacco; and manufactures connected with the three first of these articles exercise the industry of the inhabitants. The town is fortified with a wall, castles, and towers; but it is not strong. The houses in general are not handsome or well built; the streets are narrow and ill paved, and the bazaars are mean. Among the remains of antiquity are a triumphal arch and a beautiful colonnade. The church of St. Demetrius, now a mosque, is greatly admired; but it seems to have been formed out of the remains of other edifices; and, after the effect of the first view, the eye is offended at the disorderly rudeness with which shafts and capitals have been joined.

Gallipoli, on the strait of the Dardanelles, in the peninsula anciently known as the Thracian Chersonesus, is a flourishing commercial city, which is said to have 80,000 inhabitants. It is celebrated for its manufacture of morocco leather, and for the extensive traffic which it carries on. The magazines for provisioning the Ottoman fleet are established at this place.

Gallipoli was the first conquest made in Europe by the Turks.

Philippopoli, called Filibe by the Turks, is situated on the Maritza, in a fertile country, has about 30,000 inhabitants, and is remarkable for its silk, woollen, and cotton manufactures. Many of its finest buildings were destroyed in 1818 by an earthquake.

Rodosto, on the coast of the sea of Marmora, is a highly commercial town, with about 40,000 inhabitants.

Seres, which has cotton, wool, and tobacco manufactories, is situated a few miles to the north of the gulf of Contessa. It has a population of 30,000 in winter, and only half that number in summer; the unhealthiness of the place, during the hot weather, compelling all the richer inhabitants to retire to the mountains.

Kirk-Kilissi, capital of the sanjak of the same name, lies a few miles to the east of Adrianople, and is the place from whence the Ottoman capital is principally supplied with butter and cheese.

Monastir, or Bitolia, is in the north of Roumili, near the Albanian frontier, and is the residence of the roumely valecy, or high provost, who is at the head of all the Roumilian police. It has 15,000 inhabitants.

Of BULGARIA, which lies between the Balkan, the Danube, Servia, and the Black Sea, the cities most worthy of notice are Sophia, Widdin, Rudschuk, Silistria, Schumla, and Varna; the last five of which are frontier fortresses of much strength. Sophia, which is between the rivers Isker and Nissava, is considered as the capital of Bulgaria. It occupies the site of the ancient Sardica, is a manufacturing and commercial place, and has a considerable population, which is variously estimated at from 30,000 to 50,000. Widdin, Rudschuk, and Silistria, are all important fortresses, and are all situated on the Danube. They also carry on a considerable commerce. Widdin has about 25,000 inhabitants, Rudschuk 30,000, and Silistria 20,000. Schumla stands on the northern declivity of the Balkan, and is the key to the principal passes of that mountain range. Here are considerable manufactories of cotton, silk, and cloth, and an extensive trade in copper. The inhabitants are between 20,000 and 30,000 in number. In a military point of view, Schumla is rather a vast entrenched camp than a fortress. Near Schumla is a village called Madara, inhabited only by about 2000 women, who are exempt from taxes, remarkable for their hospitality, and ruled by laws of their own. Varna, a port and fortress on the Black Sea, has about 16,000 inhabitants, and has a brisk trade. In the vicinity of this place the Poles and Hungarians were defeated, in 1444, by Amurath II.

The province of BOSNIA lies to the west of Servia, and contains several towns, the chief of which are Bosna Serai, a busy commercial and manufacturing city and fortress, with about 70,000 inhabitants; Banialuka, a strong and trading place, with 15,000 inhabitants; Zwornik, with a population of 14,000, in the neighbourhood of which are valuable lead-mines; and Travnik, the residence of the vizir-pasha, which has about 9000 inhabitants.

TURKO-GRECIAN PROVINCES.

THESSALY.—Of this province, which is called Janna by the Turks, and which lies between Roumili, Albania, the Archipelago, and the kingdom of Greece, the principal places are Larissa, (named Yenishehr by the Ottomans,) and Trikala. Larissa, with a population of about 30,000 souls, is situated on the Salympria, (the ancient Peneus,) has manufactories of cotton, silk, morocco leather, and tobacco, and is celebrated for the beauty of its red dyes. Trikala has a population of 12,000 persons, and is the residence of the pasha of the province.

ms are the difficult defiles of the
grafa, which lead into Lower Alba-
o the Meteora, or high places, a
nasteries, which are built on the
steep insulated rocks, from 150 to
1, which can be entered only by
up in a basket.
xtends in length from the 39th to
ree of N. latitude, but has rarely
more than eighty miles. At the
Selim III. ascended the throne,
consisted of five governments; one
it of Joannina, or Yanina, was en-
a bold adventurer, whose extraor-
icter claims that notice which is
ge and talents. He commenced
the leader of a predatory party;
had followed this course for many
onsiderable success, he purchased
rom the Porte, and gradually in-
y encroaching on the power and
f the neighbouring governors. He
garded the banditti as his friends,
l the greatest severity upon them
ey fell into his power; and when
excited that terror which gave
his government, he accepted the
nany parties of robbers, and en-
among his troops. He encouraged
trade and general commerce,
ges over deep rivers, formed good
causeways across marshes, and
owns with new buildings. Though
barbarian, he exhibited marks of a
ve mind, and seemed in some in-
ve a sense of justice; but his rapa-
ordinate, and he was frequently
essive and horrible cruelty. After
ny years as an independent prince,
ted by the troops of the Porte, and
in the year 1822. A full and au-
nt of his life may be found in the
of the "Family Library."
ras a time when the territories
his province were nearly depopu-
misgovernment, and anarchy, (for
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iot rose into power, and so far
pretensions as to be enabled to
Turkish armies, and to extort
from his harassed enemies the honourable denomination of Scander Beg, or Lord Alexander. After his death the province was overrun by the Turks: it was sometimes recovered in part, but was at length so far subdued by Selim II. in the 16th century, that it was thenceforward considered as an appendage of the Turkish empire.

The Albanians or Arnauts, as distinguished from the Greek inhabitants of the province, are generally of a middle stature, muscular and straight in their frames, but not large; and few of them have the least appearance of corpulence. Their chests are full and broad, and their necks long; their faces are of a long oval shape, with prominent cheek-bones. They have expressive eyes, arched eye-brows, small mouths, high and straight noses. They shave the beard, and the fore-part of the crown, leaving whiskers on the upper lip, and suffering the hair to flow unrestrained from the back of the head. When young, they have very white complexions; but, by labour and exposure to heat, they contract a dusky hue.

Many of them, like the Illyrians and some other nations of antiquity, make figures on their arms and legs, which they colour with gunpowder. Their dress consists of a cotton shirt and drawers, a woollen under-waistcoat, a vest or jacket with sleeves, a coarse shawl drawn tightly round their waists by a belt, and a great-coat or mantle, which, however, they rarely wear in the summer, except at night, when it serves for a sleeping habit. On the top of the head a small red cap is worn by ordinary persons; but their superiors add a kind of turban to it, which, in the winter, is drawn round the neck, being composed of a shawl. The legs and feet are usually bare; but leathern sandals are sometimes worn, which, as well as other parts of the general dress, almost every Albanian can manufacture. To the belt a pistol is a constant appendage; and, when its peaked handle is worked in rough silver, its possessor is particularly proud of his ornamented weapon. A long gun is also found in every cottage; but it is made with little skill, and the powder which is used with it is large-grained, and very bad. The belt holds a knife, the handle and sheath of which are often attached to each other by rows of silver chains —a species of ornament sometimes worn even by the men about their necks, and likewise used for the decoration of an ink-stand, which, whether they can write or not, is affixed to the girdle.

The Albanian women are frequently taller than the men, strong, and not ill-featured; but they bear in their countenances all the marks of wretchedness, ill-treatment, and hard labour. The female dress varies considerably in different parts. Some wear gowns of red cotton, with a turban-like shawl. Others are arrayed in white woollen, with a kind of skull-cap, composed of pieces of silver coin strung together, while the hair falls down in braids to

a great length, also enriched with suspended money: but this fashion is confined to the younger part of the sex. Both the men and women are uncleanly in their persons; yet their habitations in general are kept in a state of neatness. Two rooms are supposed to complete an ordinary house, and a garden is usually annexed to it. Bread made of wheat or of barley, cakes of boiled or roasted maize, cheese made of the milk of goats, rice mixed with butter, eggs, dried fish, olives, and common vegetables, form the daily food of the inhabitants. On holidays, or on extraordinary occasions, they gratify themselves with the flesh of kids or sheep, or poultry. Their usual drink is the simple element: but even those who are of the Mohammedan persuasion sometimes have recourse to the indulgence of wine, and also partake of an ardent spirit which they extract from grape-husks and barley.

Like the Turks, the Albanians are an indolent race—not indeed inactive in a military capacity, but disinclined to industry or labour. Yet they are not deficient in vivacity; and, when inflamed with anger, they are as violent and furious as the inhabitants of Constantinople or Aleppo, roused from their ordinary torpor. They are not malignant or deeply vindictive; nor are they treacherous or ungrateful. A remarkable trait in their general character is that contemptuous disregard which they evince for their women, whom they seem to consider as their cattle or their household goods, rather than as objects of a sentimental passion, or as amiable and interesting companions. Their honesty is not of the most consistent kind; for they detest ordinary pilfering, while they do not think it disgraceful to rob in parties on a large scale. As warriors, they bear a high reputation in the East; and, when they are not engaged in hostilities, they cherish their martial spirit by a lively amusement, resembling the Pyrrhic dance of the ancients; in which, notwithstanding their habitual indolence, they indulge with the most persevering energy and outrageous transport.

With regard to religion, the majority of the Albanians, or at least an equal number, are Christians, some being followers of the Greek ritual, others of the Latin; and they are more observant of their devotional duties than the Moslems. Catholic prelates are allowed to act in the chief towns, under the direction of an archbishop, whose see is at Antivari, a small town, with about 6000 inhabitants, who carry on a tolerable commerce in salt and oil.

The two most considerable cities of Albania are Yanina and Scutari. Yanina is situated on the bank of a lake, almost in the centre of Lower Albania. It was much improved during the sway of Ali Pasha, at which period its population amounted to 60,000. Its inhabitants were nearly equal in civilization with those of Italian cities, whose manners and customs they had insensibly adopted. There were not only several elementary schools in the town, but also a lyceum, in which th modern languages, philosophy matics, were taught. There w tolerably good public library, a sellers who carried on a thriving the contest which ended in th and the disturbed period which these literary establishments w and the commerce and indus which had so much increased, w nihilated. The population of th now to be little more than half the time of its prosperity.

Scutari, called Iskanderé by situated in Northern Albania, on same name, where the river from the lake. It is the capita portant pashalik. The popula 16,000, but was formerly much them are Christians. Arms an manufactured here.

One town in Upper Albania worthy of notice. This is Croy the residence of the famous Sca was so long the scourge and Turks. It does not now cont 6000 inhabitants. Its fortress, i der Beg, set his enemies at defia exists. Having become a harbo Albanian robbers, it was taken, grand vizir, and demolished. The der Beg is at Alessio, a few miles

VASSAL PRINCIPALI

SERVIA.—This principality, wh Romans, formed the province of was, for a considerable period, a state, under princes styled d after a long struggle, was unite man empire by Mahomet II. province was ceded to the Aus but was recovered by the Turk remained quietly subject to the when the Servians began to thir off the yoke. The contest was many years, with varied success, the Servians accomplished their were allowed to establish a gover own, under an hereditary prince of paying to the Porte a fixed a amount of tribute. A small Tu was to be allowed to remain Through the influence of Russia of territory was obtained by Se peace of Adrianople; and Russia in that country a considerable an influence. The government of t is vested, by a decree of the repr Prince Milosch Obronowits and ants; that personage having ha in the establishment of Servian i

Servia is bounded on the nort trian military frontier, on the eas and Bulgaria, on the south by Ro the west by Bosnia. It is about 1 and 100 broad, and is said by s

between 800,000 and 900,000 souls, estimate it at not more than Servian rivers are the Danube and orm the northern and part of the ier; the Morava, the Timok, the ral streams of inferior magnitude. ities of Servia are Semendria and emendria, with a population of 12,000 persons, is situated at the he western branch of the Morava nube. It is considered as the e principality. Here the archte resides, and the senate is ase superior court of justice sits, e resides, at Kragojewatz, a small centrically situated, which has nts, and is the commercial emstern Servia.

umous for the sieges which it has the largest, best built, and most the Servian cities: it has 30,000 It has 100 churches and mosques, by 6000 Turks, and is the abode who, however, has nothing to government. Belgrade is the ling station between Constantionica on one side, and Pesth and other. It is also advantageously by its industry, especially by its of arms, carpets, and silk and as well as by its tanneries and

is bounded on the north by Molvania, and the Austrian military the east and south by Bulgaria; est by Servia and the Austrian tier. Its rivers are the Danube, Argiss, Jalomnitza, and Sereth. ly a parallelogram, of about 260 ut 130, and has a population of

Walachia is one of the most in Europe. A vast level tract l, extending from the Carpathian the Danube, is equally adapted nd for tillage. Though agriculfective state, the crops of wheat, illet, are most luxuriant; rich oduced in abundance, and fine e, and numerous flocks of sheep, over the country. The forests game, and the lakes and rivers ld is washed down by the mountand veins of that metal are known Carpathian range. The inhabihave sprung from a mixture of ists with the ancient Dacians, nguage bears strong traces of Bulgarians, in fact, call themn, and their country Romanland. r nobles, estimated at 30,000, are ndolent, corrupt, and unintellecpeasantry are a fine race, "quiet nd patient from the hopelessness ude; exceedingly superstitious, o intemperance." As, however, of servitude no longer exists, hopes may be entertained of their improvement. They now enjoy the same privileges as the Servians, and have no Turkish garrisons. They pay only a fixed yearly sum to the Porte, and are governed by a hospodar, who is chosen for life, cannot be arbitrarily deposed by the Turkish sovereign, and has the undisturbed management of all internal affairs. But here, as in other quarters, the influence of Russia is far too powerful.

The capital of Walachia is Bucharest, sometimes called Buchorest, but of which the correct appellation is Bukharesht, which means "the city of enjoyment." It is situated on a fertile plain, on the river Doumbritza, which is one of the tributary streams of the Argiss, and has no beauty to recommend it; being, in great part, composed of wretched brick or mud huts, and spread over such a wide extent of ground, that it has more the aspect of an immense village than a regular city. The population, however, is considerable, as it exceeds 50,000. It has 60 churches, 20 monastaries, and some public and literary establishments, and carries on a considerable commerce. Of the other Walachian towns, Brailow and Giurgewo, once strong fortresses, but now dismantled, appear to be the largest; the former is said to have 30,000 inhabitants, the latter 18,000.

MOLDAVIA is bounded on the east by the Russian province of Bessarabia, from which it is divided by the Pruth; on the north by Galitzia; on the west by Transylvania; and on the south by Walachia, and a minute portion of Bulgaria. Its rivers are, a very small part of the Danube, the Pruth, the Sereth, and the Bistritza. Its extremest length, from north to south, is about 200 miles, and its breadth about 120; and its population is nearly 500,000. The soil is exceedingly fertile, producing all kinds of grain in abundance, and the pastures nourish great numbers of horses, cattle, and sheep. Like Walachia and Servia it has an independent ruler, who holds his office for life; and, like them, it is free from Turkish interference in its internal concerns, and pays a settled yearly tribute. The influence of Russia likewise predominates here, as it does in the other two vassal principalities.

The aspect of this province, says Dr. Neale, is singular; for it is intersected with marshes and small lakes, in a degree curious beyond all description. Any other government than the Porte would have long since drained these sources of insalubrity; but they are suffered to remain nearly in the same state in which they may be supposed to have been centuries ago. The inhabitants, indeed, seem fond of these collections of water, near which their villages are usually built. They are a rough, hardy, and simple race, clad in white woollen or linen garments, sheepskin caps, and sandals. They have a bold and warlike aspect, are active and alert, and live nearly as much on horseback as on foot. Their principal food is pottage, made of maize-meal. The slopes of the hills are

covered with vines, the produce of which is nearly equal, in strength and flavour, to the boasted wines of Hungary.

Jassy, or Yassy, the capital of Moldavia, had once 40,000 inhabitants; but since it was devastated by the conflagrations, in 1822 and 1827, it is supposed not to have half that number. It stands on the Bachlui, which is rather a series of muddy pools than a river; and it is straggligly built, most of the houses, which are chiefly of wood, and only one story high, being surrounded with courts, gardens, and plantations. Instead of being paved, the streets are floored with rough oak plank, beneath which flow fetid rivulets in wet weather, and from above which, in the dry season, rises a thick cloud of black dust; so that the city is anything but a healthy and pleasant abode, especially in the summer heats. Of manufacturing industry there is little at Jassy, but a considerable commerce is carried on, which is mostly managed by Greek and Armenian houses.

Galacz, or Galatz, the only port of Moldavia, is situated on the Danube, between the Sereth and the Pruth, and is a tolerably well built town, containing about 12,000 inhabitants. It has, somewhat pompously, been denominated the Danubian Alexandria. Vessels of 300 tons burden can come close up to the town, which is amply provided with warehouses for merchandise. The commerce is considerable at present, and promises to become much more so.

ISLANDS OF EUROPEAN TURKEY.

Candia, formerly Crete, is about 180 miles in length, and from 15 to 30 in breadth. Its population has been reduced by civil war, from more than 200,000 to half that number. The climate is salubrious, and the soil in general fruitful. The produce consists of fruit, oil, wine, saffron, honey, and wax; and the mines afford copper, iron, and lead. Some of the villages belong to the imperial mosques, others to that sultana who is the mother of the reigning prince, and the rest are chiefly holden for life by agas, on the principles of the feudal system.

The capital, which bears the name of the island, is situated on the northern coast, and was formerly so strong, that it sustained a siege from the Turks for twenty-four years, before they were able to reduce it. The fortifications are still considerable; but the town is meanly built, and the harbour is so choked with sand that it is nearly useless. About 15,000 persons occupy this town, while Canea has not more than 12,000. Among the mountains which are situated to the south of Canea and Retimo, the Sphakiots reside, who are considered as the descendants of the ancient Cretans, and are distinguished from the other Greeks by their tall stature, handsome countenances, and manly spirit. They enjoyed peculiar indulgences and exemptions before the year 1770, when a strong body repaired to the Morea to join the Mainote ins were then encouraged, but afterwa by the Russians. In 1825, the Gr parts of the island revolted fro but the Turks suppressed the ins second attempt was made, some wards, but with equal ill success.

Crete, in the olden times, was the birthplace of Jupiter, who w have been brought up on Mount Corybantes. Mount Ida now be of Psiloriti: it has an altitude 7000 feet. The ruins of the anc are still visible near the small vill Daka; not far from which is a which, in innumerable windings, ranean streets, extends under a these streets is 1200 paces long, a in a kind of large hall. This cave times been mistakenly suppose famous labyrinth of Cnossus.

Stalimene, or Limno, the a nos, is situated in the northern Archipelago, has an area of abou miles, and a population of 8000. corn, wine, flax, hemp, and frui island is found the terra sigillata earth, which was once universally possess extraordinary medicinal is still in high repute with the Greeks. Its principal compone silica, alumina, and oxide of soda of terra sigillata is given to it in of its being stamped with the go At certain times it is dug out o great ceremony, in the presence o governor and the Greek clergy, a is made into little balls, and seale

Thasso, with 6000 inhabitants; 4000; and Samothraki, with 1500, other Turkish European island notice. They lie to the north of are the ancient Thassos, Imbros, thrace; the latter of which was fa mysteries celebrated there in h Cabiri, as was also Imbros in a les

Commerce and Manufactur objects are but imperfectly attend Turkish dominions. The nature o ment destroys that happy securi the mother of arts, industry, and and such is the debasement of mind, when borne down by tyranny sion, that all the great advantages o which nature has, as it were, th the feet of the inhabitants by the are here neglected. The advanta Sidon, and Alexandria, and all the which carried on the commerce of world, are overlooked. The Turk the navigation of the Red Sea, wh communication with the Southern holds out to their view all the rich Whoever looks on a map of T admire the situation of their capi strait that separates Europe from

nmunicates on the south with the Mediter-
ean Sea, thereby opening a passage to all
European nations, as well as the coast of
ica. The same strait, communicating north-
rds with the Black Sea, opens a passage, by
ans of the Danube and other great rivers,
o the interior parts of Germany, Poland,
l Russia.

n this extensive empire, where all the com-
dities necessary for the largest plan of
ustry and commerce are produced, the
rks content themselves with manufacturing
tons and silks, carpets, leather, and soap.
e most valuable of their commodities, such
silk, a variety of drugs, and dyeing stuffs,
y generally export without giving them
ch additional value by their own labour.
e internal commerce of the empire is very
onsiderable, and is chiefly managed by Jews,
menians, Greeks, and Albanians. In their
ffic with Europe, the Turks are altogether
sive. The English, Austrians, French, Dutch,
d other Europeans, resort hither with their
mmodities, and take back those of Turkey in
e same vessels. The natives seldom attempt
y distant voyages, and possess only a few
ading vessels in Asiatic Turkey, their chief
perial navy lying on the side of Europe.

CONSTITUTION — GOVERNMENT — LAWS. — he Turkish government is commonly exhi-ited as a picture of all that is shocking and nnatural in arbitrary power; and there is ome truth in the representation, whatever Sir ames Porter may say of the sultan's obliga-ion, by the laws of the Koran, to attend to the ictates of justice and equity.

"The grand signor," says Mr. Thornton, may not freely in wantonness or cruelty. He may murder his father and his brothers, his wives and his children. He may shed the blood and seize the substance of his subjects. He may indulge the most vicious inclinations without any dread of censure or control, if, in his general government, he be sufficiently vigilant to provide for the wants, or sufficiently aware to restrain the murmurs and seditions of his people. If he guard his frontiers from encroachment, if he occupy and reward his soldiery, if he cause justice to be administered in cases where the interests of subjects only are concerned, his government will be loved, his person will be sacred, his crimes will be obliterated, his injustice will be forgotten, and his memory will be dear to his people. The Turkish casuists, indeed, attribute to the em-peror a character of holiness which no immoral conduct can destroy; and, as he is supposed to inform many actions by the divine impulse, which the reasons or motives are inscrutable human wisdom, they allow that he may kill sixteen persons every day without assigning cause, or without the imputation of tyranny. Death by his hand, or by his order, if sub-mitted to without resistance, confers martyr-dom; and some, after passing their lives in his service, are reported to have aspired *to the* honour of such a consummation, as a title to eternal felicity." What can we say of such a government, but that it is a complete picture of despotism?

The Asiatic Turks, or rather subjects of the Turkish empire, who hold their possessions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their serving in the field with a particular number of men, think themselves, while they perform that agreement, almost independent of the emperor, who seldom calls for the heads or the estates of such individuals as are not the immediate servants of the court. The most unhappy sub-jects of this government are those who ap-proach the highest dignities of the state, and whose fortunes are constantly exposed to sud-den alterations, and depend on the breath of their master. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizir, or prime-minister, his deputy the kiaya, and the reis-effendi, or secretary of state, are the most con-siderable. These, as well as the mufti, the pashas or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raised from the meanest stations in life, and are often the children of Christian slaves taken in war. Tutored in the school of adversity, and arriving at pre-eminence through difficulties and dan-gers, these men are generally as distinguished for abilities as deficient in virtue. They pos-sess all the dissimulation, intrigue, and cor-ruption, which often accompany ambition in a humble rank; and they have a farther rea-son for plundering the people, because they are uncertain how long they may possess the dignities which they have obtained. The ad-ministration of justice, therefore, is extremely corrupt over the whole empire; but this pro-ceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon equitable principles.

The late sultan Mahmoud made many laud-able efforts to ameliorate the Turkish institu-tions, and repress the tyranny and corruption of the pashas and great officers of government, and his successor, the present sultan, seems disposed to follow his example. No great pro-gress has, however, yet been effected; nor, in-deed, could it be looked for, when we consider what old and rooted prejudices were to be re-moved, and how many persons of influence had an interest in the maintenance of ancient abuses. But still, something has been done; and we may reasonably hope that time, pru-dence, and perseverance, will remove all obsta-cles, and render the cause of reform triumphant.

REVENUES.—The revenues arise from the cus-toms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Christians and other subjects, not of the Mohammedan religion. These exactions amount to about £5,000,000; but they are trifling, when compared with the vast sums extorted from the governors of provinces and officers of state, under the name of presents. *These harpies*, to indemnify themselves, exer-

cise every species of oppression that their avarice can suggest; but, when their opulence has subjected them to a pretended suspicion of disloyalty or misconduct, the whole fortune of the supposed offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is seldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accusers; but, without giving him the least opportunity of making a defence, an officer is dispatched with the imperial decree to take off his head. The unhappy pasha receives it with the highest respect, putting it on his head, and, after he has read it, says, "The will of God and the emperor be done!" or uses similar expressions, testifying his entire resignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the silken cord, which the officer has ready in his bosom, and, when he has tied it round his own neck, and said a short prayer, the officer's servants throw him on the floor, and soon strangle him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to the court. To ascertain the exact amount of the present revenue of Turkey, is impossible. It is variously estimated at from £6,000,000 to £8,000,000 sterling. The public debt has been considerably increased since the war of 1828 and 1829, with Russia.

Army—Navy.—There are two species of militia in the Turkish empire. To the maintenance of one class certain lands are appropriated, while the others are paid out of the treasury. Those who have lands are about 268,000. Beside these, there are auxiliary forces raised by the tributary countries of this empire. In every war, also, there are a great number of volunteers, who live at their own charges, in expectation of succeeding the officers. The forces which receive their pay from the treasury are the spahis or horse-guards, and a new body of infantry, consisting of 130,000 men, which was formed on the suppression of the sultan's body-guards, called Janissaries, who, having testified a strong disinclination to the European discipline which Mahmoud wished to introduce, were assailed, in June, 1826, by the fierce resentment of that prince, and slaughtered in troops. A new militia is also being formed, which is not to be called out except in case of war.

The battle of Navarino gave a severe blow to the Turkish navy; but great and successful exertions have been made to repair the loss. The Ottoman naval force at present consists of 23 sail of the line, 28 frigates, and 120 smaller vessels.

Titles and Arms.—The emperor's titles are swelled with all the pomp of Eastern magnificence. He is styled by his subjects, the "Shadow of God, a God on earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Dispenser of all earthly Crowns," &c. At court, when mention is made of the sultan, the appellation of alem penah (refuge of the world) is usually added to his title of padishah, or emperor. His loftiest title, and the most esteemed, because given to him by the kings of Persia, is Zilullah (shadow of God;) and the one th from our manners, though com ranks of his subjects, is hunl slayer,) which is given to him l has invested him alone with over the lives of his subjects. hibit a crescent, crested with a with a plume of heron's quill breathes the most aspiring a *totum impleat orbem*—implying prosecuting a glorious course u the empire shall fill the whole w

Religion.—The established Mohammedan, so called from M author of it, some account of w will find in our history of Arabi profess to be of the sect of Oma to that of Ali, who, in the opin sians, ought to have immedia Mohammed. The mufti or she supreme chief of the religion oracle who is consulted, and wh questions which are put to him are called fetfas. The grand course to him in all difficult and and promulgates no law, makes of war, and establishes no in having obtained a fetfa. It is girds on the sultan's sword on b the throne, at the same time rei the obligation of defending an the religion of the Prophet. T doctors of religion and law, cons ful body, sometimes formidable itself. They possess lucrative are secure from the extortions great men, and cannot legally b without the consent of the mu perty, after their decease, passe their heirs, and cannot be appro imperial treasury, unless they some office under the governmen who serve in the mosques, and m employment is to ascend the times a day to call the people not belong to this body: they ma from their office, or voluntarily return into the class of private p

The toleration of the Turks h extolled; but they make this tole of revenue. The Christians are t they are most profitable; but which were formerly imposed u church were such as to dispose favour any revolution of govern stantinople, Jerusalem, Alexan tioch, are patriarchates; and th indulged, according as they pay lege, with a civil as well as an authority over their votaries. T be said of the Nestorian and A archs; and every great city tha the indulgence, has its archbish All male Christians pay also a from 17 years of age to 60, accor stations.

ng distinction of Christian and
was for a long period carried to
ngth, that even the minutiæ of
dered subjects of restriction. A
d wear only clothes and a head-
colours, and such as Turks never
ppers of black leather, and must
se black, or dark-brown. The
of these frivolous and disgusting
is punished with death. Nor was
amon for a Christian to have his
off in the street, for indulging in
of dress than the sultan or vizir,
ht meet incognito, might be in-
ove. If a Christian struck a Mo-
e was put to death on the spot,
fines and severely bastinadoed;
ck, though by accident, a sherif,
of Mohammed, who wears the
of whom there are hundreds in
was death without remission.

t part of this is now done away
ans are no longer subject to the
rbitrary punishments to which
merly exposed. By an edict of
n Mahmoud, all his subjects, of
ion or class, were declared to
ye of the law, and to be judged
code; religion, said the edict,
r of conscience which regards
henceforth the magistrate was
inflict any punishment upon a
ect, without the approbation of
ho was the Christian's religious
lands and places inhabited solely
, the Turkish governors were
bmit all their acts to the appro-
primate. The inhabitants were
only their own laws, and never
m from their natural judges. So
nciple carried, that there is nei-
governor nor cadi in the island of
landers are at liberty to demand
reek, their fellow-countryman,
inted their governor. They are
have a flag of their own, which
of the cross.

t.—The Turks are very far from
d or literary nation; but they are
uninformed as many have sup-
have affirmed, that Mohammed
cultivation of learning or science;
uage and conduct of the khalif
said to have burned the Alexan-
may have given rise to that opi-
Koran itself recommends the
f the mind; and, over the door
al library at Constantinople, a
scribed, intimating that true be-
manded to study the sciences.
e certainly not obeyed this com-
l; nor, on the other hand, have
neglected it. Or-khan, their
r, instituted and endowed an
ursa, which gradually became
minary. Other sultans followed
his example; and it is particularly stated, that Morad II. not only erected, in every city which he conquered, a mosque and a caravanserai, but also a school. Mohammed II. founded at Constantinople an academy resembling a university, composed of sixteen colleges, in which 300 votaries of learning were maintained as well as educated. Many other academies arose in different reigns; and, in 1780, a new one was instituted, in which ten branches of science are cultivated, namely, the elements of grammar, syntax, logic, ethics, the science of allegories or rhetoric, philosophy, jurisprudence, theology, the investigation of the Koran, and an inquiry into the oral laws of the Prophet. For the dissemination of learning, the art of printing was introduced among the Turks in 1726, by the permission of Ahmed III.; but it was opposed by prejudice and bigotry, and discontinued. It was alternately revived and disused. The unfortunate Selim III. was a great encourager of the art; but, after his death, it was exploded. It is now restored to some degree of activity, with an exception of copies of the Koran, and of commentaries on that sacred volume, which the Turks wish to retain in the ancient form, and in all the elegance of penmanship. Many military and scientific works have been translated into Turkish, and even newspapers are now published in that language.

But, while many of the Turks so far profit by these means of instruction, as to remove the reproach of disgraceful ignorance, the general education is merely that of reading and writing; and it has even been observed, that the jurisprudence and theology of professed students consist only of commentaries on the Koran; that their astronomy is mere astrology, and their chemistry alchemy, while the history and geography of other countries are very imperfectly known to them. Some understand astronomy, so far as to calculate the time of an eclipse; but, the number of these being very small, they are looked upon as extraordinary persons. To astrology they are greatly addicted; the munejim bashi, or chief of the astrologers, is an officer of the sultan's household, and is consulted on all occasions which relate to the health, the safety, or convenience of his master. It is even deemed essential to the public welfare to follow his opinion in determining the day, or the precise instant, when any important public business is to be undertaken; such as the march of an army, the laying of the foundation-stone of a public building, the conferring of any new dignity, and especially the appointment of a grand vizir. The sultans religiously perpetuate this custom, which was delivered down to them by the khalifs, notwithstanding its repugnance to the general spirit and positive institutions of the doctrine and law of the Prophet, who expressly denominates astrology a false science, and stigmatizes its professors as liars.

LANGUAGE.—The Turkish language is derived from the Zagatai, a dialect of the Tartarian. It is the easiest of any that we are acquainted with, because it is the most regular. It has only one conjugation of verbs, one declension of nouns, and no gender. There is no exception nor any irregular verb or noun in the language. It is not very copious; yet it is manly, energetic, and sonorous. To supply the want of words, the writers frequently mix with it the Arabic and Persian. In the Asiatic provinces the Arabic and a dialect of the Syriac are spoken. The Lord's Prayer in Turkish is as follows:—

"Bahamuz hanghe guiglesson, chuduss olssum ssenungh adun; gelson ssenung memlechetnn; olssum ssenungh istegung ni esse gugthaule gyrde; echame gumozi hergunon vere bize begun, zem bassa bize bo slygomozi; nyeze hizde basiarux borestiglero mosi; hem yedma hize ge heneme; de churtule bisylaramurdan. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—In many of the European towns there are vestiges of antiquity; but they are most numerous in Constantinople. In the Ottoman capital the principal remains are the church of St. Sophia, founded by Justinian: the Egyptian column, and the columns of the three serpents, in the At-Meidan, or Hippodrome; the aqueducts of Valens, Justinian, and the thousand and one columns; the historical column, representing the exploits of the emperor Arcadius; the Corinthian column, and the ruins of a palace.

The history of the Turks will be given at the end of our account of Turkey in Asia, from which country they derived their origin and extended their conquests into Europe.

THE KINGDOM OF GREECE.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 180	between	36. and 39. N. lat.
Breadth, 150		21. and 26. E. long.

Containing about 18,000 square miles with about 50 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.—To the north, European Turkey; to the east, the Archipelago; to the south, the Archipelago and the Mediterranean; to the west, the Ionian Sea.

DIVISIONS.—While under the Turkish dominion, this country formed the pashalik of the Morea, the sanjak of Livadia, almost the whole sanjaks of Carlilli and Lepanto, the Cyclades isles, and a part of the Sporades; the insular portion being a part of the eyalet of the captain pasha. After its independence was established it was divided into ten departments —Argolis, Achaia and Elis, Messenia, Arcadia, Laconia, Acarnania and Etolia, Locris and Phocis, Attica and Bœotia, Eubœa, and the Cyclades. It has since been divided into thirty departments—Argolis, Corinth, Hydra, Achaia, Cyllene, Elis, Tryphillia, Pylia, Messenia, Mantineæa, Gortyna, Cymiria, Lacedæmon, Laconia, Etolia, Acarnania, Trichonia, Eurytania, Phocis, Phthiotis, Attica, Thebes, Bœotia, Eubœa, Carystos, Tinos, Syros, Naxos, Milos, and Thera.

SEAS, STRAITS, AND RIVERS.—The kingdom of Greece is peninsulated by the Archipelago and the Mediterranean and Ionian Seas, and is deeply indented by the gulfs of Arta, Patras, Lepanto, Coron, Kolokythia, Napoli, Egine, and Volo, so that no part of it is far distant from the sea. The straits are those of Lepanto and Negropont, the former of which connects the gulfs of Patras and Lepanto, and the latter *divides the* island of Negropont from the mainland. The principal rivers are the Aspropotamos and the Hellada. The configuration of the territory does not admit of long and large rivers.

MOUNTAINS.—The chain of mountains called, but incorrectly, the chain of Pindus, which divides Albania from Rounili, or Romania, extends southward through the whole of continental Greece, terminating in the Corinthian Gulf. This mountain barrier divides the country longitudinally into two unequal portions, separating Eastern from Western Hellas; while in the parallel of 39 degrees its lateral branches extend quite across the continent, from the pass of Thermopylæ to the Acarnanian coast. This calcareous ridge, known under the name of Mount Œta, separates the plains of Thessaly from those of Bœotia. A double barrier of mountains divides the isthmus from continental Greece; while an apparent prolongation of the great longitudinal chain traverses the whole peninsula, terminating in the rocky coast of Maina. The most elevated summits attain a height of nearly 8000 feet. Among the most remarkable are Delacha (anciently Othrys;) Mauro Vouni (anciently Pelion;) Kumayta (anciently Œta;) Liakura (anciently Parnassus;) and the mountains of Maina (anciently Taygetus.)

CLIMATE—SOIL—AGRICULTURE.—The climate is pure and mild, and the soil in the plains is generally good. Agriculture, however, except in some of the islands, is in a backward state. Greece does not produce more than two-thirds of the corn which is required for home consumption. The kinds cultivated are wheat, barley, and Indian corn; oats and rye are not used. Olives, currants, grapes, olives, and tobacco are cultivated in

ıle quantities. The flocks of goats are numerous, but the wool of the coarse. The butter and cheese are are made entirely from the milk of goats.

s, Vegetables, &c.—Greece is not sted by wild beasts, but the lynx and re not unknown in it, and it has also at and the wolf. It has a strong but breed of horses, and asses are gene- loyed as beasts of burden. Except , pigs are scarce, and their flesh is sed to be wholesome. Horned cattle ch scanty numbers, that they are from Thessaly and Asia Minor. The g, chestnut, orange, and lemon are e most thriving fruit trees. The vine, and the mulberry, also flourish. the noblest forests have been de- at some still remain; the pine is the mon timber tree; but fine oaks are the mountains of the Thessalian

L Curiosities. — The cavern, or the island of Antiparos, is one of the ıatural curiosities in this country. ? 70 yards high, and 100 wide. From ıang a variety of stalactites, of the ant and picturesque forms; and on are large masses of stalagmite, one in the centre, resembles a beautiful ramid. The Corycian cave, which s call Sarand'Auli (the Forty Courts) ıarkable for its beauty. It is situated ri, in the neighbourhood of Delphi, the grotto of Antiparos. It is 330 and nearly 200 wide. The stalactites op hang in the most graceful forms ? length of the roof, and fall like own the sides. The depth of the vast, and the masses thus suspended r are so great, that the relief and ' these natural hangings is as com- the fancy could wish. The famous Trophonius, in Livadia, is another riosity. It is a square cavern, with on each side of it, hewn out of the l a round hole at one end, scarcely ugh for a man to pass through.

TION.—The population of the king- Greece is not yet exactly known. It estimated that Northern Greece con- 000 persons, the Morea 429,000, and ds about 176,000, making a total of nd this seems to be near the truth. The ch de Gotha," however, reduces the o 637,700, and Balbi makes it 700,000.

IAL Character, Manners, &c.—The e gay, witty, and crafty. They exer- ous trades, and apply themselves to affairs. They delight in music and The rich are well informed, supple, intriguing. They study languages, e the Revolution, were accustomed to ry exertion to be employed as phy- interpreters, or agents, by the Turks, who held the first places of the empire. The ancient families courted the honour of furnishing the first dragoman, or interpreter to the Porte, and of being appointed hospodars, or sovereigns of Walachia or Moldavia, notwithstanding the danger attached to those eminent places. They are at the same time, in general, timid, superstitious, and exact observers of fasts. Their priests are very numerous, and affect austerity of manners. The superior clergy exhibit some marks of mental cultivation, and have sufficient incomes for respectability of appearance; but the other ecclesiastics are ignorant and poor.

The peasants, in point of character, form the best part of the Greek population. "They possess," says Colonel Stanhope, "a large share of rustic virtue. They were within the sphere of Turkey's oppression, but without the sphere of her corruption." The inhabitants of the towns, he also observes, are avaricious, artful, intriguing, and deficient in honour and integrity. The captains are frank and simple in their manners, but addicted to plunder. The soldiers are brave and hardy, and preserve their gaiety amidst dangers and privations. The people of the highest class are in general arbitrary, rapacious, unprincipled, and luxurious.

A national resemblance pervades the persons of the Greeks; yet, in general, the complexions of the islanders are more dark, and they have stronger frames than those of the continent. Their faces and forms, as far as we can judge, are like those which served as models to the ancient sculptors. They have large dark eyes, and regular features; their shoulders are broad, yet they are slender about their waists; their legs are apparently longer than those of persons who are accustomed to a tight dress, but are strong, and well made; and their usual stature is about the middle size. "Both the faces and forms of the women," if we may trust to the depreciating statement of one observer, "are very inferior to those of the men. Though they have the same kind of features, their eyes are too languid, and their complexions too pale. They are generally below the height which we are accustomed to think becoming in a female, and, when a little advanced in life, between twenty-five and thirty years of age, are commonly rather fat and unwieldy." He adds, in a positive tone, that he did not see any very pretty Greek women while he was in their country. But other tourists have viewed the Grecian ladies with more favourable and correct eyes, and have paid due homage to their personal charms. The dress of a male Greek resembles that of the Albanians. A female wears a chemise of cotton; a vest which is tight over the bosom, but rather wide and relaxed at the waist; a gown (sometimes made of fine flowered silk) flowing loosely behind, with long sleeves; a ribbon or girdle immediately under the bosom; and a shawl wrapped round the body as a lower zone, either tied in a spreading knot, or fastened *in front by* a clasp or other metallic ornament.

The women sometimes wear small red caps, with gold tassels; but, in the house, the head is usually uncovered. When they go out they are muffled in large cloaks, and conceal their faces with long veils. Many of them colour the lower parts of their eyelashes with a mixture of antimony and oil, and also daub their faces with paint: some also dye the hair so as to give it an auburn hue, and others impart to their tresses a black or very dark tinge.

Marriage is usually preceded by the formality of betrothment, when the mother of the future husband puts a ring on the finger of the young lady, and kisses her cheek; and the ceremony is followed by an entertainment. The matrimonial forms, as practised at Athens, are of the following nature. The two lovers stand near the altar, each holding a lighted candle. The priest reads and chants, and then, taking two rings, and two garlands sprinkled with gold-leaf, puts them on the fingers and heads of the couple, then recites another part of the service, and transposes the rings and the wreaths. This transposition is rapidly repeated, until the rings are left on the fingers they are intended to fit, and the garlands are laid aside. Some bread, which has been blessed and marked with the sign of the cross, is then broken, and eaten by the bride and bridegroom, who also take wine. The lady presents pieces of bride-cake to her attendant friends, and receives money in return, for which she kisses the hands of the donors. On the same or a subsequent day she is conducted by her husband to his house, in solemn procession, amidst the acclamations of his friends, and the sounds of the rebec and lute.

Chief Towns, &c.—Northern Greece, with the towns of which we shall commence, comprehends all the territory between the isthmus of Corinth and the Turkish frontier, and consists of the former province of Livadia, and trifling portions of Albania and Thessaly.

The province of Livadia is ennobled by the possession of Athens, the remains of which attest its former magnificence. It has been remarked, that, while the ruins of Delphi, Delos, Olympia, Argos, Sparta, Corinth, and other celebrated towns of ancient Greece, disappoint the modern observer by their insignificance, "those of Athens remain, for the most part, in a state little inferior to their original splendour." This assertion is a palpable exaggeration; yet beautiful vestiges are discernible. The most interesting object is the Acropolis, or citadel, situated on an abrupt and lofty rock, commanding, in the capacity of a modern fortress, the scattered divisions of the city. The walls of the ancient fortifications were crowned with an ornamental entablature, some parts of which still remain; and these, and every other structure, were of the purest Pentelic marble. Rising above the rest of the buildings, the Parthenon, or temple of Minerva, enchanted every eye by its beauty and magnificence; but, of this celebrated structure, only a few columns and dilapidated parts appear. Some elegant pieces of sculpture, in bas-relief, belonging to the metopes of the peristyle, are in private hands; and others, which were brought away by Lord Elgin, are deposited, with many other works of Grecian art, in the British Museum. The Erechtheum, and the adjoining chapel of Pandrosos, are in a ruinous state, but evince architectural taste and elegance. An octagonal building is still entire, called the Tower of the Winds, adorned with the beauties of sculpture. The monument of Lysicrates, called the Lantern of Demosthenes, consists of a basement, a circular colonnade, and a cupola of the Corinthian order; and, considered as a work which was erected above 2100 years ago, it is in an excellent state of preservation. A Doric portico also exists, supposed to have formed an entrance to a temple dedicated to Augustus, the deified emperor. Beside the larger ruins, fragments of statues, pedestals, and capitals of columns, are still to be seen in the walls and courts of many of the houses; and others have been dug up in the neighbouring fields, or found in wells. In the environs of the town, the most striking ruin is that of a building finished by Hadrian, called by some the Pantheon, and by others the temple of the Olympian Jove. Of 120 columns, only 16 are now remaining, which are fluted Corinthian pillars, 6 feet in diameter, and 60 feet in height. The tomb of Philopappus also deserves notice. Its form is elliptical; and the concave part of the ruin contains two oval niches, in each of which is a statue. Between the niches a pilaster appears, the base of which represents, in very prominent figures of bold and animated sculpture, a person drawn in a chariot by four horses, with a procession in front, and Victory in his train. We cannot close the survey of these beauties without particularizing the temple of Theseus, which is one of the most perfect ancient edifices now existing. The roof, indeed, is modern and vaulted, and the sculptures on the porches have been injured by time and wanton havoc: but the thirty-four columns and their entablatures, the steps, and the walls of the cell, are little affected by the injuries of twenty-three centuries.

Modern Athens occupies only a small part of the space on which stood the ancient. It is now the capital of the kingdom of Greece. Before the commencement of the Greek Revolution, it was in a tolerably flourishing state, had a considerable commerce, and from 12,000 to 15,000 inhabitants. At the close of the contest it was little more than a heap of ruins, and had lost two-thirds of its population. Since the conclusion of peace, however, much has been done towards re-edifying the city. Handsome buildings have continued to be constructed in all quarters. Several streets have been opened, levelled, or enlarged; among which are Hermes, Eolus, and Minerva-streets. The first of these, which runs parallel to the hill of the Acropolis, divides Athens into two equal parts. The second intersects the first, and extends to the

olus, in front of which is a square name. Minerva-street, which is f all, runs in a nearly similar direc- streets of Metagitnia, the Palace, re also worthy of notice. The an- , now called Porto Leone, is again busy scene. The following spirited . Garston will show what a change ace in a few years. He fought for of Greece, at the period of her es, and, after the lapse of nearly , revisited the land for which he

"Although what I had seen at n some measure," says he, "pre- r the change, the contrast which state of the Piræus presents, with e in 1826, did not fail to produce ression upon me. When I was t time, a half-ruined monastery, ttages and huts in an equally di- te, were the only buildings which shores of the harbour, while in itself were anchored only a few mysticos. Now, besides a crowd ft and merchant vessels of other anchored in the harbour ships of st every European power, and on ranges of handsome houses, and inconsiderable extent. Instead id desolation, and almost solitude, at that time, I have found a scene id prosperity, and a numerous and ion, mixed up with sailors of va- . The lazaretto, the dogana, the rriages drawn up at the landing- ll so inconsistent with my remi- a spot, where, as an invalid, I had y found a roof which could protect rain, that for a moment I felt as influence of a dream. I should, accused him of dreaming, who, s ago, would have told me that day find myself at the Piræus, my best Romaic for a conveyance a good britchka, or that I should n the one place to the other by a full Albanian costume. Such with me yesterevening; and I t was no disagreeable contrast, to t a round pace, and along an ex- over the same ground which it d some caution to traverse on

ans seem to be more polished than e Greeks, and they have more of rn. Considerable schools have hed among them; and, for the ion of these seminaries, a society n 1813, under the appellation of Muses. There is one Muse to lar devotion is paid in the social at is Terpsichore; for the Greeks l a dancing race. They are also c, into which they infuse a high ling. Athens now possesses an , which is well attended.

Most of the towns of Northern Greece have suffered more or less from the ravages of war. None of them are of great extent or largely peopled. Among them may be noticed Livadia, an unhealthy town, once the capital of the province, the site of which is supposed to have been the sacred wood of Trophonius; Missolonghi, celebrated for its heroic defence against the Turks, and for its being the death-place of Lord Byron; Lepanto, on the gulf of the same name, memorable for the maritime battle in which the Turks were defeated by Don John of Austria; and Salona, which is near Parnassus, and stands on a part of the ancient city of Amphissa.

The MOREA was formerly a flourishing and populous country, called the Peloponnesus, including the Spartan and Corinthian states, and other distinguished Grecian communities. In the decline of the modern Greek empire it was seized by the Venetians; but, from the year 1715 till 1830, it was oppressed by the tyranny of the Turks. The soil is in general fertile, and the produce varied and considerable. Fruit, wine, oil, gums, drugs, cotton, and many other articles, are exported in great quantities. The persons and manners of the inhabitants resemble those of other Greeks; but the Mainotes, or descendants of the free Laconians, preserve more of the Spartan courage, hardihood, and simplicity, than the rest of the Moreans. Of the aggregate population of the peninsula, about 600,000, they compose nearly a seventh part. Their territories, which are in the south-eastern division, form fifteen districts, respectively governed by chieftains, who, even before the insurrection of the year 1821, were scarcely controlled in any respect by the bey of Maina. Even the bey was not a Turk, but a Greek; and, so little obedience was paid to the Porte, that only a small tribute denoted the exterior submission of the Mainotes. Their laws are simple; or, it may rather be said, that their morals serve in lieu of laws. Their adoption, however, of the practice of revenge, instead of having recourse to the law, cannot be justified. They have been accused of a propensity to theft. Undoubtedly there are robbers in their community; and offenders of that description are not punished with great rigour: but the generality appear to have a sense of honour and honesty. Thieves are not put to death among them, but are obliged to make a seven-fold restitution. They observe, not without reason, that the greatest amount of property is of little moment, when balanced against human life. They are industrious, sober, temperate, and remarkable for hospitality. They attend more to agriculture than to manufactures, and in the management of the soil they are not unskilful. With regard to religion, they are attached to the Greek church; and it is said that they are strict in ceremonial observances.

Modon, in the Morea, was formerly a flourishing place: it has a harbour and a fortress.

Napoli di Romania, or Naupli, is strong for a Grecian or Turkish town, but the streets are narrow, and the houses small and inconvenient. Its population is said to amount to 12,000. Argos, one of the oldest cities in the world, was, in early times, a place of high importance, and, at the commencement of the late war in Greece, it contained 12,000 inhabitants. It suffered severely during the Revolution, but is now rapidly recovering. Tripolitza was for some years the capital of the Morea, and contained 3000 houses, and 18,000 inhabitants. The ravages of war have reduced it to 500 scattered wooden buildings, and scarcely 2000 residents. Mistra has shared the same fate: it is little more than a heap of ruins, and its 20,000 inhabitants have dwindled down to 1500. Patras, which was equally unfortunate, is rising from its ruins, and, if the plan which has been laid down for rebuilding it be persisted in, will be one of the finest cities in Greece. It has already 8000 inhabitants, who carry on an active commerce. The ancient and once populous Corinth has now only a few hundred inhabitants; but its favourable situation, and other circumstances, will probably restore prosperity to it at no distant period.

THE GRECIAN ISLANDS.

These isles, which form a considerable and valuable portion of the Greek territory, consist of Negropont, by far the largest of them, and of five groups, called the Northern and Western Sporades, and the Northern, Central, and Southern Cyclades.

Negropont, the ancient Eubœa, extends from the south-east to the north-west, on the eastern coast of Livadia, from which it is separated by a strait, (extremely narrow in the middle part of it,) the northern portion of which is called the Channel of Talanti, the southern that of Negropont. This strait anciently bore the name of Euripus, and is remarkable for the irregularity of its flux and reflux. The island is about 90 miles long, and of variable breadth from 4 to 30 miles. Its population is about 60,000 souls. The island is very fertile, producing corn, wine, oil, fruit, cotton, and cattle in abundance. It has only two towns, Egripos, or Negropont, formerly Chalcis, which is in the centre of the island, and Karysto, which is at the southern extremity. Egripos is the see of an archbishop, and, before the Greek Revolution, had 16,000 inhabitants.

The Northern Sporades are the isles of Scopelos, Khilidromi, Skiathos, Skyros, Palagnesi, and some islets. They are situated off the eastern coast of Thessaly, near the entrance of the Gulf of Volo. Skyros, whose capital is the town of St. George, is the largest, it being about 60 miles in circumference, but is thinly inhabited. Some parts of it are fertile. It is here that Achilles is feigned to have been concealed, that he might not go to the Trojan war. The red and white marble of Skyros was in high estimation in ancient times. There is nothing remarkable in the rest of the Sporades.

The Western Sporades extend from the entrance of the Gulf of Naupli to the extremity of the Gulf of Ægina, from south to north, we find the following order: Spetzia, Hydra, Angistri, and Salamis, or Colouri, not be forgotten, that during the revolution the inhabitants of the islands Spetzia, and Paros, took a prominent that their exertions and sacrifices greatly to sustain the cause of Greece. population of Hydra, which, during was 40,000, is now about half that of Spetzia 18,000; Poros, 4500; Angistra, 1550; and Salamis, between 1200. Hydra, in the island of Hydra, built on a rock, in an amphitheatre, and is one of the handsomest towns in Poros has an excellent port, and will be the seat of the naval establishment Greece. Ægina is chiefly remarkable antiquities, among which are the temples of Venus and Jupiter. "Ægina was, in the late war, the great number of Greek refugees singular coincidence, the numerous excavated in the rocks surrounding of Ægina, and which formerly Athenians who fled from the sword now afforded a shelter to others escaped from Athens to save them the Turks." Salamis is memorable great victory which was gained by of Xerxes by the Grecian fleet, under mand of Themistocles.

The group of the Northern Cyclades seven islands, extending from the points of Attica and Eubœa, which divides them from Serpho and Siphanto. Of these islands, 12,000 inhabitants; Zea, 5000; Tino, 22,000; Mikoni, 6000; Serpho, 600. To this group also and Little Delos, once so famous are now uninhabited. Syra, the largest, is the most important group. Till the Greek war it than 6000 inhabitants; but the ber of commercial refugees who during the contest, and who carried tensive commerce, swelled its more than five times the original a part of its prosperity it was dishonourable source: it was pirates, by whom the merchant European states were plundered years. The modern capital is Hermopolis, a city of recent date the best built and most thriving Tino is an agreeable, fertile, vated island. Several thousand bitants form a sort of travelling members of which alternately stantinople and Smyrna, where

, or hire themselves out as ser-
ıe is the case with many of the
oe. In Zea the chronological
ı by the name of the Arunde-
re said by some to have been
e ruins of an ancient city; but
›lace where the discovery was

the Central Cyclades consists
and some islets, and lies be-
the Northern and Southern
r are Naxos, Paros, Antiparos,
›hanto, Seripho or Serphos,
or Argentieri, Polikandro, Si-
s, and Amorgos. Naxos has
ts; Paros and Antiparos, nearly
4500; Seripho, 3500; Milo,
450; Polikandro, 1200; Sikino,
and Amorgos, 2600. Naxos, the
land of that name, is the see
:holic archbishop, and a Greek
ı once the central point of a
:al castle, and the remains of
ıcted by the first duke, are
:e. Paros was famous of old
and Antiparos is still remark-
lactitic grotto, which is de-
he head of "Natural Curiosi-
ı an excellent port, valuable
lt-works, and many fine anti-
so has an admirable harbour,
l for the skill of its pilots. The
:ral Cyclades require no parti-

Cyclades, Santorin, with a
0,000 persons; Astypalæa, or
1000; and Anaphi, or Nauphio,
t the entrance of the Archi-
ı the soil of Santorin seems to
little but ashes and lava, it is
ile, and produces wine which
best that is made in Cyprus.
is a submarine volcano, which
:ruptions. In 1707 it threw up
he bottom of the sea. At the
ing from the waves, there was
ttended, for several days, with
ıg and thunder, and ebullition
new island was at first vol-
n ceased to burn. It has an
: 200 feet, and was originally
cumference, but has since in-
36 an earthquake occurred,
part of Santorin disappeared.
tly inhabited by skilful divers,
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ıs, Commerce, &c.—Manufac-
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nghi, Patras, Galaxidi, and the
, Spetzia, and especially Syra.
cantile navy of Greece con-
sisted of 3033 vessels, navigated by 13,700 seamen, and having a tonnage of 91,550 tons. The chief traffic is the carrying trade between the ports of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea.

Constitution and Government. — The kingdom of Greece is a constitutional hereditary monarchy, under the protection of England, France, and Russia. The legislative body consists of a senate and house of representatives. The superior administration of each province is superintended by a nomarch or prefect, who is assisted by a departmental council elected by the people. The eptarchies, or large divisions of provinces, have each an eptarch, or sub-prefect, who is aided by a popularly elected district council. Under him are the demigerontes, or mayors, who preside over the communes: they are elected by the people, and confirmed by the king. The management of the national property, the collecting of taxes, and all matters which relate to war, civil and military justice, &c., are entrusted to special boards.

Revenue, Army, &c.—The revenue arises from the sale of national property, a tenth on the produce of private lands, and a fourth on national lands, the customs' duties, the leases of houses, &c., formerly belonging to the Turks in towns, &c. &c. The indirect imposts on markets, cattle, &c. are applied to local purposes. The revenue has every year been insufficient to meet the expenditure. There is a considerable public debt, of which no part has yet been liquidated. The army, after the departure of the Bavarian guard, will consist of 9400 men. The number of officers at present is 206, of whom, to the great dissatisfaction and disgust of the Greeks, no less than 151 are natives of Bavaria. The naval force is inconsiderable.

Religion.—A large majority of the inhabitants belong to the Greek church; the tenets of which have been described in the Introduction. Since 1833 the national church has been independent on the patriarch of Constantinople; but his authority is still acknowledged in matters of faith.

Literature.—For many years before the breaking out of the Revolution, a growing love for literature and intellectual pursuits was displayed by the Greeks. Schools and colleges were founded, and knowledge became extensively diffused. The Greeks essayed their talents, and not without success, in history, philosophy, the drama, and particularly in poetry. Some of the popular songs of Greece have very great merit. The names of Rizo, Righas, Korai, and many others, will suffice to raise above contempt the literature of modern Greece.

Language.—The Greeks speak a modernized Greek, called Romaic, which is not deficient in strength or beauty. A specimen of it follows in their Paternoster:—

"Pater hemas opios iso ees tos ouranos: hagiastheto to onoma sou; na erti basilia sou:

to thelema sou na genitez itzon eu to ge; os is ton ouranon: to ptsomi hemas doze hemas semeron: kæ sichörase hemos ta erimata hemon, itzone kæ hemas sichorasomen, ekinous opou hemas adikoun: de meu ternes hemas is to pirasmo, alla so son hemas apo to kaxo. Amen."

ANTIQUITIES.—Almost every spot of ground, every river, and every fountain, in Greece, exhibits the ruins of antiquity. On the isthmus of Corinth, the vestiges of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the isthmian games were celebrated, are still visible. The remains of an oracular temple of Apollo are yet discernible at Kastri, on the south side of Mount Parnassus: but the most interesting relics are those at Athens, which have already been noticed.

HISTORY.—After the fall of Constantinople, the subjugation of Greece was not long delayed. The petty princes of Southern Greece were too divided among themselves to form a plan of resistance against their formidable enemy the sultan. He fomented their disputes, played them off against each other, and ended by making himself master of their territories. The north of Greece shared the same fate, and from the same causes. The Morea was possessed by Demetrius and Thomas, two brothers of the Constantine who had perished so nobly in defending the capital. The victor allowed them to remain unmolested, on condition of paying tribute. Affairs remained in this state for seven years, till a deadly feud arose between the brothers. The sultan took this opportunity to intervene, drove Thomas into Italy, and ended by intimating to Demetrius that, as he was unable to control such unruly subjects, it would be wise in him to resign his uneasy sovereignty. There was no alternative but death, and Demetrius therefore obeyed. The conquest of the Morea was completed by the expulsion of the Venetians, who, being possessed of some of the maritime towns, had suddenly landed a force, and driven back the Turks as far as Corinth. Negropont was also taken from them in 1470.

For more than two centuries the Porte remained master of the whole of Greece. But, after a sanguinary struggle of several years, the Morea was conquered by the Venetians, and the peace of Carlowitz, in 1669, confirmed them in the possession of it. They did not, however, govern their acquisition in such a manner as to conciliate their subjects; nor did they long retain them. In 1715 the Turkish army expelled them in the course of a few months; and, by the treaty of Passarowitz, in 1718, the sultan was again recognised as the sovereign of the Morea.

After the lapse of little more than fifty years, the Morea became the scene of the most frightful enormities. As long back as the reign of the empress Anne, the Russian government had looked forward to making the Greeks its instruments against the Turks. The experiment was first tried by the empress Catharin patched an emissary, Papas Oglu, t natives of Greece to insurrection, by promises of efficient support; and nately succeeded in deluding num inhabitants of the Morea: the nortl were less credulous. At length, in 1 mised liberators appeared; they amo contemptible number of about 800 Greek bands joined them, and th took Navarino by surprise. But, that the Porte had despatched sever Albanians to the Morea, the Russ the most dastardly manner, leavin happy allies to their fate. They h baseness to close the gates of Na the flying and terrified population themselves into the sea to escap Turks, and of whom several thousa of famine on the rock of Sphacteria the Albanians continued to desola try, and slaughter its inhabitants; last, the Porte itself was obliged to by force of arms. It was long, in the Morea recovered from the eff deadly scourge. Twenty years su the empress Catharine made anothe convert the Greeks into tools of h but it proved abortive; happily for t would no doubt have been sacrific time, could any advantage have bee making them the victims.

One event which occurred in the is worthy of record for its heroism. desertion of the Moreotes by the seducers, Androutzos, whom the fi dawning freedom had attracted fr was left with 300 Palikars exposed of the combined Turks and Arna into security by the pasha's permis with all his band, the Morea, he sud his passage over the isthmus ba or 10,000 Turks, entrenched in an post. These, by a feigned retreat, and directed his march westward, of reaching Patras, and embarkir some Ionian vessels. Totally env Vostitza by the whole Turkish arm zos and his gallant companions, hausted by ten days of fatigue and enduring for three more successive many nights, the incessant attacks assailants, on the fourth mornin fell upon the enemy; and, thou Grecians fainted from mere hunger of battle, he dispersed, with the l fourth of his little band, the wh multitude, who left behind them 3000 dead, and a camp stored with sions and plunder; of which only were touched by men who had three days. He embarked at Vostit ceeded in conveying his surviving Prevesa."

This gallant exploit shows of Greeks were capable, under a brave

leader. It may seem strange, that a people who had so long been bent under the yoke of slavery should display such admirable spirit; but, in the case of Greece, there were circumstances which will account for this, and for their late struggle with the Turks. They were accustomed to the use of arms, and, in many of the difficult parts of the country, were almost entirely independent. "The mountains of Greece," says Lieutenant-Colonel Leake, "have never been completely subdued by the Ottomans; and, while the Christian inhabitants of the plains either retired before them, or became mere cultivators for the conquerors, who assumed possession of the lands by a grant from the sultan, upon the feudal tenure of military service, the inhabitants of the mountains have retained possession of the soil, and, having been joined by many of the Christians of the plains, are still nearly as numerous as under the Byzantine empire." These men, daring, active, and full of stratagems and resources, were always in a state of hostility with the Turks, and with those who patiently submitted to them: they were branded by their opponents with the opprobrious appellation of klephts, or robbers.

Besides these irregular bands, there existed a military force of a more legitimate kind, denominated the Armatoli, or Greek militia. "This," says Lieutenant-Colonel Leake, "was an establishment of the Byzantine empire: their most important employment was to keep the roads free from danger, and to guard the mountain passes, which are so frequent in Greece, and of so much military importance. The Ottomans found it necessary to maintain the same kind of police: in some instances the inhabitants of the districts adjacent to the passes were made responsible for the safety of the roads, were authorized to maintain armatoli for this purpose, and, in consideration of the trust and expense, were allowed certain privileges, such as that of being exempted from the customary burden of entertaining persons travelling in the service, or under the protection, of the government. In addition to the bodies of armatoli, acknowledged by the Porte, all the mountain communities, in their various degrees of submission to the Turkish government, maintained a small body of armatoli, for the maintenance of the police, or for the protection of the district, and who were often employed against a neighbouring rival, or still oftener to resist, or at least to check, the encroachments of Mohammedan extortion, whether Turkish or Albanian. And thus there was constantly a school, however rude, for the military profession in Greece."

In spite of Turkish misgovernment, the exactions practised by the pashas, and occasional internal disturbances, Greece, from towards the close of the 18th century, continued to make considerable advances in wealth and civilization. Her commerce increased rapidly, and riches followed in its train; intellectual pursuits were more generally cultivated, knowledge became more widely diffused, and, as a natural consequence, the desire of escaping from slavery grew stronger and stronger. There can be no doubt that the French Revolution contributed to heighten this feeling; and it is also almost certain that, for her own insidious purposes, Russia had her agents in the country, for the purpose of exciting insurrection. About the year 1814, a Greek association was formed in the dominions of Austria and Russia, the members of which bound themselves by oath to devote their lives and fortunes to the recovering of their country's independence. It took the name of the Society of Friends, but is usually known by the Greek title of Hetæria. It was exceedingly numerous, and had considerable funds at its disposal.

The Hetæria appear to have resolved that their warlike operations should not commence till 1825. Circumstances, however, hurried matters to a crisis before that period. The revolutionary movements of the year 1820, in Spain, Portugal, and Italy—the call upon the people to take up arms, which was made by Ali Pasha in his last desperate struggle—the discontent which existed in Servia, Moldavia, and Walachia—acted as a stimulus, and seemed to afford a favourable opportunity of throwing off the Turkish yoke. The plan is said to have been to invade Moldavia, seize at once all the fortresses in the Morea, and, at the same time, palsy the Ottoman government, by setting fire to Constantinople, and assassinating the sultan. The existence of the latter article of the plan is, however, somewhat doubtful.

The commencement of a conflict, which was to last for several years, was entered upon on the 7th of March, 1821. On that day, Alexander Ypsilanti, a major-general in the Russian service, who had for some time been the director of the Hetæria, crossed the Pruth at the head of a body of Greeks, and entered Moldavia, where he was joined by Michael Soutzo, the reigning hospodar. A proclamation was immediately issued by them, calling upon the people to rise, and giving an assurance that a great power (meaning Russia) would assist them. Considerable numbers joined the standard of Ypsilanti; but he was cut off from further reinforcements by the emperor Alexander having formally disavowed his proceedings. The moment was probably deemed unfavourable for the enterprise; and it is a part of the policy of Russia, unblushingly to disavow her agents when they have made an unopportune movement. The result was, that, after having been inactive for some weeks, Ypsilanti was finally defeated by the Turks, and at last took refuge in the Austrian dominions, where he was seized and plunged into a dungeon. A partisan warfare was gallantly carried on for five months longer, by a Greek chief, named Giorghaki, who several times turned upon and routed his enemies; but was at last invested in a monastery by 8000 Otto-

mans, defended himself for several days, and, when his provisions were exhausted, blew himself up rather than submit to surrender. The chieftainship of the remnant of his band was assumed by Anastasius, one of his officers, a man of a kindred spirit. Pressed by 12,000 Turks, Anastasius retired, constantly fighting, to the banks of the Pruth, took up a strong position there, and held the enemy at bay for three days. His ammunition being at length exhausted, and half his brave comrades slain, he plunged into the Pruth, and his example was followed by his surviving 250 men. They succeeded in reaching the opposite shore, and were received there by the Russian outposts. In Greece, meanwhile, insurrection was proceeding with more energy and success. The abortive rising in Moldavia had at least the good effect of drawing off to that quarter several thousands of the Turkish troops, and thus greatly diminishing the resistance which the Turks could oppose to their revolted subjects in Greece. The Greeks had abundant reason for losing no time in appealing to the sword, if they did not wish to be exposed, without the means of defence, to the vengeance of their oppressors; for orders had been issued to disarm them, and take hostages from the principal families and churchmen. "The example of resistance," says Lieutenant-Colonel Leake, "was set in the end of March, by Germanos, bishop of Patræ, who, having been summoned to the capital, had proceeded as far as Kalavryta, when, finding the people, together with a body of armatoli, well disposed to his views, he openly raised the standard of independence and of the cross, which was immediately followed by a similar manifestation at Patras. The Mainotes, descending from Mount Taygetus, speedily occupied the level districts of Laconia and Messenia. Before the end of April a senate had assembled at Kalamata, in Messenia, on the borders of Maini, and the fleet of Hydra, raising the standard of the cross, proceeded to Psara, which, strong in its fortified rock, and numerous ships, had been among the first to set the example of insurrection, although situated on the advanced posts of the enemy." The accession of insular Greece to the cause of freedom was of infinite advantage to that cause. The islands of Hydra, Psara, and Spetzia alone could send forth 80 or 90 vessels, averaging 250 tons and 12 guns, and the other islands could supply perhaps 100 of a smaller class, all manned by skilful and determined mariners, the best in the Levant. The Turks soon felt the effect of this naval force. In May, one of their two-decked men of war was driven ashore by the Hydrian squadron, and was burnt by a fire-ship. This was the forerunner of many similar calamities.

The revolt of the Greeks roused into action all the furious passions of their Mahometan oppressors. While the citadel of Patras was being besieged by the insurgents of the place, *Yussuf Selim* arrived with a Turkish division to relieve it. He destroyed the town by fire, and put the inhabitants to the sword. This was but a faint prelude to worse atrocities. For four days, the Greeks who resided at Constantinople were massacred and plundered without mercy; and, on Easter day, the patriarch Gregorios was hanged before the patriarchal church in which he had just been officiating, and his body was given to the Jews, to be dragged through the streets. Numerous other ecclesiastics of the highest rank were tortured to death. From the Ottoman capital the rage spread to other parts of the empire; the Greeks were hunted down like wild beasts, and their churches levelled with the ground. These massacres were no less impolitic than barbarous: they had the natural effect of rousing the whole priesthood of Greece to the most vigorous exertions for liberty and vengeance.

Among the chiefs who took a most prominent part in the Morea were Petro Mavromikhali, formerly bey of Maina; Constantine Kolokotroni, who had been at the head of a band of armatoli, and had served under the banners of Russia and England; Demetrius Ypsilanti, a brother of Alexander, and, like him, a Russian officer; and Alexander Mavrokordato, a member of one of those Greek families of Constantinople, upon whom the Porte was accustomed to confer the four great offices of state to which Christians were eligible.

The Turks in Greece were so wholly unprepared to meet the danger which was come upon them, that they could make no stand in the field against their opponents, and were, consequently, under the necessity of taking shelter in the large towns and fortified places; so that, by the end of June, the open country and the mountains in the Morea, and much of Northern Greece, were freed from their presence. At the same time volunteers, and contributions of money, were arriving from various parts of Europe, in aid of the insurgents. Early in August, Monembasia and Navarino fell into the hands of the Greeks, who followed up their success by investing Tripolitza. Though the place was slightly fortified, the want of discipline and artillery rendered the siege a tedious operation. On the 5th of October, however, the Greeks made themselves masters of the town. The victors avenged the slaughter at Patras and Constantinople, by acts of equal barbarity. "Every kind of excess which a wanton indulgence in cruelty and a thirst of plunder could suggest, was inflicted on the Turkish and Jewish inhabitants of this unhappy place; and, when victims failed within the walls, the Greeks proceeded to put to death a large body of defenceless inhabitants, who, having been allowed to remove from the town, in consequence of the famine, still remained in the vicinity." The Greeks had already stained their laurels at Navarino, by similar conduct; but, in that instance, they had the palliation of having recently received intelligence of the fate of their countrymen in the Ottoman capital.

ıe sharp actions took place in various parts ireece; but the fall of Tripolitza was the important event which occurred in the ıpaign of 1821.

'hile affairs were in this state in Greece, an ry correspondence was kept up between sia and the Porte; the latter suspecting former of having originated the revolt, and former loudly calling upon the latter to satisfaction for the injuries and insults ch had been inflicted upon its brethren of Greek Church. The dispute was at length ıinated, or rather postponed, through the iation of England and Austria. To wait the Porte was still further weakened was policy of Russia.

ıe winter was employed by the Greeks in aring for the continuance of the contest, in framing a temporary constitution, which, the declaration of independence, was pro- ated on the 1st of January, 1822. Corinth established as the seat of government, and, ort time after, it was taken from the Turks. raising a loan of 5,000,000 of piastres, to be id in three years, was also decreed. The idency of the executive body was conferred ı Prince Mavrokordato.

iumphant over Ali Pasha, in Albania, the e could now direct all its forces against insurgent Greeks; and it flattered itself one campaign would suffice to bring them r its yoke. Had it acted instantly and ously, it might perhaps have endangered ian liberty: but it did not; and it was soon at that delays are dangerous. Before we ve the movements of its armies, one me- oly event must be noticed. The exposed tion and the commercial interests of the es had hitherto induced them to refrain taking up arms; but, in the middle of h, 1822, a body of men landed from Samos, half persuaded half compelled them to ise the cause of independence. In a very time, however, the capitan pasha arrived the Turkish fleet, and disembarked an owering number of troops. Here began ork of massacre, plunder, and conflagra-

In three weeks, not less than 25,000 per- perished; more than 30,000 women and ren were sold into slavery; a few thou- ı escaped pennyless and almost naked; ouses and temples were destroyed by fire, he once beautiful island was converted ı howling desert. The Greek fleet came ste to save the victims, but it, in some e, though very inadequately, avenged

In the dead of night the intrepid Ca- steered a fire-ship into the road of Scio, rappled it to the vessel of the capitan , an 80-gun ship, which exploded with crew. Nearly at the moment of this ex- n, the Greeks were hoisting their standard ı surrendered citadel of Athens. The de- ion of the Turkish admiral's vessel was ctive of one important advantage to the s; it so thoroughly intimidated his suc- cessor from co-operating, as it was intended that he should, with the army which was to invade the Morea, that he would not venture to approach the Grecian coast.

The plan of the Turks appears to have been to advance with two armies simultaneously, from Albania and Thessaly, and penetrate into the Morea, where their first object was to relieve Napoli, which was now besieged by the Greeks, and reduced to great extremity. The fleet was to co-operate in this scheme. We have seen that the latter part of the scheme was frustrated by the panic which the destruction of the capitan pasha's ship inspired. Another link of the chain was broken, by the gallant resistance which the Suliots were now making to the forces of Kurschid Pasha. In this situation of affairs, a plan was formed by Mavrokordato, which does credit to his boldness and talent. He proposed to anticipate the enemy's movements, by marching into Albania, relieving the Suliots, and rallying round him the Albanian Christians, and the Greeks in the mountains of that quarter. The project was approved of; but the means of carrying it into execution were scantily supplied. The Greek chiefs were reluctant to part with their troops; so that, instead of 10,000 men, which Mavrokordato had expected to obtain, he could only muster between 2000 and 3000, among whom were about 100 foreign volunteers, who bore the name of Philhellenes, and a small body of Suliots, led by the heroic Marco Botzari. With this inadequate force he passed over to Missolonghi, crossed the Aspropotamos, and advanced to the neighbourhood of Arta. In the hope of succouring his countrymen, Marco Botzari endeavoured, at the head of a few hundred men, to make his way to Suli; but he was met by a far superior body of Turks, and compelled to retreat. A worse disaster awaited Mavrokordato. There was in his camp a traitor, named Gogo, through whose treachery a considerable portion of the Greek army was nearly destroyed in the post of Peta. Among those who fell, bravely fighting to the last, were almost the whole of the Philhellenes. This event compelled the Greek general to retreat beyond the Aspropotamos. He, nevertheless, maintained himself in Acarnania, till the defection of another traitorous leader obliged him to fall back on Missolonghi, which he resolved to defend to the last moment. This retrograde movement deprived the Suliotes of all hope of succour; and they were ultimately under the necessity of accepting a capitulation.

We must now turn to trace the steps of that army which the Porte hoped would suffice to overwhelm the Morea. It consisted of 30,000 men, of which more than a third were cavalry, beside the guards of the pashas, and about 10,000 horse furnished by the Roumilian feudatories. It was not till the beginning of July that this enormous mass could be put in motion. From some cause or other, which has *not been explained*, the Greek leader Odysseus,

who had been entrusted with the defence of the mountain passes, made no attempt to retard the march of the enemy. Burning, plundering, and murdering all that came in their way, the Ottomans reached Corinth, the citadel of which was surrendered to them without resistance. Hitherto all had gone smoothly with the Turkish general Mehemet Pasha: he was now to learn all the difficulty of the task which he had undertaken. His first object was to relieve the important fortress of Napoli di Romania, which was reduced to such extremity that the governor had agreed to give it up if he were not succoured within forty days. On his approach, the members of the Greek government took refuge on board the ships, leaving Demetrius Ypsilanti, Mavromikhali, and Kolokotroni to make head against the storm. Their arduous task was nobly performed by the three chieftains. Ypsilanti, with a small force, took post in the ruins of Argos, where for several days he was ineffectually attacked by Mehemet Pasha, who had advanced, through the defiles, from the plain of Corinth to that of Argolis. When that position was no longer tenable, he took a still stronger, behind the Erasinus, where he set the Turks at defiance.

A month had now elapsed, during which nothing had been accomplished by Mehmet. He had, indeed, reached Napoli, but to little purpose, for he had not the power of revictualling it. His own supplies were now exhausted, and there were no means of renewing them; everything that could feed man or horse had been carried off or concealed by the Greeks. It was, therefore, necessary for Mehemet to fall back upon Corinth. But, when he began to commence his retreat, he found that the time for accomplishing it safely was gone by. From all parts of the Morea, the Greeks, led by Kolokotroni, Mavromikhali, Nikitas, and other chiefs, had thronged around to seal up defiles which were passable with difficulty even when there was no opposition. As the Turks slowly toiled along the narrow and rugged path, they were fired at, with deadly aim, on all sides, by myriads from the surrounding mountains, and every turn of the road showed them fresh foes. The slaughter continued for two days, and several thousands of them fell victims. At length, about 2000 forced their way to Corinth, and 3000 turned back and escaped to Napoli. The campaign closed by the surrender of Napoli, the flight of the Turks from before Missolonghi, which Mavrokordato had bravely defended for two months, and the burning of two Turkish men-of-war by the daring Canaris.

In April, 1823, the second Greek congress met at Astro, a small town on the Gulf of Napoli: the assembly was composed of 300 deputies. It introduced some amendments in the constitution, addressed a proclamation to the people, gave the presidency of the executive to Petro Mavromikhali, made Tripolitza *the temporary* seat of government, and then concluded its session. A spirit of disunion was strongly manifested during and evident signs appeared power was disposed to asse over the civil. Among the this disposition, which were course of the session, was tl soldiery, with respect to a la proposed to sell a part of the to provide for the public ser those domains as their own p the project of the law in a t it was torn in pieces, and, i guage, intimated their deter in the same manner all who vocates.

Calamitous as the campaig to the Turks, the Ottoman go to follow nearly the same pl ing year. Two simultaneou bania and Thessaly, were to l Turkish squadron and some The result in this instance, less calamitous than in the fo fruitless and disgraceful. was regularly opened, the Tu of what was in store for the having defeated a body of 20 in Western Greece, and Kar and Tsavella having been on the side of Thessaly. It June that the Ottomans com jected invasion from Thessal in two separate bodies, one of into Attica and Bœotia, and the country. The other w almost at its outset, by the l seus, who defeated it in a s conflicts, and compelled the fly into Thessaly. He then t other division, which he forc in the island of Negropont thus delivered from the dang it in this quarter.

In consequence of the c Ottomans had early received they were not able to comme attack till August. Musta general, was at the head of with whom he bent his cou nania and Etolia. His pro by the devoted patriotism ar Botzari, who, with about 30 a nocturnal attack upon t After having spread slaug hostile quarters, he was slai the point of seizing the pash of the remainder of the Gree the panic of the Turks, wh camp to the enemy. Mus quently reinforced, and aga after a vain attempt to make Anatolico, he was obliged to with the loss of most of his gage. To add to the joy c citadel of Corinth was at surrender, and the Turkish

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board their ships. Great numbers of them perished by the sword, or in attempting to reach the vessels, or by throwing themselves from the rocks rather than fall into the hands of the enemy. A remnant shut themselves up in Fort St. Nicholas, defended it valiantly for a while, and, when all hope was lost, put a match to the powder magazine, and involved their enemies and themselves in one common ruin.

The Greeks were not slow in taking vengeance. Having raised money to pay the sailors, the inhabitants of Hydra, Spetzia, and the other islands, hastily dispatched the fleet, under the command of Admiral Miaulis. The capitan pasha had left a garrison of 1500 men and 35 gallies, at Psara. Thither Miaulis bent his course, captured several of the ships, and put the garrison to the sword; after which he removed the surviving inhabitants, and Psara remained desolate. Leaving Sacturi, a brave and experienced officer, with a part of his squadron, to frustrate the design of the Ottomans against Samos, Miaulis proceeded in search of the Egyptian squadron, which was said to be at sea, and intending to begin its operations by putting down the insurrection in Candia. Sacturi performed his task effectually. He not only frustrated the expedition against Samos, but, with the aid of the fire-spreader, Canaris, destroyed several Turkish frigates and smaller vessels. Sacturi afterwards joined Miaulis, and the two admirals subsequently inflicted heavy losses on the combined Turkish and Egyptian fleets, the former of which was ultimately obliged to retire to the Dardanelles, and the latter to the Candian coast.

The military events of this year were of less importance than the naval. In Western Greece, Mavrokordato held in check the Turkish general, Omer Pasha, and no encounter of consequence took place. In Eastern Greece, the Ottoman troops were foiled in two attempts to penetrate to the Corinthian gulf, and to recover possession of Athens.

It was well for the Greeks that their enemies displayed so little vigour; as, during the latter part of 1824, the country was distracted by internal dissensions, which led to a civil war. The military faction, with Kolokotroni as its leader, endeavoured to seize upon the reins of government, and blood was shed in the struggle. Kolokotroni was eventually overcome, and was sent prisoner to Hydra. Greece also lost one of her bravest defenders: the celebrated Odysseus blasted his character by going over to the Turks. He was subsequently captured, and committed to close confinement. He lost his life either in attempting to escape from his prison, or by the hands of his irritated fellow-countrymen.

The storm which threatened to wreck the liberty of the Greeks was now about to burst upon them, and under very unfavourable circumstances. Their treasury was empty, their troops, though brave, were undisciplined and

under no effectual control, too many of the leaders were interested or self-willed, and three of the Morean fortresses were still held by Ottoman garrisons, so that the invaders would thus be enabled to effect a landing unopposed. On the other hand, this new enemy was to be dreaded on many accounts: the Egyptian force was formidable in point of numbers, and still more so from its being well disciplined, trained to implicit obedience, officered by men not ignorant of regular warfare, and led by an intelligent commander, who was invested with absolute authority. It was originally the intention of Mehemet Ali to put himself at the head of his army in the Morea, but he changed his mind, and committed the leading of it to his son Ibrahim. While this army subjugated the southern division of Greece, the Turkish forces were to advance into the northern, and their main efforts were to be directed to the reduction of Missolonghi.

The first division of Ibrahim's troops landed at Modon, in the latter end of February, and was speedily followed by the others; so that, by the middle of March, his army amounted to about 15,000 men. He began his operations by marching against Navarino. The Greeks, about 6000 in number, endeavoured to impede his operations, but they were defeated with heavy loss. He next attacked the island of Sphacteria, which lies at the entrance of the harbour, and carried it after an obstinate resistance. The garrison perished nearly to a man, with their intrepid leader Tsamados. Among them was Count Santa Rosa, a Piedmontese volunteer, who, having failed in an attempt to give liberty to his own country, devoted his life for that of Greece. Dispatching a part of his ships and transports to Modon, to fetch reinforcements, Ibrahim pressed the siege of Navarino. To Modon the Turkish squadron was followed by Miaulis, who sent several fire-ships into the harbour, and destroyed nine armed vessels, and many transports. The explosion of the ships communicated to a magazine of provisions and ammunition in the town, and the magazine was blown up. This event did not save Navarino, but it seems to have been beneficial to the defenders of it, who were by this time straitened for provisions. Fearing for the fate of that part of the squadron which remained with him, he offered advantageous terms to the garrison, which were readily accepted. While these events were passing in the Morea, the Turkish army had advanced into Western Greece, and invested Missolonghi.

Though in the several actions which had taken place, the Greeks manifested their wonted courage, yet among the majority of the Moreans there was a torpor and disinclination to come forward, which was highly prejudicial to the Greek cause. They called loudly for Kolokotroni, in whom they placed the utmost confidence. Some of the provinces also demanded his release; and he himself entreated that the government would allow him once more to risk his life in the cause of his country; and he offered to give two of his sons as hostages for his future good conduct. He was, in consequence, set at liberty, and entrusted with command. With a truly patriotic spirit, he declared that he had been to blame, and he added, "On my way hither from Hydra, I cast all rancour into the sea; do you do so likewise: instead of digging in search of buried treasures, bury all your hatreds and dissensions—that will be gaining a real treasure."

Kolokotroni immediately set off to rouse his adherents to arms; at the same time advising the government to destroy the walls of Tripolitza, that the town might not become a central point for the enemy to operate from. His advice was unfortunately neglected, and his own exertions came too late to avert the danger which impended over Greece. Having staid at Navarino only long enough to repair and strengthen the works, Ibrahim divided his forces, dispatching one part southward to Kalamata, and marching with the other division towards Tripolitza. After some hard fighting, the first corps penetrated to Kalamata, which, with some of the neighbouring villages, it destroyed by fire. With equal success, but not without a harder struggle, Ibrahim pursued his march towards Tripolitza. Kolokotroni had occupied the defiles through which he expected him to pass; but some Turkish peasants led him through paths over the mountains, and brought him unexpectedly on the weakest point which was occupied by the Greeks. A desperate contest ensued, which lasted for many hours, with great slaughter on both sides, and ended in the defeat of the Greeks. Tripolitza was immediately abandoned with such haste, that Ibrahim found there abundant supplies for his army. Kolokotroni retreated in a westward direction, to recruit his shattered army, and prevent the victor from opening a communication with Patras. Flushed with success, Ibrahim moved onward against Argos and Napoli; but his progress was arrested by Demetrius Ypsilanti, and he retrograded to Tripolitza. Having collected a considerable force, Kolokotroni moved upon Tripolitza, and various skirmishes took place, in some of which the Greeks were victorious. These trifling successes were, however, heavily counterbalanced, by the utter defeat and heavy loss which he sustained at Tricorpha, on the 16th of July. After this defeat great numbers of his troops returned to their homes. The Morea was thus left for a while exposed to all the fury of Ibrahim, who declared his resolution to burn and lay waste the whole of it, if it continued to resist. To enable him to carry his threats into execution, large reinforcements arrived from Egypt towards the latter end of October. In Eastern Greece little or no progress was made by the Turks, their principal efforts being directed against Western Greece, where, from the beginning of May, till the

close of the year, they were fruitlessly employed in the siege of Missolonghi, the brave garrison of which beat off several assaults, with terrible slaughter. At sea, the Turks suffered various losses through the activity of the Greek fleet; but Canaris was foiled in a well-planned and daring attempt to burn the Egyptian squadron in the port of Alexandria.

Such was the alarm excited by the progress of Ibrahim, that the provisional government of Greece deemed it prudent to seek for the protection of some foreign power. There was a French faction, which was eager to substitute monarchy for republicanism in Greece, and to give the throne to a son of the duke of Orleans. It was, however, silenced by an overpowering majority, and a resolution was adopted, by which "the Greek nation voluntarily placed the sacred deposit of its liberty, its national independence, and its political existence, under the absolute protection of Great Britain." Circumstances prevented England from accepting this protectorate; but it thenceforth interposed, and at last effectually, its good offices in favour of the Greeks. The step taken by the Greeks excited much wrath in a Frenchman named Roche, and an American named Washington, who had been sent to Greece on a mission by some real or pretended philhellenic societies in France and America, and who now had the folly and arrogance to present, to the provisional government, an insolent and menacing protest against the measure of appealing to England for protection. Their protest was treated with the contempt which it deserved.

The government did not rely solely upon English interference, to extricate it from its difficulties. In the latter end of September, the legislative council passed a conscription law, by which every hundredth man, between the ages of 18 and 30, was called into the field; the service not to extend beyond three years, unless in case of voluntary re-enlisting. It also decreed the sale of a part of the national property, to provide for the regular payment of the newly raised troops.

The principal interest of the campaign of 1826 was concentrated round the walls of Missolonghi. That place had been raised from a mere temporary post to the rank of a fortified town, by the skill and vigorous exertions of Pietro Cocchini, an Italian engineer. For more than nine months of the year 1825, Reschid Pasha, at the head of at least 30,000 men, had besieged this bulwark of Western Greece, without making any impression on it: in several assaults and sallies he had been defeated with a fearful carnage of his troops. By the close of the year, the sword, sickness, and desertion, had reduced his force to 12,000 men. His protracted resistance induced the Porte to delegate to Ibrahim the difficult task of clearing this obstacle to the progress of its views. Leaving, therefore, garrisons in the Morean forts and defensible posts, Ibrahim embarked with the remainder of his troops, and landed in the vicinity of Missolonghi, where he immediately began to take measures for the safety of his operations, by driving back all the Greek bands in the neighbourhood, and occupying various advantageous positions. A capitulation was offered to the garrison, and was firmly rejected. He was at the head of 25,000 men; but he prudently determined to rely less upon mere fighting than on slow and sure measures. To the seaward the town was protected by the shallowness of the lagoons, and by posts in the small neighbouring islands. To close up this side, and thus cut off all hopes of relief by sea, was among his first objects, and he succeeded in it. By dint of a great sacrifice of life, he made himself master of the islands of Vassiladi and Anatolico; after which the Turkish fleet was moored in the channel, so covered by batteries and floating rafts, that no fire-ship could approach. It was in vain that the Greek fleet endeavoured to throw in succours; the town was inaccessible. To the landward an incessant fire of shot and shells was kept up from the Ottoman batteries. The garrison replied with equal spirit, and made repeated sallies, in which they inflicted heavy loss on the besiegers. In the island of Clissova, also, a small number of Greeks defeated the Turks, of whom 2000 were slain. But, gratifying as these minor triumphs were, they were powerless to avert or protract the fate of Missolonghi. There were within the walls two invincible enemies—disease and famine. By the middle of April there was nothing left to support existence; rats, mice, even the marine plants which grew in the basin, had been consumed. People were hourly dying of hunger in the streets. Yet, even in this last extremity, every idea of capitulating was sternly rejected. It was resolved that those who were yet able to use their arms should endeavour to break through the hostile camp; the aged and the wounded volunteered to remain behind, that, even in death, they might contribute to spread destruction among their infidel foes. "Christo Kapsali, one of the primates of the town, firmly refused to quit it; and, leading a number of women and children to the great powder magazine, 'Come,' said he, 'be under no apprehension; I will set fire to it myself!' Some Missolonghiste soldiers shut themselves in the tower of the Windmills, resolved to blow up it and themselves; others collected gunpowder in some of the strongest of the houses, with the same intention. One old man, who was wounded, took his seat by the train of a mine which was under the Botzari bastion, intending to fire it as soon as the bastion was covered by the enemy." Works were also thrown up, and mines formed, in various parts of the city, and all was made ready to throw, at the last moment, the cannon into the fosse, that the barbarians might not triumph in the possession of such a trophy.

It was the intention of the garrison to effect

their retreat on Salona, and a letter was accordingly dispatched to General Karaiskaki, requesting that, at the proper time, he would assail the enemy's rear, and announce his arrival by firing a volley on Mount Aracynthus. The sally was to be made in two divisions: the one, composed of the best soldiers, was to make head against the main force of the Turks; the other, consisting of the Missolonghiotes, their wives and children, and such of the sick and wounded as were able to march, was to proceed by a route which was less exposed to the fire of the besiegers. Unfortunately, this plan was betrayed to Ibrahim by a villanous Bulgarian deserter, and he had time to adopt measures for its frustration.

At eight o'clock in the evening of the 22nd of April, the Greeks quitted the devoted city. After having waited outside of the walls till the last moment, listening in vain for the signal of Karaiskaki's attack, the first division rushed onward, and assailed the Egyptian entrenchments. The Greeks penetrated through them, and proceeded towards Mount Aracynthus; but at every step fresh troops swarmed round them, and their ranks were thinned by sabre and ball. Worn down by famine and toil, they would probably all have perished, had not 300 of Karaiskaki's men opportunely come up, and put the Turks to flight. Reduced from 3000 to 1800 men, the division at last reached Salona. The road along which they had passed to it was thickly strewed with the bodies of those who had died of hunger and fatigue.

The second division was doomed to a still harder fate. It was just quitting the place, when a cry of "Back! back to the town! To the batteries!" was raised; probably by the emissaries of Ibrahim. The multitude hurried back, and was followed by the Turks and Egyptians. Another body of Turks was already within the walls. Now commenced a scene of unutterable horror. To escape being dishonoured by the barbarians, crowds of mothers, with their children in their arms, threw themselves into wells, or the sea, or the flames of the burning buildings, or on the bayonets of the invaders. The men, meanwhile, fought with all the fury of despair, and with whatever weapon or missile came to hand. Every street, every house, was a scene of deadly combat. The powder magazine was by this time thronged with women, children, old men, and sick and wounded soldiers, resigned to meet death rather than disgrace. In the midst of them Kapsali stood, undismayed, with the lighted match in his hand. The magazine was soon surrounded by swarms of the enemy, who mistakenly supposed that it contained the treasures of the inhabitants. The infidels were on the point of breaking in, when, true to his promise, Kapsali applied the match to the powder. A burst of flame and a deafening explosion succeeded, and the building was hurled into the air, with *all its* heroic inmates, and 2000 of their ferocious assailants. So violent was the shock, that all the neighbouring dwellings were beaten to the earth, wide fissures were opened in the ground, and the sea was driven back from the shore, and returned with such a reflux as to inundate the opposite quarter of the city. Struck with terror by this catastrophe, the victors suspended their operations, and waited for the return of light. All was not yet over; for three days parties of the Greeks continued to maintain themselves in houses, which they finally blew up along with their assailants; and it was not till the 25th that the struggle was brought to a close, by the blowing up of the Windmill tower. A heap of ruins was all that remained of Missolonghi; a city the name of which will ever stand enrolled in history with those of Numantia, Saguntum, and Saragossa.

For the conquest of Missolonghi Ibrahim paid dearly, by the loss of nearly 4000 of his best soldiers. After having left a garrison, and given orders to clear away the ruins, he separated from Reschid Pasha, and returned to the Morea, while Reschid led his forces into Eastern Greece. As, thenceforth, the deliverance of Greece depended less on the valour of the inhabitants, than on the intervention of foreign powers in their behalf, we shall touch more concisely on the remaining military operations. On his return to the Morea, Ibrahim received a reinforcement from Egypt, and began to send out his detachments to ravage and plunder the country. A sort of guerilla war ensued, in which his forces were not infrequently defeated. He was still more signally foiled in an attack upon Maina, (the ancient Sparta,) whence his troops, after having set fire to a few villages, were driven with much disgrace and loss. On the side of Eastern Greece, Reschid was scarcely more fortunate. He penetrated, indeed, into Livadia, and besieged the citadel of Athens, but his subordinate officers were worsted in various encounters. On the other hand, the Greeks with difficulty succeeded in throwing a scanty supply into the citadel of Athens. By sea they displayed their usual activity, and twice baffled the Turks in attempts to land at Samos.

The fall of Missolonghi excited such alarm that the national assembly, which had just commenced its session at Epidaurus, was induced to apply for British mediation, to procure from the Porte the acknowledgment of Greece as an independent state, on condition of its paying tribute, or a certain sum of money at once. The British government was not deaf to this appeal. It entered into communication with the emperor of Russia on the subject, and also invited France to bear a part in putting a stop to the carnage which was going on in Greece. The result was a treaty, which was signed on the 6th of July, by which the contracting parties agreed to offer their mediation to the Porte, and to demand of the two parties that they should consent to an immediate armistice. That Greece should be a tributary state was one of the conditions on

arrangement was to be concluded.
l of the sultan to accept the media-
be punished by the powers entering
iercial relations with the Greeks;
:her party refused to execute the
:he mediators were to resort to such
hey might deem prudent, to carry it

ell for Greece that, at this critical
iad some external support. It was
' old, distracted by internal dissen-
e factions by which it was divided
ı other more, perhaps, than they
common enemy, and they kept up a
running fire of invectives, denuncia-
calumnies, which were seconded by
henever an occasion offered. This
two rival assemblies, each assuming
it the nation, were sitting contem-
y, at Kastri and Ægina. This
a, however, put an end to by the
n of English mediators, and the
assemblies met in union at Træ-
e of the first acts of the reunited
was to declare Count Capo d'Istria
of the government, Lord Cochrane
al, and General Sir Richard Church
mo of the army. The assembly had
ially informed that England and
uld mediate for Greece; and this
ice no doubt influenced it in the
ie national leaders. As Capo d'Istria
at Petersburgh, a commission of
ons was appointed to carry on the
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abours by the forming of a new con-

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edless, as they had no influence
rse of events, and were not, as the
Missolonghi was, distinguished by
ordinary circumstances. Various
attempts which the Turks made, to
citadel of Athens, were frustrated,
5th of June, famine compelled the
surrender: honourable terms were
it. In the Morea, Ibrahim, crip-
e losses which he had sustained at
hi, was obliged to confine his opera-
artisan and predatory warfare. He
the arrival of an expedition from
, which he hoped would enable him
e the conquest of the Morea. He
l hope for such a result, when, at
nt, two hostile factions were fighting
ıccession of Napoli, the seat of the
t, and some of the islands were
it swarms of piratical vessels, to
:he commerce of all nations.
es of Ibrahim were, nevertheless,
be blighted. Lieutenant-Colonel
d been sent to Egypt to announce
ce, and to prevail on Mehemet Ali
:he sailing of the expedition. Mehe-
ver, refused; and the armament,
of 92 sail, conveying a large body of troops, arrived at Navarino. Of this formidable squadron, 50 sail were vessels of war, of different rates, from 84 gun-ships down to schooners, brigs, and fire-ships. Ibrahim was now applied to by the British admiral on that station; but he positively refused to accede to the armistice, and reluctantly consented to withhold his fleet from acting till he could receive further orders from Constantinople and Egypt. In violation, however, of his pledged word, he sent out a division of his fleet, to convey succours to Patras. It was compelled to return by the British admiral. The British, French, and Russian squadrons having now joined, and the command having been assumed by Sir Edward Codrington as senior officer, it was resolved to prevent any further movements of Ibrahim's fleet, by anchoring in the harbour of Navarino. On the Turkish admiral was to rest the responsibility of commencing hostilities. He did not shrink from it. He had moored his 66 ships in three lines, which were supported by the batteries on shore. The combined fleet was suffered to enter the harbour unopposed, and take up its position; but some shots, which were at last fired by the Turks, led to a furious engagement, which lasted three hours and a half, and terminated in the burning of the largest part of the Ottoman squadron. The victorious fleet sustained considerable damage in masts and rigging, and had about 500 men killed and wounded. The loss of the vanquished was nearly 8000.

The government of Greece was assumed in 1828 by Count Capo d'Istria. The victory of Navarino may be considered as having placed out of the reach of danger the liberty of Greece: all that remained to do was to clear the Grecian territory of the remaining Turkish and Egyptian troops. As far as regarded the Morea, this was done by the arrival of a French army, which compelled Ibrahim Pasha to return to Egypt. The exertions of the Greeks were rendered more effectual by this aid, and by the circumstance of Russia having declared war against Turkey, and thus rendered it necessary for the flower of the Ottoman forces to march towards the Danubian frontier. In 1829 the war was continued, in Eastern and Western Greece; and, by an article in the treaty of Adrianople, between Turkey and Russia, the independence of Greece was tacitly recognized by the sultan. By the conference of London, in January, 1830, the Aspropotamos and Thermopylæ were assigned as the limits of the new state; but so much dissatisfaction was expressed by the Greeks at the narrow bounds of their territory, that, in 1832, with the consent of the sultan, the frontier was extended to its present demarcation.

While Greece was thus striving to enlarge its dominion, it was again torn by internal discord. Capo d'Istria, though not without some good qualities, had become deservedly unpopular. The Greeks "demanded the convoking of a national assembly, which he refused; the

complete freedom of the press, to which he would not consent; they reproached him with violating the first principles of the constitution, by concentrating in his own person all the powers of the state, by governing through the means of his army, like the delegated despot of Russia, rather than like the elected magistrate of a free people, and by banishing and imprisoning his opponents in the most illegal manner." The result of this conduct was a civil war, which began in 1831. Capo d'Istria called in the aid of the Russians, and thus rendered himself still more abhorred. Miaulis, who had so often distinguished himself by his naval exploits, destroyed the whole of the Greek fleet by fire, rather than suffer it to be seized by the Russians. The president was at length assassinated by George and Constantine Mavromikhali, the sons of a celebrated chief whom he had long kept arbitrarily in prison. His place was filled by his brother Augustin, who was soon compelled to resign it by the triumph of the party opposed to him.

The crown of Greece had, meanwhile, been offered to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg by the allies. He at first seemed disposed to accept it, but finally declined. Prince Otho, a younger son of the king of Bavaria, was then chosen, and the Greeks agreed to receive him. Otho arrived at Napoli in February 1833, and, on his coming of age in 1835, he assumed in person the direction of affairs, which, during the intervening two years, had been managed by a council of regency. His government is, for many reasons, very far from being satisfactory to his subjects. Otho, second son of the king of Bavaria, was born June 1, 1815; ascended the throne of Greece, February 6, 1833; and married, on the 22nd of November, 1836, Maria Frederica Amelia, princess of Oldenburgh, by whom he has no issue.

THE REPUBLIC OF THE IONIAN ISLES.

The islands which constitute this state are seven in number, beside a few of trifling magnitude. They may be considered as forming three groups, and are scattered along the Albanian and Grecian coast, in the Ionian and Mediterranean Seas, from the mouth of the Adriatic to the southern extremity of the Morea. The northern group comprehends the islands of Corfu and Paxo, and the islets of Antipaxo and Fano; the central group consists of Santa Maura, Theaki, Cephalonia, and Zante, with several islets; the southern group, which is at a considerable distance from the central, includes Cerigo and Cerigotto, and some insignificant islets.

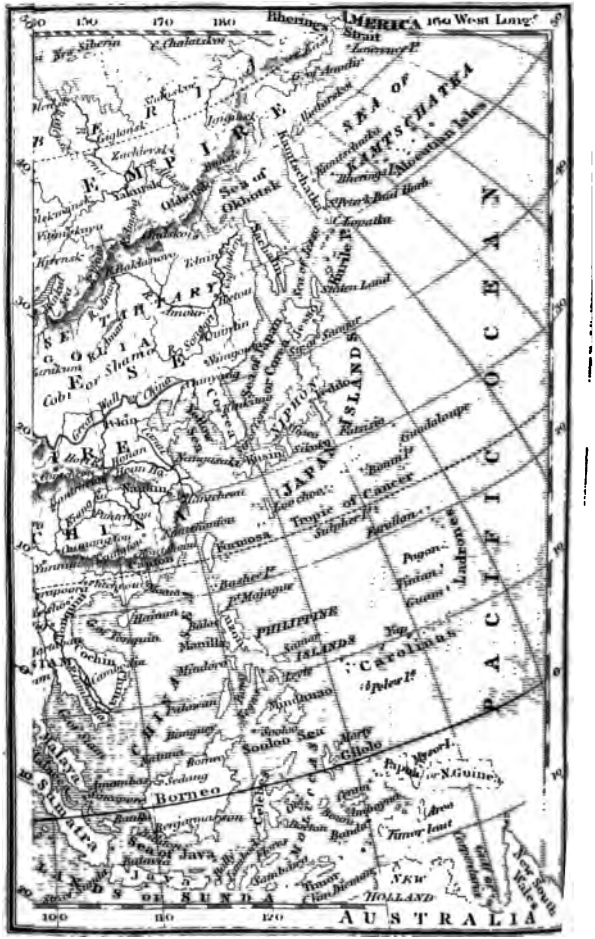
After having, for some centuries, belonged to the Venetians, these islands, in 1797, fell into the power of France. In 1799, however, the Russians made themselves masters of Corfu; and, in the following year, the seven islands were declared a republic, under the protection of Turkey and Russia. The treaty of Tilsit, in 1806, gave them back to France, by were not long retained. All of th Corfu, were reduced by the English itself was given up when the imper ment was overthrown. In pursu rangements subsequently made by powers, the islands were once more a republic, under the protection of sovereign.

In 1818 the constitution of the I was promulgated. At the head of ment is a lord high commissioner, at Corfu, and represents the Britis The legislative assembly consists of bers, eleven of whom sit by right, mainder are elected for five years, toral bodies of the islands. The se is the executive body, is composed bers and a president, the latter of w title of highness, and is appointed by sovereign. The parliament is conv year by the lord high commission also the power to prorogue and All bills must be approved by him senate. Each island has a regent, litical and civil officer, appointed by a resident, appointed by the lord hi sioner, and a municipal council, no the nobles. The supreme court of ju is a high court of appeal for all the at Corfu, and is composed of four ju

The established religion is the Gr but equal protection is extended to or Greco-Latin Church. The militia ment is about 3000 British troops, a ments of native militia. The comm siderable and increasing. There is at Corfu, and an ecclesiastical sem of the islands has a "secondary sch the ancient and modern languages and elementary mathematics, are t each chief town has a central scho ing, writing, and arithmetic, accor system of mutual instruction. I schools, the expense of which is the public, there are district sch parents pay for their children's edu total population is about 210,000.

Corfu, the ancient Corcyra, and of Homer, is the most considerable isles. It is about 38 miles long, 20 miles wide, in the widest part; rated from the Albanian coast by a varies in width from 2 to 14 miles lation, in 1834, was 69,930. Oil, wine fruit, flax, and some corn and pu products of Corfu; but the principa export is oil. No currants are gro

The island is divided into seve Corfu, Lispades, Peretia, Agra Skongill, and Milichia. Its capi in the district of the same name which is almost impregnably forti 16,000 to 18,000 inhabitants, and prosperous commerce. The othe Lispades, with 25,000 inhabitants;


MERICA
160 West Long.
Strait
SEA OF
KAMTSCHATKA
Aleoutian Isles
Sea of Okhotsk
PACIFIC OCEAN
JAPAN ISLANDS
Tropic of Cancer
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
Carolinas
Ladrones
Pelew Is.
Borneo
Celebes
Java
Sumatra
Molucco Sea
Gilolo
Banda
Timor
N.Guinea
NEW HOLLAND
AUSTRALIA
ISLANDS OF SUNDA
Sea of Japan
Kamtschatka
Lake Baikal
Great Wall
Pekin
Nankin
Canton
Macao
Formosa
Manilla
Malacca
Siam
Ava
Bengal
Delhi
Agra
Lahore
Persia
Caspian Sea
Aral Sea
Black Sea
Moscow
Petersburg
Archangel
Siberia
Tobolsk
Yenisei
Lena
Yakutsk
Okhotsk
Behring's Strait
Lancaster Pt.
Cape Jakutskoi
Cape Lopatka
Behring Island
Copper Island
Beechey Head
Cape Prince of Wales
Cape Barrow
Icy Cape
Cape Lisburne
Cape North
Cape Wilberforce
Cape Van Diemen
Cape Leeuwin
Cape Arid
Cape Catastrophe
Cape Otway
Port Jackson
Van Diemen's Land
Cape Horn
Cape Good Hope
Madagascar
Mozambique
Zanzibar
Abyssinia
Arabia
Mecca
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Bombay
Surat
Goa
Ceylon
Malabar Coast
Coromandel Coast
Bay of Bengal
Sea of Ochotsk
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Japan
Yellow Sea
China Sea
Java Sea
Arafura Sea
Timor Sea
Coral Sea
Tasman Sea
Great Australian Bight
Indian Ocean
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
Arctic Circle
Antarctic Circle
Meridian
Parallel
Island
Point
Bay
Gulf
Strait
Sea
Ocean
Mountains
River
Lake
Desert
Tartary
China
Japan
Philippine Islands
Carolinas
Ladrones
Borneo
Java
Sumatra
Celebes
Molucco Sea
Gilolo
Banda
Timor
N.Guinea
New Holland
Australia
Islands of Sunda
Pacific Ocean
Indian Ocean
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Japan
Yellow Sea
China Sea
Java Sea
Arafura Sea
Timor Sea
Coral Sea
Tasman Sea
Great Australian Bight
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Arctic Circle
Antarctic Circle
Meridian
Parallel
Island
Point
Bay
Gulf
Strait
Sea
Ocean
Mountains
River
Lake
Desert
Tartary
China
Japan
Philippine Islands
Carolinas
Ladrones
Borneo
Java
Sumatra
Celebes
Molucco Sea
Gilolo
Banda
Timor
N.Guinea
New Holland
Australia
Islands of Sunda
Pacific Ocean
Indian Ocean

a few more with a smaller popu-

ed to the south-east of Corfu, is in circumference, and has about ts. It produces wine, oil, and oil is its chief produce, and it is t kind. The town, or rather vil- Porto Gal, and has a good har- xo, which lies three miles to the nhabited by a few fishermen and

ia, the ancient Leucas, is in 30 miles, and varies in breadth les. It was anciently joined to but the isthmus was cut through ginians, or, as others say, the he channel between the island nent is at present narrow and a sandy island in the midst of strong fortress of Santa Maura. oduces corn, wine, oil, citrons, almonds, and other fruit, and es. The principal article of trade tichi, the chief town, contains abitants. The total population is about 18,000. Port-Drepano, f Amaxichi, in this island, is an our. Cape Ducato, opposite Ce- celebrated rock of Leucas, once of despairing lovers. To the Santa Maura, and belonging to isle of Megalonisi, which is in- as olive plantations and sheep

, the ancient Cephallenia, which our cantons or districts, is situate ulf of Lepanto, and is about 31 , and from 10 to 20 in breadth. , in 1834, was 57,174. The climate owers bloom in the season which winter, and the trees bear ripe he year, in April and November; e latter month are smaller than ie Cephalonians are represented rious and intelligent than their ours. They carry on manufac- n, and engage in commercial considerable extent. The chief ic are oil, muscadine wine, and grapes called currants; that is, corinths. The capital is Argostoli; which has 5200 inhabitants, and a good harbour. Lixuri is a more handsome town, with 5000 inhabitants.

Theaki, or Little Cephalonia, was the ancient Ithaca, the birthplace and kingdom of Ulysses. It is separated from Cephalonia by a channel between 3 and 4 miles wide, and is 12 miles long, and 4 broad. It has 9674 inhabitants, and its principal town is Vathi, which has an excellent harbour, and a population of 2000 persons. The exports of Theaki are wine, oil, and currants.

Zante, the ancient Zacynthus, is situated opposite to the western coast of the Morea, and is about 14 miles long, and 8 broad. The climate and produce are similar to those of the other islands. Its principal riches consist in currants, which are cultivated in a large plain under the shelter of mountains, whence the sun has greater power to bring them to maturity. Here are also the finest peaches in the world, each weighing eight or ten ounces. The inhabitants of this island are nearly 40,000. The principal town is Zante, which is fortified, and has a good harbour, and 19,000 inhabitants. It is the most commercial town in the Ionian republic.

Cerigo, formerly Cythera, is situated in the Mediterranean, is of an oval shape, about 20 miles long by 10 broad, and contains, beside the chief town, which is called Capsali, 31 villages, with about 9000 inhabitants. The face of the country is rocky and mountainous; but there are many small valleys which produce corn and flax: the cotton-plant is also cultivated here; and good wine is made by the inhabitants, but not for exportation. It is well stocked with cattle. It also boasts of 20 churches, and 9 free-schools. The island has two ports; but its trade is very inconsiderable. The people are a simple honest race, cheerful and content with their scanty means of subsistence. Among the natural curiosities may be mentioned a cavern, which has never been explored to the end, but which exhibits, in the progress of research, an arborescent appearance, compared by Mr. Galt to a "subterranean forest of petrified trees." Midway between Cerigo and Candia lies the little island of Cerigotto. It is a dependency of Cerigo.

ASIA.

s Europe and Africa in the ex- itories, so also is it superior to enity of its air; the fertility of eliciousness of its fruits; the balsamic qualities of its plants, ns; the salubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richness of its metals; and the fineness of its silk and cotton. According to the sacred records, it was in Asia that the all-wise Creator planted the garden of Eden, and in which he formed the first man and first woman,

from whom the race of mankind was to spring. After the deluge, Asia became again the nursery of the world, whence the descendants of Noah dispersed their various colonies into the other parts of the globe. It was in Asia that God placed his once favourite people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here, too, that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accomplished by his divine Son; and it was hence that the light of his glorious Gospel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations, by his disciples and followers. Here the first Christian churches were established, and the Christian faith was miraculously propagated and cherished, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Asia that the first edifices were reared, and the first empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all these accounts, this quarter claims a superiority over the rest. It must, however, be owned, that a great change has happened in that part of it called Turkey, which has lost much of its ancient splendour, and, from the most populous and the best-cultivated spot in Asia, has almost become a desert. The other parts of Southern Asia continue nearly in their former condition, the soil being as remarkable for its fertility, as most of the inhabitants are for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly produced by the warmth of the climate, though it is in some measure heightened by custom and education; and the symptoms are more or less visible as the several nations are seated farther from, or nearer to, the north. Hence the Tartars, who live in nearly the same latitude with the French and Germans, are as brave, hardy, strong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is deficient in the robust frame of their bodies, among the Chinese, Hindoos, and all the inhabitants of the most southern regions, is in a great measure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and their aptitude for various kinds of workmanship, which our most skilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

In early times the south-western portion of this vast extent of territory was successively governed by the Assyrians, the Medes, the Persians, and the Greeks; while the immense regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the ancient conquerors. On the decline of those empires, a small part of Asia submitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the 7th and 8th centuries, the Saracens founded in Asia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extensive empire than that of Cyrus or Alexander. In the 13th century, the Mongols, under the khan Genghiz, (corruptly called Zingis,) overran Asia from China to the Euphrates, and his grandson Houlakou extinguished the remaining splendour of the khalifate. Timour pursued a similar career of success; the Turks established their sway from the frontiers of Persia to the Archipelago; and the Russians have for two centuries possessed the northern division of this extensive quarter of the globe.

The prevailing form of government, in Asia, is absolute monarchy. If any of its inhabitants can be said to enjoy some share of liberty, they must be merely the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Asiatic nations, when the Dutch first came among them, could not conceive how it was possible for any people to live under any other form of government than that of a despotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Persia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profess Mohammedanism. The Persian and Indian Moslems are of the sect of Ali, while the others follow that of Omar; but both acknowledge Mohammed for their lawgiver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Asiatic islands, the people are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found in all parts of Asia. Christianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apostles and primitive fathers, suffered an almost total eclipse by the conquests of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks: incredible indeed have been the hazards, perils, and sufferings, of the Catholic missionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the most distant regions, and among the grossest idolaters: but their labours have hitherto been in a great measure abortive, chiefly in consequence of the avarice, cruelty, and injustice of the Europeans, who resort thither in search of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages spoken in Asia are the modern Greek, the Turkish, the Russian, the Tartarian, the Persian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chinese, and the Japanese. Some of the European languages are also spoken upon the coasts of India and China.

The continent of Asia is situated between 27 and 190 degrees of east or 170 of west longitude, and between the equator and 78 degrees of north latitude. It is about 5500 miles in length from the Dardanelles on the west, to the eastern shore of Tartary; and about 5400 miles in breadth, from the most southern part of Malacca, to the most northern cape of Asiatic Russia. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the west it is separated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Hellespont, the Sea of Marmora, the Black Sea, the Caucasian chain of mountains, the Uralian chain, and the river Oby, which falls into the Arctic, or Northern Ocean. On the east it is bounded by the Pacific, which separates it from America; and, on the south, by the Indian Ocean; so that it is almost surrounded by the sea. The principal regions which divide this country are the following. The subordinate divisions will be noticed in the respective articles.

Nations.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion.
atic ussia	4000	1850	5,500,000	Tobolsk	2160 N. E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
rgia, &c.	500	480	100,000	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	Mo. & Ch.
nese	2600	1000	2,000,000	Kin-yan, or Moukden	4480 N. E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans.
bet	1350	480	400,000	Lassa	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans.
pend.	1000	1100	1,000,000	Bokhara	2900 E.	4 36 bef.	Pagans.
na	1400	1100	1,400,000	Pekin	4320 S. E.	7 25 bef.	Pagans.
idoostan	1900	1200	1,200,000	Delhi, Calcutta	3720 S. E.	5 16 bef.	Moh. P. & Ch.
ia beyond ie Ganges	1800	800	about 800,000	New Ava	4800 S. E.	6 44 bef.	Pa. & M.
sia	850	900	700,000	Teheran	2300 S. E.	3 20 bef.	Moham.
bia	1480	800 to 1200	1,400,000	Mecca	2640 S. E.	2 52 bef.	Moham.
ia	240	100	700,000	Aleppo	1860 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Mo.
ly Land	180	50	112,000	Jerusalem	1920 S. E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Mo.
olia, or sia Minor	700	430	280,000	Bursa	1440 S. E.	1 48 bef.	Moham.
rbeker, or esopotamia	320	180	70,000	Diarbeker	2060 S. E.	2 56 bef.	Mohammedans, with some few Christians.
, or haldea	250	200	30,000	Bagdad	2240 S. E.	3 04 bef.	
comania, Armenia	350	250	45,000	Erzerum	1860 S. E.	2 44 bef.	
distan, or syria	200	150	30,000	Solymaneah	2220 E.	3 — bef.	Moham.

f Asiatic islands are those which the empire of Japan, Borneo, Sumatra, Celebes, Java, Ceylon, the Philippines, and the Spice Islands.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

iles 950 / 690 } between { Degrees. 27. & 45. E. long. 31. & 41. N. lat. ; about 520,000 square miles, with rsons to each.

BIRS.—This country is bounded by the Black Sea and Circassia, on the north; by Persia, on the east; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the south; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the west. By European geographers, Asiatic Turkey is generally divided in the following manner.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. The Arabian Irak, or Chaldea	Bagdad.
	2. Diarbeker	Diarbeker.
	3. Kurdistan	Solymaneah.
	4. Turcomania, or Armenia	Erzerum.
Natolia, or Asia the Less, on the west	1. Natolia Proper	Bursa.
	2. Amasia	Amasia.
	3. Aladulia	Adana.
	4. Caramania	Konieh.
East of the Levant Sea	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land	Aleppo, Jerusalem.

The Turkish distribution bears, however, no resemblance to the foregoing. The whole Asiatic territory, with the exception of Arabia, is divided into eighteen eyalets or pashalics, which are subdivided into numerous sanjaks or governments. Of the sanjaks many are independent of the pasha within whose circle they are included, and even yield merely a nominal obedience, or none at all, to the sultan himself. ASIA MINOR, or ANATOLIA, contains the eyalets of Anadoli, Adena, Caramania, Merash, Sivas, and Trebizond—ARMENIA, with part of KURDISTAN and GEORGIA, those of Erzerum, Van, and Kars—OTTOMAN KURDISTAN, that of Shehrezar — MESOPOTAMIA, or AL-JEZIRAH, with IRAK ARABI, those of Diarbekir, Rakka, and Mosul — and SYRIA, or SHAM, those of Haleb, or Aleppo, Damascus, Acre, and Tripoli.

MOUNTAINS.—These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings: the most remarkable are Olympus, Taurus, Anti-taurus, Ararat, Lebanon, and Hermon.

RIVERS—LAKES—MINERAL WATERS.—The chief rivers are the Euphrates, which rises in the mountains of Armenia, and falls into the Persian Gulf, after a course of about 1300 English miles; the Tigris, which flows into the Euphrates about 60 miles to the north of Bassora, after a course of nearly 800 miles; Mæander, the Sarabat, or ancient Hermus, the Orontes, in Syria, and the Jordan.

The lake of Van, in Kurdistan, is about 80 miles long, and 40 broad. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilleh, is about 30 miles in length, and has a communication with the Euphrates. The lake of Asphaltites, usually called the Dead Sea, in Palestine, into which the Jordan flows, is about 50 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is remarkable for the saltness and density of its waters.

The mineral waters of Bursa are in great estimation. The water smokes, and is so hot as to scald the hand. There are several other hot and mineral springs in different parts of Asiatic Turkey.

METALS — MINERALS. — The mountainous provinces of Turkey in Asia may be supposed to possess a variety of valuable minerals and metals; but the ignorance and indolence of those who possess the country are so great, that nature has lavished her gifts in vain.

CLIMATE.—Though the climate of this country *is* delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the Author of Nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague—a dreadful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and their superstitious belief in predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.—As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, it is scarcely necessary to inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by the Greeks and Armenians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces, are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and, it is said, in some places nothing. Their asparagus is uncommonly large; and their grapes far exceed those of other countries in size. In short, nature has brought all her productions here to apparent perfection.

ANIMALS.—The breeds of the Turkish and Arabian horses, the latter especially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have considerably improved that of the English. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to these countries; but they contain all that are necessary for the use of mankind. Camels are here in much request, from their strength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. That manufacture which is known by the name of camelot, was originally made of a mixture of camel's hair and silk, though it is now often made with wool and silk.

As to birds, here are wild fowl in great perfection: the ostriches are well known by their tallness, swiftness in running, and stupidity. Except lampreys, mullets, and oysters, the Roman epicures prized no fish but those that were found in Asia.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—The natural curiosities of Asiatic Turkey, though they must be numerous, seem to have been little explored or described by travellers, who have in general

tive to the remains of antiquity
ıost all the provinces of this
Two or three of them, how-
nentioned. The first is in a
t Taurus, near the coast of Asia
.ofty ridge, the highest point of
an altitude of nearly 8000 feet,
alled Solyma, and now bears
:htalu, has always teemed with
ne part of it is the celebrated
now called the Yanar, an ever-
:ensely hot flame, but without
probably consists of ignited
e shepherds frequently cook
it, and the simple natives are
that it will not roast any meat
stolen. It is also believed that
.htalu 'every autumn a nightly
› ıssue from the summit of the
r than the report of any can-
›mpanied by fire and smoke;'
which Captain Beaufort judi-
s to be similar to those ex-
nexplained, which have been
ers among the elevated ranges
uth America. A tradition also
r his flight from Egypt, Moses
htalu, which has thence ob-
of Moossadaghy, or the Moun-
The northernmost portion of
it extends from the sea-shore
r, rises, peak above peak, with
as to have acquired the name
e Ladder."
n of a similar kind occurs near
rdistan. The place is called
nes, and the phenomenon has
e remotest period. "The spot
nes issue has a dull, dusky,
n broad daylight, and they are
›n near approach. The evolu-
eous acid is so great, that it
tolerable; and a thermometer
.ved gases rose to 220 degrees.
ar is thrust into the ground a
s forth; not the pale lambent
by carburetted hydrogen, nor
ght of hydro-sulphuric acid in
a fierce and ardent fire, like
d be produced by the mingled
hur, coal, and bitumen. The
eature in the present case is,
: of the phenomenon; its ex-
ı; and that, according to report,
ing the dryest weather."
natural curiosities may be
numerous and inexhaustible
which are found between the
he Tigris. Mr. Rich describes
ich is in the hill pass at Tooz
It is about 15 feet deep, 10 of
with water, on which floats the
tance. The latter is skimmed
ter is conveyed to reservoirs,
lizes, and becomes excellent
aite brilliant grain, free from
bitterness. It is worth about 20,000 piastres yearly. The daily produce of the oil is about 30 pints.

PROVINCES—CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—The cities and towns of Turkey in Asia are very numerous, and at the same time very insignificant in general, because they have little trade, and have greatly declined from their ancient grandeur. Aleppo, however, the real name of which is Haleb, preserves a respectable rank among the cities in Asiatic Turkey. It is still the capital of Syria, and is superior in its buildings and conveniences to most of the Turkish cities. The houses, as usual, in the East, consist of a large court, with a dead wall to the street; an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble; and an elegant fountain of the same material in the middle. Aleppo and its suburbs are seven miles in compass, standing on eight small hills, of unequal height, on the highest of which the citadel is erected, but of no great strength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, surround the city, which was estimated by the late Dr. Russell to contain 230,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 were Christians and 5000 Jews; but, at present, in consequence of the dreadful earthquake, in 1822, which destroyed nearly two-thirds of the buildings, and the subsequent disturbed state of the country, it does not contain more than 150,000. Whole streets are uninhabited, and bazaars abandoned. It is furnished with most of the conveniences of life, except good water, within the walls, and even that is supplied by an aqueduct, distant about four miles, said to have been erected by the empress Helena. The streets are narrow, but well paved with large square stones, and are kept very clean. The gardens are pleasant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and pistachio trees: but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and transact their business in caravanserais, or large square buildings, containing their warehouses, lodging-rooms, and counting-houses. This city abounds in neat mosques, some of which are even magnificent; in public bagnios, which are very refreshing; and bazaars, which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered streets, with little shops, as in other parts of the East. The coffee is excellent, and considered by the Turks as a high luxury; and the sweetmeats and fruit are delicious. European merchants live here in greater splendour and safety than in any other city of the Turkish empire, in consequence of particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not used here; but persons of quality ride on horseback, with a number of servants before them, according to their rank. The English, French, and Dutch, have consuls, who are much respected, and appear abroad, the English especially, with marks of distinction. Scanderoon, or Alexandretta, about 70 miles to the west of *Aleppo*, and the port of that city, is now almost

depopulated; but its vicinage is dignified with superb remains of antiquity.

As the mosques and bagnios, mentioned above, are built in nearly the same manner in all the Mohammedan countries, we shall here give a general description of them.

Mosques are of a square form, and generally of stone: before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and it has low galleries round it, the roof of which is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mohammedans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead, and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from them, without the use of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter a mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Most of these buildings have in their vicinity a place of entertainment for strangers during three days.

The bagnios in the Mohammedan countries are admirably well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but more frequently circular, built of white well-polished stone or marble. Each bagnio has three rooms; the first is used for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them are paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath we have already mentioned.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, was founded by the caliph Almansor, in 706, and was for some centuries the metropolis of the khalifate, under the Saracens. This city retains few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of nearly an irregular square, having a circuit of about five miles, and is ill-built, and rudely fortified by a high brick-wall, flanked with towers; but the conveniency of its situation renders it one of the seats of the Turkish government, and it has still a considerable trade, being annually visited by the caravans from Smyrna and Aleppo, and supplied also with the produce of Persia and India. The houses are generally large, and many of them rise to the height of several stories; they are built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the free circulation of the air; many of the windows are made of elegant Venetian glass, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Most of the houses have a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a small plantation of orange-trees. The bazaars are spacious, filled with shops for all kinds of merchandise, and a few of them are handsome; but the major part are poor in design, and mean in execution, and many of the shops which they contain are in a dilapidated state. These were erected by the Persians, when they were in possession of the *place*, as were also the bagnios. There are *also 6* colleges and 200 mosques. In the north-west corner of the city stands the castle, which is of white stone, and commands the river, consisting of curtains and bastions, on which some large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each bastion, but in so bad a state as to be supposed unable to support one firing. Below the castle, by the water-side, stood the palace of the Turkish governor, which is now in ruins: and there are many summer-houses on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the khalifs were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect. Before the fearful plague of 1831, the population was estimated at nearly 150,000; but, since then, it has been much diminished by famine and inundation, as well as by the pestilence. No less than 15,000 perished by one flood.

Bassora, or Basra, which is situated below the part where the Tigris joins the Euphrates, is considered as the second city of the pashalic of Bagdad; but it has greatly declined from its former wealth and importance, though it still boasts of a population of 60,000, who carry on an extensive trade. The houses are meanly built of sun-dried clay; the bazaars are miserable structures; and, of forty mosques, only one is worthy of the name. The city is seven miles in circumference, but a large part of the included space is occupied by corn fields and plantations of date trees. The Arabs form the most numerous class of the inhabitants: but the Armenians are the chief managers of the foreign trade. For the merchandise of British India, they chiefly exchange bullion, pearls, copper, silk, dates, and gall-nuts; and their horses, which are strong and beautiful, are also articles of exportation.

Mosul, which is the seat of a pasha of two tails, is situated on a plain near the Tigris, and was a flourishing town; but it is now visibly declining, though it still has nearly 50,000 inhabitants; among whom, beside Turks, are many Kourds, Arabs, Jews, and Armenians. The general aspect is mean, the streets being narrow, irregular, and ill paved. The houses are chiefly constructed of small unhewn stones, cemented with mortar, and plastered with mud.

Diarbeker, the ancient Amida, was formerly the capital of an independent state, and is now the seat of a powerful pasha, who is not altogether subservient to the Porte. It is situated on a commanding eminence, and is surrounded by a wall of basalt, with towers at intervals, supposed to be a Roman work, and famous for its height and solidity. Many of the houses are very handsome; one mosque is particularly magnificent, and the castle is a great ornament to the town. Manufactures and commerce are prosecuted with a considerable degree of spirit; and the inhabitants, who nearly amount to 50,000, bear a better character than those of most Turkish towns. They indulge their women with a degree of liberty uncommon in the East, and treat strangers with courtesy and respect.

of Kurdistan was formerly Kara-
ow Solymaneah. The latter place
rin, and was at one period a flou-
ontaining 2000 houses, 5 mosques,
erais. It has, however, suffered
war, extortion, cholera, and the
is little better than a collection
ruins, and the population is
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, and snow sometimes lies on
r two months. The country
ivided between the Turks and
mong independent tribes, which
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and partly stationary. Speaking
Lieutenant Heude says, "They
e, and animation; robbers by
constantly on the watch for
ave thick manly beards, with
es, which are often contrasted
s of liquid blue. They are con-
with pistols, a dagger, and a
falchion; and the ruddy glow
ough an olive complexion finishes
d stamps the daring outlaw as
hardy mountaineer. The Kur-
ill suit their lords: mountain-
ir youth, and lovely, laughing,
ids, they are Amazons in their
d follow their husbands in all
gs. The Kurds are exceedingly
ig the antelope, and commonly
speed over every kind of ground,
ation or mishap; their horses
respect certainly remarkable,
e greater part of the mountain-
acquainted with, they are com-
arger size, and as beautiful and
r are indefatigable and sure."
a large commercial and partly
; but the houses are low, and
iefly of wood. It had once con-
and cotton manufactures, and,
lation of 130,000 souls; but, when
took possession of the place,
t war with the Turks, most of
s emigrated. Since the peace of
which the town was restored to
e of the emigrants have returned.
er, the population had only risen

usa, was formerly the Turkish
he suburbs, it is about six miles
ce. It is romantically situated
ty of Mount Olympus; and a
the middle of the city over per-
ks. A mosque, built by Or-khan,
degree of elegance; that of Ba-
nore admired; and two shrines
el, while they afford a delightful
ntry, excite the reverence of the
e whole number of mosques
own abounds in a remarkable
prings, some of which are salu-
ative: every house has its foun-
tain. There are, in this neighbourhood, seven public baths, naturally warm, which are much frequented; and it is said that the private baths amount to 3000. The inhabitants of the town, to the number of 100,000, are industrious, more particularly the Christian and Jewish parts of the population: they manufacture a great deal of silk, velvet, and gauze, and also coloured linen; and their fruit, confectionary, and bread, are excellent.

Angora, capital of a pashalic, is a strong town, embosomed among mountains, and has about 20,000 inhabitants. It is neatly built, and has some trade, particularly in that yarn of which shalloons are made, and in shawls of goat's hair, which rival those of Cashmere. It was near this town that Timour obtained his famous victory over Bayezid.

The south-eastern part of Asia Minor, called Caramania, is an extensive province, fertile though mountainous, and enjoys the advantage of a fine climate: but it has few important towns; and the people in general are rude and uncivilized. Some of the provincial governors can scarcely be called subjects to the Porte, as they seem to pay only a nominal allegiance; and they find great difficulty in taming the spirit of the natives, many of whom subsist by robbery and piracy.

Smyrna, which the Turks call Izmir, is the most considerable town in Asia Minor, and one of the most ancient. It contains about 130,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Jews, and 12,000 Greeks. The excellence of its harbour renders it the centre of all the traffic carried on between Europe and the Levant, and preserves it in a flourishing state; but the other parts of this country, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphylia, Pisidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, (territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman history,) are now, through the Turkish indolence and tyranny, either forsaken, or a theatre of ruins. The sites of ancient cities are still discernible; and, so luxuriant is nature in those countries, that in many places she triumphs over her forlorn condition. Of Smyrna we may farther observe, that it is about four miles in circumference, and makes a very handsome appearance when approached by sea. Its domes and minarets, interspersed with cypresses, rise finely above the tiers of houses, and the summit of the hill varies the view by the display of a spacious fortress. The town is not so ill built as many other Turkish towns are; and the abundance of all the necessaries of life, and the general civility even of the Moslem inhabitants, contribute to render this a desirable abode, except for three months, when the heat, though tempered by a westerly wind in the day, and by a land-breeze in the night, is scarcely endurable, and is attended with very unpleasant attacks from stinging flies and still more troublesome mosquitoes. The Greeks in this city seemed to thrive and flourish in trade and in progressive education, when the

ried on. The shops of the shoemakers fill two streets.

Sardis, now called Sart, formerly the capital of the Lydian realm, and one of the seven churches of Asia, is reduced to a few clay huts, inhabited by herdsmen; but the village and its neighbourhood may boast of two very interesting remains of antiquity. One is the burying-place of the Lydian kings, the other is the vast Ionic temple of Cybele.

Opposite to the isle of Lesbos was a village called Haivali, which, in consequence of the exertions of some enterprising Greeks, rose into importance, and received such accessions as nearly swelled its population to 30,000. The inhabitants were all Greeks, the Turks being excluded by a decree of the Porte. Various branches of manufactures and trade flourished at this place; and, in 1803, a college was erected in which the number of scholars sometimes amounted to 350. But, when a body of Greek insurgents from Europe had landed in that part of Asia, with a view of extending the revolt, the pasha of Bursa sent a military force to protect Haivali, or rather to take possession of the place. Quarrels arose between the inhabitants and the Mahometan intruders; and one half of the intimidated population emigrated to different islands. A Greek armament afterwards appeared in the harbour, and conflicts ensued between the Turks and those who disembarked. The Greeks being victorious, the enraged Turks set fire to the town in their retreat, and the greater part became a heap of ruins.

Konieh, formerly Iconium, the capital of

the aspect of the whole is light
the extreme. The castle, with
court and massive walls, and th
splendid mosque near the centre
look imposing by their magnitu
light and tapering minarets t
every quarter of the town give
character of elegance to the whole
says Mr. Legh, "is long and nar
houses, built of mud bricks, have
extremely mean, which little corr
the interior magnificence. The
rooms are generally inlaid with
variegated marble, the windows a
of stained glass, and the walls ar
painted in fresco, with represents
flowers or arabesques, but of the
and intricate angular patterns an
tical figures." This place is fa
coffee-houses, built on the banks
rady, and consisting of a high p
supported by wooden pillars. S
part of the recreation at these hou
ther amusement is story-telling.
blades for which Damascus was
celebrated, have degenerated into
manufacture; but the silk and co
dities are still in great request, a
net work is represented as adm
population is variously estimat
150,000 to 180,000.

Said, the ancient Sidon, has a t
bour, but is not populous, and i
been in a great measure transfe
rout (Berytus,) which is one of th

that they are the descendants of parties of
saders, who, instead of returning to Europe,
ablished their residence among the Syrian
untains. In their persons they are for the
st part fair, and their women, of whom they
excessively jealous, are said to be very
ndsome. The male dress is rich and pic-
resque; and the women, to the elegance of
ir clothing, add the ornament of a silver
n, which, affixed on the crown, the right
the left side of the head, respectively indi-
es a virgin, a married woman, and a widow.
Tyre, or Sur, so famous formerly for its rich
e, and, still more, for its commercial great-
ss, is now inhabited by scarcely any but a
r miserable fishermen, who live among the
ns of its ancient grandeur. There are strong
lls on the land side, of stone; but the cir-
mference of the place is not more than a
le and a half, and Christians and Mohamme-
ns only make up the number of about 1500.
St. Jean d'Acre (Ptolemais) is a considerable
wn in point of population and of trade. Be-
re the siege and storming of it, in 1832, it
s supposed to contain 20,000 inhabitants.
was for many years the seat of the pasha
Gezzar, who, though a most inhuman
nst, adorned the place with fine public
ildings, and promoted in some respects the
erest and welfare of the people. The chief
m which Acre has to notice consists in the
ges it has sustained. It was taken by
Hard Cœur de Lion; aided by British skill
valour, it foiled Bonaparte in 1799; Ibra-
Pasha carried it by assault, in 1832, after
ge of nearly six months; and, in 1841, it
conquered, in a few hours, by an English
ron.

usalem, once the capital of Judea, con-
a stately temple, or rather a group of
es, erected at different times on the spot
is supposed to have been formerly enno-
y Solomon's magnificent structure. Al
one of the number, consists of seven
at the end of the central one is a hand-
upola: seven arches slightly pointed,
on cylindrical pillars, support this
he cupola has two rows of windows,
ibellished with arabesque painting and
Al-Sakhara, or the mosque of Omar,
tagonal edifice, surmounted by an
upola, and entered by four gates, be-
which is a fine portico in the Corin-
e. The exterior is incrusted with
considerable height: the remainder
th small bricks of various colours.
of this city, says M. de Chateau-
heavy square masses, very low,
y any windows; they have terraces
and look like prisons or sepul-
whole would appear to the eye as
oted level, if the steeples and the
summits of a few cypresses, and
' nopals, did not break the uni-
ie view. By others who have
ited spot, the town is described
as an ill-built, gloomy, dirty place of res
dence, unenlivened by open-hearted sociabilit
or true comfort. The population does not ex
ceed 20,000, of whom about 5000 are Christians

ANTIQUITIES.—The remains of ancient edi-
fices and monuments in Asiatic Turkey are so
numerous, that they furnish matter for many
voluminous publications. Of late, especially
much has been done in exploring the antiquities
of Asia Minor. The provinces which compose
Asiatic Turkey contained all that was rich and
magnificent in architecture and sculpture; and
neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the
depredations of the Europeans, seem to have
much diminished the number of these valuable
antiquities. They are more or less perfect ac-
cording to the air, soil, or climate, in which
they stand; and all of them bear deplorable
marks of neglect. Many of the finest temples
are converted into Turkish mosques, or Greek
churches, and are more disfigured than those
which remain in ruins; and many noble edi-
fices have been mutilated, to convert into lime
the marble of which they were constructed.
Amidst such a vast variety of curiosities, it will
be sufficient to select some of the most
striking.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna contains some
noble and beautiful antiquities. The same may
be said of Aleppo, and many other places cele-
brated in ancient times. The site of old Troy
cannot be distinguished by the smallest ves-
tige, and is known only by its being opposite
to the isle of Tenedos, and by the name of a
brook which the poets magnified into a won-
derful river. A temple of marble, built in
honour of Augustus Cæsar, at Milasso in Caria,
and a few structures of the same kind in the
neighbourhood, are among the antiquities
which are still entire; and three theatres of
white marble, with a fine circus near Laodicea,
now Latakia, have suffered little injury from
time or barbarism.

Some ruins, which are still to be seen at
Hilleh, 50 miles from Bagdad, are supposed to
be the remains of the famed city of Babylon.
A spacious and lofty pyramid, and one of
smaller dimensions, crowned with a small
square tower, have been particularly described:
but neither the time of their erection, nor the
nation which raised them, can be ascertained.

Baalbec is situated on a rising plain, be-
tween Tripoli and Damascus, at the foot of
Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cœlo-
Syria. Its remains of antiquity display, ac-
cording to the best judges, the boldest plan
that ever was attempted in architecture. The
portico of the Temple of the Sun is inexpres-
sibly superb, though disfigured by two Turkish
towers. The hexagonal court behind is now
known only by the magnificence of its ruins.
The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilas-
ters and statues, and it opens into a quadrangu-
lar court of the same taste and grandeur. The
great temple to which this leads is now so
ruined, that it is known only by an entablu-

ture, supported by nine lofty columns, each consisting of three pieces, joined by iron pins without cement. Some of these pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the sordid Turks frequently destroy the columns for the sake of the iron. A small temple is still standing, with a pedestal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and is ornamented with figures in alto-relievo, and the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors. To the west of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic orders, but disfigured with Turkish mosques and houses. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionally beautiful and stupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of these immense buildings. The inhabitants of Asia ascribe them to Solomon; but some make them as modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different eras; and, though that prince and his successors may have rebuilt some parts of them, yet the boldness of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the stupendous execution of the whole, seem to fix their foundation to a period before the Christian era, though we cannot refer them to the ancient times of the Jews or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek style in building and ornamenting. Baalbec is at present a village, and the few inhabitants, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houses built out of the scattered ruins. A free-stone quarry in the neighbourhood furnished the stones for the body of the temple; and one stone, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 feet broad, and 14 feet 5 inches deep: its weight must be 1135 tons. A quarry of coarse white marble, at a greater distance, furnished the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the Desert, is situated in an oasis of the Syrian desert, 150 miles to the south-east of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity. The Temple of the Sun is a mere ruin, but the access to it is through a vast number of Corinthian columns of white marble. Superb arches, a colonnade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mausoleum, temples, fine porticoes, peristyles, intercolumniations, and entablatures, all of them in the highest style, and finished with the most beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but so dispersed and disjointed, that it is impossible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. These striking ruins are contrasted by the miserable huts of the wild Arabs, who reside in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man that so superb a city, formerly ten miles in circumference, could exist in the midst of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable sands. Nothing, however, is more certain than *that* Palmyra was formerly the capital of a *great* kingdom, that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the Eastern world, and that its merchants traded with the Romans and the western nations, for the merchandise and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its present altered condition can be accounted for only by natural causes, which have converted the most fertile tracts into barren deserts. The Asiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Baalbec, owes its origin to Solomon; and in this they receive some countenance from sacred history. In profane history it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Antony; and its most superb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus. Odenathus, the last king of Palmyra, was highly caressed by that emperor, and even declared Augustus. His widow, Zenobia, reigned in great glory for some time; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her secretary. Unwilling to submit to the Roman tyranny, she declared war against the emperor Aurelian, who took her prisoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and murdered her principal nobles, and, among others, Longinus. He afterwards destroyed her city, and massacred its inhabitants, but expended large sums out of her treasures in repairing the Temple of the Sun, the majestic ruins of which have been mentioned. The Palmyrene inscriptions do not reach above the Christian era, though there can be no doubt that the city itself is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Justinian made some efforts to restore it to its ancient splendour, but without effect; for it dwindled, by degrees, to its present wretched state. It has been observed, very justly, that its architecture, and the proportion of its columns, are by no means equal to those of Baalbec.

Between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where some superstitious and visionary people have sought the situation of Paradise, there are some tracts which undoubtedly deserve that name. The different ruins, some of them inexpressibly magnificent, that are to be found in these immense regions, cannot be appropriated with certainty to their original founders: so great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for a long course of ages. It is, indeed, easy to pronounce whether the style of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracenic; but all other information must come from their inscriptions.

Nothing can be more futile than the boasted antiquities shown by the Greek and Armenian priests in and near Jerusalem, which is well known to have been so often razed to the ground, and rebuilt, that no scene of our Redeemer's life and sufferings can be ascertained; and yet those ecclesiastics subsist by their forgeries, and by pretending to guide travellers to every spot mentioned in the Old and New Testaments. They are, it is true, under severe contributions to the Turks; but the trade still goes on, though much diminished in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, said to be built by Helena, mother to Constantine the Great, is still standing, and of

. architecture; but its different the dispositions made round it, culated to support the forgeries . Other churches built by the e found in Palestine; but the altered in its appearance and t it is useless for a modern tempt to trace in it any vestiges m of David and Solomon. But .e country, abandoned to tyranny s, must in time become a desert. on soon desolated the delicious ; and the celebrated countries of sia Minor, once the glory of the w nearly destitute of learning, le.

) HISTORY OF THE TURKS.—It lifferent periods, the fate of the i and fertile parts of Asia, to be that warlike and hardy race of ve inhabited the vast country ients denominated Scythia, and moderns is called Tartary. The on of this race, extended their der various leaders, and during ries, from the Caspian to the Many of them having been long .e capacity of body-guards at the ', they embraced the doctrine of nd acted for a considerable time es in the armies of contending ir chief residence was in the d of Mount Caucasus, whence they Armenia; and, after being em- cenaries by the sultans of Persia, at kingdom about the year 1037, eir ravages over the neighbouring ound by their religion to make y were never without a pretence the dominions of the Greek em- were sometimes commanded by erals. On the declension of the re, they made themselves masters The visiting of the holy city of s then deemed part of the duty and in this they had been tole- Saracens; but the Turks laid the grims under such heavy contri- exercised such cruelties upon the abitants of the country, as gave nous crusades. d, unfortunately, that the Greek re generally more jealous of the he Christians than of the Turks; after oceans of blood had been ristian kingdom was erected at ader Godfrey of Bouillon, neither ccessors possessed any real power ig it. The Turks, about the year tended their dominions on every ued possession, under Othman, of finest provinces in Asia, and also of Nice, and Prusa in Bithynia, Othman made his capital. He, as mbodied them into a nation; and ook the name of Othmans from that leader, who was succeeded by a race of the most warlike princes recorded in history. About the year 1357 they passed the Hellespont, and gained an establishment in Europe; and Amurath, or Morad, fixed the seat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in 1360: under him the order of Janissaries took its rise. Such were their conquests, that Bajazet, or Bayezid, after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigismund, laid siege to Constantinople, in the hope of subjecting all the Greek empire. His hope was frustrated by a heavy disaster. Timour, who had recently returned from his Eastern conquests, was provoked by his greatness and insolence to declare war against him. A decisive battle was fought between those rival conquerors, in Natolia, when Bayezid was defeated and made prisoner, but not, as is generally supposed, shut up in an iron cage.

The successors of Timour, by declaring war against each other, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and, though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scander Beg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long siege, Mohammed II. took Constantinople in 1453. Thus, after an existence of eleven centuries, from its commencement under Constantine the Great, ended the Greek empire—an event long foreseen, and occasioned by many causes; the chief of which were the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themselves, their courts and families, and the dislike their subjects had to the pope and the western church—one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romish legate, "that he would rather see a turban than the pope's tiara upon the great altar of Constantinople." As the Turks, when they extended their conquests, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to subjection, the descendants of the ancient Greeks still exist, and, though under grievous oppressions, profess Christianity under their own patriarchs of Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem. The Armenians, also, have three patriarchs, who are more opulent than the Greek prelates, because their people are more conversant in trade.

The conquest of Constantinople was followed, in a very short time, by the submission of all Greece; and from this time the Turks have been considered as a European power.

Mohammed died in 1481, and was succeeded by Bayezid II., who carried on war against the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as in Persia and Egypt. This prince, being tortured by the gout, became indolent. He was also harassed by family differences, and, at last, by order of his second son Selim, was poisoned by a Jewish physician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldest brother Ahmed to be strangled, with many other princes of his family. He defeated the Persians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but, being unable to penetrate into Persia, he turned

his arms against Egypt, which, after many conflicts, he annexed to his own dominions, in 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damascus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was succeeded in 1520 by his son Solyman the Magnificent, who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Christian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that island to Malta. His subsequent reign was almost a continual war with the Christian powers; and he was generally successful, both by sea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives in 1526, and, two years afterwards, advanced into Austria, and besieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He died while besieging Zigeth, in Hungary. He is considered as the greatest prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was succeeded, in 1566, by his son Selim II. In his reign the Turkish marine received a dreadful blow from the Christians, in the battle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkish power, had the blow been pursued by the Christians, especially the Spaniards. Selim, nevertheless, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis from the Moors. He was succeeded, in 1575, by his son, Morad or Amurath III., who forced the Persians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. Mohammed III. ascended the throne in 1595. The memory of this prince is infamously distinguished by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be strangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were supposed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the sea. He was often unsuccessful in his wars with the Christians, and died of the plague in 1603. Though his successor Ahmed or Achmet I. was defeated by the Persians, he forced the Austrians to agree to a treaty in 1606, and to consent that he should keep what he possessed in Hungary. Mustafa, who succeeded in 1617, was soon deposed for his imbecility and incapacity; and his nephew Osman, a prince of great spirit, who was only in the thirteenth year of his age, was invested with the supremacy. Being unsuccessful against the Polanders, he was put to death by the Janissaries, whose power he intended to reduce. Morad IV. succeeded in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Persians. His brother, Ibrahim, succeeded him in 1640; a worthless prince, who was strangled by the Janissaries in 1648. His successor, Mohammed IV., was well served by his grand vizir Kiuperli. He took the island of Candia from the Venetians, and also met with success in Poland: but, when he attempted the reduction of the Austrian capital, he was repelled, by John Sobieski, king of Poland, with severe loss and disgrace. In 1687, he was imprisoned by his discontented subjects, and succeeded by his brother, Solyman II.

The Turks were unsuccessful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother, Ahmed II.; and Mustafa II., who ascended the throne in 1695, was defeated by Prince Eugene. He was deposed in 1702, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother Ahmed III. mounted the throne. This was the prince who gave shelter, at Bender, to Charles XII. of Sweden, and put an end to a war with the Russians, by a peace concluded near the Pruth. When the Russian troops were surrounded without hopes of escape, the czarina inclined the grand vizir to peace, by a present of all the money, plate, and jewels that were in the camp; and advantageous terms were obtained by the Turks. Ahmed had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Christian powers. The scene of action was transferred to Hungary, where Prince Eugene gave so many defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a disgraceful peace at Passarowitz, in 1718. During a war with the Persians, the populace demanded the heads of the vizir, the chief admiral, and secretary, which were accordingly stricken off: the sultan also was deposed, and Mahmoud advanced to the throne. He was unsuccessful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at last obliged to recognise that usurper as king of Persia. He was engaged in a war with the Imperialists and Russians: against the former he was victorious; but the success of the latter, which threatened Constantinople itself, constrained him to agree to a hasty treaty with the emperor, and also to a pacification with the Russians. He died in 1754. The reign of Osman III. was short and unimportant. He died in 1757, and was succeeded by his brother Mustafa III., who engaged in a war with the Russians, of which some account has been given in the history of their country. In the course of this war, a Russian fleet sailed to the Morea, and a descent was made on the southern coast. The Mainotes, the descendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who still possessed the country of their ancestors, under subjection to the grand signor, immediately flew to arms in every quarter, and joined the Russians by thousands, from their aversion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Russians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea seemed in motion. The open country was quickly overrun, while the Russian ships, that had been separated, arrived successively, and landed their men in different places, where every small detachment soon swelled into a little army. The Greeks slaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent were seized extended itself to the islands, where also the Turks were massacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head against the Russians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within the fortresses. The malcontents had so much

increased since the first debarkation of the Russians, that they invested Napoli di Romania, Corinth, and the castle of Patras, with several places of less note. But, whilst they were employed in these enterprises, an army of 30,000 men, composed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by the pasha of Bosnia. This general recovered all the northern part of the peninsula as soon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks who were found in arms, or out of their villages, were instantly put to death. The invaders were now driven back to their ships; but, about the same time, another Russian squadron, commanded by Admiral Elphinston, arrived from England. The Turkish fleet also appeared, and an obstinate engagement ensued in the channel of Scio. The Turks had fifteen ships of the line, from sixty to ninety guns, beside smaller vessels; the Russians had only ten ships of the line, and five frigates. Admiral Spiritoff encountered the principal Turkish ship; and, when the two vessels were in a manner locked together, the Russians, by throwing hand-grenades from the tops, set the hostile ship on fire; and, as they could not now be disentangled, both ships were equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumstanced, without a possibility of succour, both at length blew up. The commanders and principal officers were saved; but the crews were almost totally lost. The dreadful fate of these ships, as well as the danger to those that were near them, produced a kind of pause on both sides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night, without any material advantage on either side. When it became dark, the Turks cut their cables, and ran into the bay of Chesme: the Russians surrounded them thus closely pent up, and in the night some fire-ships were introduced, by the intrepid behaviour of Lieutenant Dugdale, an Englishman in the Russian service. The fire took place so effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet was destroyed, except one man-of-war and a few galleys, that were towed off by the Russians; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a castle that protected it, with such success, that, a shot having blown up the powder-magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbish. Thus was there scarcely a vestige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a castle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in existence at one the same morning.

After a most unfortunate war on the side of the Turks, peace was concluded between them and the Russians, on the 21st of July, 1774, a few months after the accession of Abdoulhamed; and, for many years, no fresh rupture occurred, though some sources of discord were left open. The pretensions of Catharine, the aspiring empress, at length rekindled the flames of hostility; and Joseph II. took part in the war, in the hope of sharing valuable spoils. While the storm impended over him, the sultan died. He had filled the throne of Constantinople without disgracing his country, and appears to have been a mild and humane monarch. His prime minister Yusef, during the three last years of his life, though by no means consistently great, must be allowed to have merited applause, and will be better known to posterity as the patron of the Turkish translation of the "Encyclopédie," than as the victorious and skilful opposer of the Austrian arms in Transylvania.

In the progress of the war, Chocxim and Oczakoff surrendered to the arms of Russia, and the Austrians took Belgrade. Bucharest also submitted, and Bender was surrendered. The garrison of Orsova, indeed, made an obstinate resistance. Marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege, but it was renewed, and the place was taken.

The war then languished on the part of the Austrians, and, in August 1790, a treaty was concluded with the Porte, by which the emperor restored all the places he had conquered. On the part of Russia, however, hostilities were continued, and several important victories were obtained by the troops of the czarina.

During the war, the mediating powers were not inactive: Great Britain and Prussia, in particular, declared themselves determined to support the balance of Europe, and to force the empress into reasonable terms of peace. Catharine haughtily replied to the first applications of the English minister, "The British court shall not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the course of the negotiation, however, her demands became more moderate; and, as the northern powers, and particularly Sweden, began to exert themselves for the prevention of hostilities, she confined her views to the possession of Oczakoff, with the district extending from the Bog to the Niester; nearly on which terms a peace was concluded on the 11th of August, 1791. The fortress of Oczakoff was certainly of considerable importance to Russia, which, by this cession, obtained the secure and undisturbed possession of the Crimea.

The treacherous and unjust invasion of Egypt, by the French, without even the pretext that the Porte had given them any offence, provoked the Turks to declare war against France; but of the hostilities which took place between these powers, and which were nearly confined to the attack of Egypt, and some towns in Syria, an account is given in another part of this work.

When, by the aid and exertions of a British force, the French had been compelled to evacuate Egypt, and Bonaparte, returning to France, had assumed the government, the Porte not only became reconciled to France, but was influenced by the intrigues of Napoleon's emissaries; and, on this pretence, the emperor Alexander sent an army to invade the Turkish provinces. The British cabinet thought it expedient to counteract the schemes of France,

and attempted to effect an accommodation between the belligerent powers. With this view Admiral Duckworth was sent, in 1807, with seven sail of the line, to force the Dardanelles, and bombard Constantinople, if certain terms should not be acceded to by the Turkish government. The expedition, however, did not prove successful. The fleet, indeed, passed the Dardanelles, and anchored within about eight miles of the city. But the weather being unfavourable, and the Turks, by the advice of the French ambassador, having protracted the negotiation till they had made the most formidable preparations for defence, it was judged advisable to retire. This retreat was attended with considerable loss. One ship, on repassing the Dardanelles, was stricken by a granite shot of six hundred weight, which nearly cut through the main-mast, and killed a number of men.

In the same year, an English armament, under General Fraser, sailed to Egypt. The troops took Alexandria, but failed in an attempt on Rosetta. The English held the former city for some months; but, when a formidable force had been collected to expel them, the commander sent a flag of truce, announcing that, on the delivery of the British prisoners, the army under his command should evacuate the country. This condition was immediately accepted.

By the failure of these expeditions, the influence of France over the divan was materially strengthened, and Sebastiani, the French agent, was consulted on every emergency, and obtained almost the entire direction of the affairs of the Porte, while Great Britain met with a new enemy. In the mean time the Russians, advancing in considerable strength, overran Moldavia and Walachia, and proceeded toward the Danube. They at the same time had, on the south of that river, allies who co-operated with great activity and effect. These were the Servians, who had declared themselves an independent nation, and, under their leader Czerni George, defeated the Turks in several encounters. A Russian fleet cut off the communication between the Black Sea and Constantinople, and deprived that city of the requisite supplies. These accumulated misfortunes produced in the capital great discontents, which were increased by the dissatisfaction of the soldiery, on account of the introduction of a new system of dress and tactics agreeing with the European mode, of which several of the ministers, and more particularly the sultan Selim, were the supporters. In May, 1807, the Janissaries crowded from all quarters, intent upon suppressing an institution by which their consequence was so much diminished. They were soon joined by the mufti; and a proposition was made that the grand signor should issue a decree, abolishing the new discipline. The sultan at first refused, and attempted to defend the seraglio; but, the torrent proving irresistible, he was at length compelled to abdicate the throne on the 29th of May, and his cousin Mustafa was proclaimed emperor.

The new sultan had not sufficient vigour to repress the arrogance of the Janissaries, in whose attachment to him he had no reason to confide. His weakness and their tyranny furnished an aspiring officer with a pretence for interfering in the administration. Mustafa, styled Bairactar, or the standard-bearer, had risen from the dishonourable meanness of piracy to the dignified station of pasha of Rudschuck. Like most of those who have obtained high offices in Turkey, he was rude and illiterate; but his enterprising spirit and vigour of mind made up for the deficiency of education, and qualified him for daring projects. With 35,000 men, of whom the majority were Albanians, he advanced to reform or to seize the government; and, encamping near the walls of Constantinople, he assembled the most distinguished public characters, and procured their assent to the gradual suppression of the order of Janissaries. While the grand signor slumbered on his throne, the bold general was for several months in full possession of the supreme power. He at length resolved to act more decisively, and dethrone the prince by whom his patron Selim had been supplanted. On his approach to the palace, he found the gates closed and the guard under arms, and ordered an immediate assault. The contest was short; but the interval was fatal to Selim, who was instantly strangled by the command of the reigning prince, that he might not be restored to the throne. When Bairactar had forced the gates, he desired to see the imprisoned sultan. "There he is!" said the attendants, producing the body of the murdered prince. The pasha shed tears at the sight; but his grief was quickly absorbed in indignation and resentment. He rushed into the presence-chamber, drew Mustafa from his throne, and announced the elevation of his younger brother Mahmoud. The leaders of the former insurrection were put to death; order and tranquillity were fully restored by a rigorous police; and even the Janissaries were obliged to acquiesce in the sway of the new emperor, and the administration of his vizir Bairactar. Concluding that they were reconciled to the change, he proposed a grand entertainment, at which they met the provincial troops, and outwardly abjured all animosities. He was not aware of their profound dissimulation. A numerous body, at night, set fire to the vizir's habitation; and, when he had fled to a powder-magazine, he desperately blew himself up. Slaughter and conflagration raged for several days in the city; and the contest ended in the triumph of the Janissaries. During these dreadful commotions, the friends of Mahmoud murdered the deposed sultan Mustafa, without giving offence to the victorious soldiers, who recognised the pretensions of the reigning emperor.

In the meantime, the war with the Russians continued, though peace had been restored

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nation, since the accession of Mahmoud, and had even compelled him to resign to the bow-string his favourite vizir. Resolved to curb, and if necessary exterminate, this insolent pretorian guard, which had become a nuisance to the subject as well as the sovereign, and, also, to bring his army to a more effective state, he began by the moderate measure of ordering that each Janissary orta, (a legion of about 1000 men,) should furnish 150 men, to be incorporated into the newly-disciplined troops, and that the men so incorporated should receive an addition of pay, and that their statutes and privileges should be preserved. The enrolment was quietly effected in the capital; but as soon as an attempt was made to teach military discipline, a revolt ensued. It broke out on the 14th of June, in the course of which day the houses of all the ministers who were friendly to reform were plundered. On the following morning the revolters assembled on the Atmeidan, and summoned all their comrades to join them; a summons which was obeyed by great numbers. The sultan, meanwhile, was not idle; he gathered round him all the newly raised regiments, and the cannoniers and bombardiers, on whom he could rely; hoisted the sacred standard, which is never brought out but in cases of emergency; and called upon all true believers to rally under it. Thousands of Mussulmans immediately responded to his call. The Janissaries were thrice warned to lay down their arms; but, with the hereditary insolence of their body, they refused to do so till the new system was abolished, and they were gratified with the heads of the grand vizir and other high functionaries. This sealed their fate; the sultan resolved to destroy them root and branch; and Hussein Pasha was ordered to march and exterminate them. Discouraged by the hostility of the people, and by several volleys of grape shot which were poured in among them, they fled from the Atmeidan, and took refuge in their barracks. There they are said to have offered to surrender, but their offer was refused. Fire was set to the barracks, and the assault was given by the sultan's forces. In the midst of flames and ruins a furious combat was kept up throughout the day and night. Such of the Janissaries as escaped from the sword and the conflagration were pursued to their hiding-places, and slaughtered without mercy. Then succeeded a series of executions, which lasted nearly three months. In the fight and on the scaffold there perished at least 6000, and nearly thrice that number were banished to Asia. All their distinctive marks and insignia were burnt, and even their very name and dress were abolished. Towards the end of the year, the remnant of them formed a plot to assassinate the sultan and the partisans of reform; but it was discovered, and 1800 of the conspirators suffered death for their crime. It is not improbable that Constantinople was indebted to Janissary revenge for a conflagration which

lasted for thirty-six hours, and consumed one eighth of the capital.

Such measures, though perhaps unavoidable, are shocking to humanity; and it is pleasant to turn from them to those of another kind. In the course of this year indications appeared of a wish to reform some of the numerous abuses of the Ottoman government. Two firmans were issued by the sultan, one of which abolished the confiscation of the property of condemned criminals, while the other prescribed the punishment of false witnesses and their suborners, and the greatest impartiality in the administration of justice. By a third firman, an end was put, in all cases, to the practice of confiscation, and the descent of property was secured to Christian as well as Mussulman heirs.

Turkey was soon after plunged into a war far more perilous than that which she waged against the Greeks. Russia, which, with respect to the treaty of Bucharest, had acted with shameful bad faith towards the Porte, had, for some years, been taking captious and futile objections to the conduct of that power, and had negotiated or threatened, according as the state of affairs rendered the one course or the other most politic. But it was not till 1828 that Turkey was supposed to be so completely weakened, and divested of allies, as to be attacked with safety. The crippling of the Turkish marine, by the disaster of Navarino, had now laid open the coast of the Black Sea, and the refusal of the Porte to accept the offer of mediation had alienated England and France. The extinction of the Janissaries was likewise a favourable circumstance. The emperor of Russia might think, too, that, if he gave time for the troops and officers to acquire the new discipline and tactics, the bravery of the Turks, seconded by skill, might render them formidable antagonists.

The war began in May, 1828. The Russian forces amounted to 110,000 men, and, during the course of the campaign, it was reinforced by nearly 60,000 more. The force in Asia was also considerable. That of the Turks was considerably less. Our narrow limits forbid our giving a lengthened detail of the military events. It must suffice to say, that, while the main body of the Moscovites took possession of Moldavia and Walachia, invested Silistria, crossed the Danube, and proceeded towards Shumla, the grand duke Michael was occupied in besieging Brailow. The fortress held out till the middle of June, and obtained an honourable capitulation, after having cost the captors 2000 men in killed and wounded, besides 20 officers. Some other towns, of less importance, opened their gates to the enemy. Entrenched in the almost inexpugnable position of Shumla, the Turkish army set its opponents at defiance; and, in many partial actions, the new troops manifested a high degree of bravery, and considerably improved skill. The siege of Varna was, meanwhile, being carried on, but with little progress. The fortress was defended with infinite spirit, and held out till the middle of October, when it was surrendered, not without a suspicion of treachery on the part of its governor. Silistria, however, still remained unconquered; and, in several encounters with Turkish corps, the invaders were roughly handled. The season being considerably advanced, and the position of the Russian army becoming somewhat precarious, from the increasing force of the Ottomans, the Russian emperor resolved to withdraw from this quarter, and confine his efforts to pressing the siege of Silistria. In its retreat, it suffered severely from disease, the weather, the badness of the roads, and the want of supplies. After making a vain attempt to continue the siege of Silistria, it resumed its retrograde movement, and suffered still worse than before. Before it reached its winter quarters it was nearly in a state of disorganization, and had lost almost the whole of its baggage and artillery. For the disappointment of their hopes in Europe, the Russians were somewhat consoled by their success in Asia, where they made themselves masters of the fortresses of Anapa, Kars, Akhalkalaki, and Akhaltzik, and completely defeated the Turkish army, led by the pashas of Kars and Erzerum.

To secure her object, Russia, in the campaign of 1829, brought 240,000 men into the field: Turkey could collect only about 180,000 men for her defence. At the beginning of the year, the former obtained a considerable advantage, by the capture of Sizeboli, on the shore of the Black Sea, in the rear of the Balkan, and only 25 leagues from Constantinople. On the Danube, the invaders commenced operations, by investing Giurgewo and Rudschuk, and recommencing the siege of Silistria. The main body of the Turkish army, under the grand vizir, Reschid Pasha, occupied the position of Shumla, in order at once to cover the passes of the Balkan, and to move towards the besieged fortresses in case an opportunity should offer. While Diebitsch, the Russian commander-in-chief, was engaged in pushing the siege of Silistria, General Roth, whom he had left in the vicinity of Shumla, was in danger of being overpowered by the grand vizir. Diebitsch hastened back, and, after a hard-fought contest, totally defeated the vizir at Kulewtcha. Silistria soon after capitulated, and the Russians thus gained a supporting point on the Danube, though not till it had cost them dear, the garrison having defended itself with exemplary valour. Shumla being almost unassailable in front, Diebitsch formed the bold resolution of turning the position. He succeeded in his attempt, defeated the Turks, and ventured to push forward as far as Adrianople, which opened its gates on the 20th of August. In Asia, also, the Russian arms were successful. Two Turkish armies were routed by Paskewitsch, and Erzerum, the capital of Armenia, was delivered into his possession. The near ap

f the invaders to Constantinople, in- e sultan to think seriously of peace.

Russia averse from granting it. hitherto victorious, her army, much by combats and sickness, was in a s situation; an outbreak of Mussul- :ticism and despair might, perhaps, : in ruin; and, moreover, it was not ed that the European powers would ıssia to remain master of the Ottoman A treaty was therefore concluded, on f September, between the belligerents,

Turkey consented to open the Bos- ıd Dardanelles to merchant vessels, the independence of Greece, cede ortresses in Walachia and Asia, and ge sum of money, to indemnify the mperor for the expenses of the war. d from the pressure which had weighed ı for the last two years, the sultan ıgly followed up his plans of reform. e, however, not unopposed. The dis- 'hich they excited was manifested by ons in Albania, and other provinces, ıe customary fires in the capital. It long before the sultan had a much erous enemy to encounter. Mehemet s already forming projects for render- elf independent of the Porte, and he first opportunity to show how little ted or feared his nominal sovereign. d for money to pay the stipulated ion to Russia, the sultan called upon ay his tribute, which was eighteen a arrear. He refused, on the ground ıs more than covered by the charges pedition to the Morea. His next act dience was the marching an army he pasha of St. Jean d'Acre, without the conditions on which he had been . to engage in hostilities.

e upon the whole of Syria was the Mehemet Ali in warring upon the St. Jean d'Acre. It was in vain that ı issued an angry firman, commanding esist immediately, and submit his s to the arbitration of his master. ısted in his enterprise, and his son educed the town to surrender, after a everal months. He even carried his ace so far as to refuse to submit, e sultan would confer on him the of Syria on the same terms as he held gypt. Irritated by this contumacy ence, Mahmoud issued a firman, de- Mehemet and his son Ibrahim as d sent Hussein Pasha with an army , to reduce them to obedience.

et laughed to scorn the threats and ıis sovereign, and his son Ibrahim to meet the Turkish army. On the ril, 1832, Ibrahim utterly defeated, oll, a Turkish division consisting of n. This was only the prelude to eccss. After defeating another Tur- ion, he entered *Damascus on the* 14th of June. Pursuing his victorious career, he gained the battle of Homs, entered Aleppo in triumph, won a second and more important battle at the pass of Bylan, made himself master of Antioch, penetrated into Asia Minor, and took post at Konieh, the ancient Iconium. There, on the 21st of December, was fought the last and decisive conflict. It lasted from eight in the morning till six in the evening, and the carnage was terrible; the killed and wounded on both sides is stated to have been not fewer than 30,000. The rout of the Turks was complete and irreparable, and a large part of Asia Minor was soon overrun by the conqueror. In this emergency, Mahmoud is said to have applied to Great Britain for aid, which was refused. The good policy of such a refusal is more than doubtful. Eager to seize every opportunity of acquiring influence at the Porte, Russia came forward with her assistance. By this means the career of the Egyptian army towards Constantinople was stopped; and the victorious rebel contented himself with adding the government of Syria, and the district of Adana, to that of Egypt. In the beginning of May peace was restored. The motives of Russia, in thus volunteering its assistance, were speedily disclosed. Two months after the close of the war, the Porte signed a treaty, at Unkiar Skellessi, by which it entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with Russia, for the term of eight years, and engaged, in case of necessity, to close the Dardanelles against all foreign vessels: of the existence of the necessity, Russia was, of course, to be the judge. England and France remonstrated against this stipulation, but in vain.

During this period the usual insurrections occurred in the provinces, and the usual fires, expressive of popular discontent, spread their ravages in the capital. To describe them would be a waste of time. In spite of all his difficulties, however, the sultan persisted in his military and civil reforms. The year 1834 was marked by a measure which, if firmly followed up, may give stability to the empire. This was the establishment of a regular national militia, armed and equipped at the charge of the state, and to be regularly disciplined, but not called to serve out of its district, except in case of war. This militia was to be formed from all the young men between the ages of 23 and 32, and each sanjak was to form a battalion 1400 strong. The maritime districts were to furnish sailors in the same proportion. Schools were also instituted for the instruction of officers, non-commissioned officers, and soldiers. Yet, beneficial as this scheme was, it gave rise to an insurrection in Albania, which was not put down without bloodshed. The year in which this revolt took place (1835) saw the re-establishment of the Ottoman supremacy in Tripoli, where it had for some time ceased to be recognised. A closer connexion began also to be established between Great Britain and Turkey.

Reform still continued to be the great object of Mahmoud's existence: he laboured incessantly to introduce into his dominions the customs of Europe. Among many things which were contrary to the prejudices of the Mussulmans may be reckoned his sending ambassadors to foreign courts, and young men to learn the arts and sciences of Europe; his introduction of quarantine establishments in various parts of his empire; his being conveyed in an Austrian steam-vessel, from Nicomedia to Constantinople; and his making a royal progress through his northern provinces. In the course of his journey through the provinces, he examined all the barracks, fortifications, mosques, and hospitals, reviewed the troops, and gave orders for such improvements as seemed to be required. After his return he appointed a commission to inquire into the best means of encouraging industry, agriculture, and commerce. A commercial treaty was likewise concluded with Great Britain.

It was hardly to be supposed that peace could long be preserved between an offended sovereign and a haughty vassal. Mahmoud was deeply sensible of the humiliation of having been obliged to resign so important a province as Syria to Mehemet Ali, and the resistance which the Syrians made to Mehemet, doubtless inspired the sultan with hopes of recovering that country. Mahmoud was, besides, under the necessity of keeping up an expensive army in Asia Minor, to watch the movements of his nominal subject. Mehemet, who was also forced to keep up a large military establishment, offered to reduce it, and to disarm his fleet, and pay a larger tribute, if the sultan would make the pashalics of Syria and Egypt hereditary in the pasha's family. The sultan was willing to make the pashalic of Egypt hereditary, provided Mehemet would relinquish Syria; but to this condition the latter refused to accede. At length the sultan resolved to try once more what could be done by an appeal to the sword. The army in Asia Minor was greatly increased, and Hafiz Pasha, as commander, was ordered to invade Syria. The Turkish fleet, consisting of 25 vessels, also sailed, with 12,000 men on board, to effect a landing on the Syrian coast. The Ottoman and Egyptian armies met in hostile array at Nezib, on the 24th of June, 1839, and a fierce conflict ensued. The Egyptian troops were, however, superior both in numbers and skill to their opponents, and they totally routed them. More than 100 pieces of cannon, all their baggage and ammunition, and nearly 7000 killed or wounded, were left on the field by the vanquished.

The sultan did not live to hear of this disaster. He had long been labouring under a disease, the progress of which he had kept secret, and he died suddenly on the night of the 30th of July. Whatever errors he may have committed, he will always be numbered among the most *eminent* of the Ottoman sovereigns. He was *succeeded* by his son Abdul Medjid.

The commencement of the new reign was signalized by an event, which proved that, with respect to reform, the son intended to tread in the footsteps of the father. On the 3rd of November, in the presence of a numerous and splendid assembly, at the palace of Gulhana, a hatti sherif was promulgated, which may be considered as a sort of Turkish Magna Charta. It guaranteed perfect security of the life, property, and honour of every subject; a regular system of imposing and collecting taxes; an improved mode of military recruiting and service; and many other important privileges. It was followed by an amendment of the penal code, and by various measures of a similar kind.

Tranquillity is not readily restored to a state, after great changes have taken place. Since the accession of Abdul Medjid, his government has been disturbed by the intrigues of men whose interests have been affected by the progress of reform. But it is to be hoped that the sound part of the nation will ultimately obtain the ascendant, and that Turkey will assume the rank which, if wisely governed, she is capable of holding among the powers of Europe.

The last struggles of Mehemet Ali to maintain his dominion will be adverted to under the head of "Egypt."

Abdul Medjid was born on the 19th of April, 1823, and ascended the throne on the 1st of July, 1839. He has one son and three daughters.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

The greater part of the Grecian islands in the Archipelago are considered by geographers as situated in Europe; but those which are very near to the Asiatic coast, and also Cyprus in the Levant or Eastern Sea, must be referred to Asia.

Mitylene, or Metelin, the ancient Lesbos, the principal city of which was Mitilene, now a village, is situated to the north of the Gulf of Smyrna, about 10 miles from the coast of Asia. It is about 50 miles long, and varies in breadth from 7 to 15 miles. Its mountainous appearance is pleasingly diversified with inlets of the sea, and plantations of the vine, olive, and myrtle. Its wine was anciently, and is still, in high estimation, and its oil is the best in the Archipelago. It is famous for having been the native country of Sappho. The ancient Lesbians were accused of dissolute manners; and the modern inhabitants, of whom there are about 40,000, too much resemble them in this respect.

Scio, anciently Chios, which the modern Greeks more correctly denominate Khio, lies between the Gulfs of Smyrna and Scala Nova, and is divided from the coast of Asia Minor by a strait of from 12 to 16 miles in breadth. It is about 30 miles long, and 10 wide. Khio is its chief town. This island, though rocky and mountainous, produces wine, oil, and silk, but scarcely any corn. It was inhabited, in 1821, by more than by 100,000 persons, chiefly Greeks

who carried on manufactures of silk, velvet, gold and silver stuffs, and appeared to enjoy the comforts of life. The most remarkable of its vegetable productions is the mastic tree. Of the odorous resin, which exudes from that tree, 1500 cwt. used annually to be exported from Scio. The women of this and other Greek islands have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty. Dr. Chandler, when he visited Scio above seventy years ago, was delighted with the appearance, manners, and industry of the female inhabitants. He says, "The beautiful Greek girls are the most striking ornaments of Scio. Many of these were sitting at the doors and windows, twisting cotton or silk, or employed in spinning and needle-work, and accosted us with familiarity, bidding us welcome as we passed. The streets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groupes. They wear short petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white silk or cotton hose. Their head-dress, which is peculiar to the island, is a kind of turban—the linen so white and thin, it seemed snow. Their slippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them fastened with a thong. Their garments were silk of various colours; and their whole appearance so fantastic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a separate quarter, and their women are concealed. Among the poets and historians said to have been born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and show a little square house, which they call Homer's school." This island suffered dreadfully in 1822, merely on account of a partial and trifling insurrection. A Turkish armament made a descent near the chief town; and the infidels, having quickly overpowered all resistance, commenced a course of murder and devastation. The town was set on fire; its churches and monasteries, its celebrated college, and its well-built houses, were reduced to a heap of ruins. Many thousands of both sexes and of all ages were massacred; thousands of women and girls were carried off to be sold as slaves; and, while a considerable number escaped to other islands, those who remained were involved in the most severe distress. Khio, once a beautiful town, containing 30,000 people, was reduced to little better than a heap of ruins. Six years after the catastrophe, coveys of partridges were started, by the passing travellers, in the streets of Khio. Of all the prosperous and numerous population of this unfortunate island only 15,000 remain.

Samos lies opposite to Ephesus, on the coast of Asia Minor, about three miles from the continent, from which it is divided by a strait called Little Bogas. It is of an irregular form, 30 miles long, and 10 broad. The inhabitants are nearly all Greeks. The women are notorious for their total want of beauty; in this forming a remarkable exception to the other Greek isles. The muscadine Samian wine is in high request; and the island also produces wool, oil, silk, timber, and an abundance of white marble. It is supposed to have been the native country of Juno; and the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city of Samos, are viewed by antiquaries with admiration. It has about 15,000 inhabitants, mostly Greeks, who reside in eighteen villages.

To the south of Samos lies Patino, anciently Patmos, where St. John is believed to have written the Revelations. A grotto is shown, in which he is said to have composed them. A small church is erected over it. Patino is about 15 miles in circumference, but so barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an island. It has, however, several excellent harbours, and a town, consisting of 400 houses, on a rocky eminence.

Stanco, the ancient Cos, near the coast of Asia Minor, is about 25 miles long and 10 broad. It abounds with cypress and turpentine trees, a variety of medicinal plants, and fruits of all kinds. It has a town of the same name, situated in a bay, with a harbour defended by a castle. Cos is famous for having been the birthplace of the great father of medicine, Hippocrates, and the celebrated painter Apelles.

Rhodes, famous, in ancient times, for its commercial importance, and, in modern times, for the three sieges which its capital sustained, is distant about 12 miles from the coast of Caria, and is about 36 miles long and 15 broad. The population is variously computed at from 18,000 to 40,000. This island is healthful and pleasant, and abounds in wine, and many of the necessaries of life. No day passes throughout the year that the sun is not seen, and the air is perfumed by numerous orange and citron groves, and a profusion of aromatic herbs. The chief town is situated on the side of a hill fronting the sea, and is three miles in circumference, interspersed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers. The harbour is one of the grand signor's principal arsenals for shipping, and the place is esteemed among the most considerable fortresses belonging to the Turks. The colossus of brass, which anciently stood at the mouth of the harbour, and was 70 cubits high, was deservedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each side of the harbour, ships are said to have passed between its legs; and it held in one hand a lighthouse for the direction of mariners. The fact of its having spanned the mouth of the harbour, is, however, very doubtful. The face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated. The inhabitants of this island were formerly masters of the sea, and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem, after losing Palestine, took this island from the Turks in 1308, but lost it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and retired to Malta. The remains of the palace of the grand master have an air of magnificence, and serve to show how luxuriously and splendidly the knights lived.

Cyprus, which has an irregular triangular

form, is situated in the Mediterranean; its northern coast looking towards Asia Minor, and its eastern towards Syria, at a distance of about 55 miles from the former, and between 60 and 70 from the latter. Its length is 140 miles, and its greatest breadth 50. It was formerly famous for the worship of Venus, the Cyprian goddess; and, during the time of the crusades, it was a rich flourishing kingdom, inhabited by Christians. It was seized by Richard Cœur-de-Lion, in revenge for the treachery of its sovereign; but he soon transferred it to Guy de Lusignan. On the death of James, its last king, without issue, in 1477, the Venetians, who were then in the zenith of their power, took possession of the island: but, in 1572, they were compelled by the Turks to relinquish it. The natural produce of the island is so rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping consuls residing upon it. It produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made: cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated; and the printed articles of that description are in great request, as are also the carpets which are here manufactured. Its wheat, also, is of a superior kind. The mines of copper, from which the island probably derived its name, are no longer found: but it may be presumed that the two chains of mountains which traverse the country contain a much greater variety of mineral treasures than the modern inhabitants have discovered, who appear to have found little beside jasper, agate, and rock crystal, called the Paphian diamond. It is remarkable that this island is destitute of rivers, except such as do not flow in the summer, when they stagnate and form unhealthy swamps; and its harbours are said to be more sultry than any others in the Levant.

Famagosta, the ancient metropolis of this fine island, has a good harbour, but is much decayed. The present capital, Nikosia, the real name of which is Leikosia, stands in the interior of the country, and is the see of an archbishop. It has about 12,000 inhabitants. Its prelate, Cyprian, was a worthy and respectable man, who, because the Greeks of Europe were in a state of revolt, was treacherously invited to the palace of the Turkish governor, on pretence of urgent business, and murdered. Many other clergymen were put to death at the same time, and the gentry and merchants were treated with similar cruelty. Confiscation and rapine ensued, and the island was ravaged with brutal fury. Larnaka, on the south coast, is the most prosperous town in the island, and carries on a very considerable commerce. War and oppression have reduced the population of Cyprus to 60,000 or 70,000 souls.

ARABIA.

It is remarkable that this country has always preserved its ancient name. The word Arab, it is generally said, signifies a robber, or free-booter. The word Saracen, by which one tribe is called, is said to signify both a thief and an inhabitant of the desert; but we may readily conclude that the word did not originally signify a thief, being only used in this sense after the people of that territory became thieves.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1480	between	32½ and 60. E. long.
Breadth, from 800 to 1200	between	12½ and 34½ N. lat.

Containing about 1,400,000 square miles.

Boundaries.—Arabia is bounded by Turkey, on the north; by the Persian Gulf and the Arabian Sea, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, to the southward; and by the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the west. It forms three grand divisions, *Petræa*, *Deserta*, and *Felix*—the Rocky, the Desert, and the Happy Arabia; out of which Niebuhr has made eight, the countries of Yemen, Hadramaut and Oman, the states bordering on the Persian Gulf, Lahsa, Nejed, Hejaz, and Mount Sinai.

Mountains.—The mountains of Sinai and *Horeb*, in Arabia Petræa, and those called Gibel al Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the most remarkable.

Rivers, Seas, Gulfs, and Capes.—There are few springs or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which washes the north-east limits of it. It is almost surrounded with seas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Persia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are those of Ras-al-Gat and Mussandom.

Climate, Soil, and Produce.—As a considerable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, the air is excessively dry and hot, and the country is subject to hot poisonous winds, like those of the opposite shores of Persia, which often prove fatal, especially to strangers. The soil, in some parts, is nothing more than immense sands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and sometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or lost. In these deserts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at sea, by a compass, or by the stars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, says Dr. Shaw, are no pastures clothed with flocks, nor valleys standing thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a lonesome, desolate wilderness, no other way

l than by plains covered with sand, and
s made up of naked rocks and preci-
either is this country ever, unless in
arts, refreshed with rain; and the
ss of the cold in the night is almost
that of the heat in the day-time. It
n the skirts of Arabia, that these
rains descend, and the position of the
s seems to determine the period of
at which they fall. They sometimes
orrents, and produce sudden and ter-
ndations. Meccahas several times
from these inundations, particularly

The southern part of Arabia, de-
called the Happy, is blessed with an
soil, and, in general, is very fertile.
e cultivated lands, which are chiefly
towns near the sea-coast, produce
Gilead, manna, myrrh, cassia, aloes,
ense, spikenard, and other valuable
nnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges,
pomegranates, figs, and other kinds of
ney and wax in plenty, with a small
of corn and wine. This country is
or its coffee and its dates, which last
l scarcely anywhere in such perfection
nd in Persia: but there are few trees
ber in Arabia, and little wood of any
ts coffee is far superior to that of any
ntry.

LS.—The most useful animals in Ara-
camels and dromedaries; they are
ly fitted by Providence for traversing
nd parched deserts of this country;
are so formed that they can throw up
r from the stomach into the throat,
a means they can travel six or eight
hout water. A camel usually carries
ds' weight upon its back, which is not
ff during the whole journey; for it
r kneels down to rest, and in due time
h its load. The dromedary is a small
vith two bunches on its back, and
bly swift. It is an observation among
s, that, wherever there are trees, the
not far off; and, when they draw near
heir camels will smell at a distance,
up their great trot till they reach it.
bian horses are well known in Europe,
e contributed to improve the breed of
England. They are only fit for the
nd are admired for their form as much
heir swiftness and spirit. The finest
in the territory of Yemen.

AL CURIOSITIES.—The deserts, moun-
d places mentioned in Scripture, may
lered as the principal of these. What
the Desert of Sinai is a plain near
s long, and above three in breadth; it
s to the north-east, but to the south-
closed by some of the lower emi-
f Mount Sinai; and other parts of that
a make such encroachments upon the
to divide it into two parts, each very
.

Mount Sinai may be seen Mount Horeb, where Moses kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he saw the burning bush. On these mountains are many chapels and cells, possessed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jerusalem, pretend to show the very spot where every miracle or transaction recorded in Scripture occurred.

But by far the most singular natural curiosity of Arabia is the Gebel Narkous, or Mountain of the Bell, which is situated near the Red Sea, in the neighbourhood of Sinai. Under certain circumstances, this mountain gives out musical sounds, which are generally compared to the heavy booming of a church bell, and which the credulous Arabs believe to be produced by the bells of a convent which was swallowed up by some convulsion of nature. The last traveller who witnessed this phenomenon is Lieutenant Newbold, and he thus describes it. "The hill is bell-shaped, and from 350 to 400 feet high. On its western side is a slope of about 80 feet, covered by a very fine quartzose sand, the depth of which varies from five or six inches to as many feet. It is from this spot that the mysterious sounds proceed. All was silent when the travellers reached the spot; but, on their Arab guide beginning to ascend through the sand, a faint sound was heard like that of a lower string of a violoncello when it is faintly touched. The travellers then resolved to ascend themselves. Sitting down on the summit, they perceived the particles of sand all in motion, not only below but around them; and, in about two minutes, they heard a rustling sound, and then the musical tone above alluded to, which gradually increased to that of a deep mellow church bell, so loud that it resembled the rumbling of distant thunder. This occurred when the whole surface was in motion; and the effect upon themselves, the travellers compared to what they supposed might be felt by persons seated upon some enormous stringed instrument, while a bow was slowly drawn over the chords. They then descended; the sound died away as the sand became still; and in a quarter of an hour silence was restored. The notes were shriller at the top than at the bottom; and it seems that a breeze blowing over the sand is essential to the production of the phenomenon. No sounds are produced in wet weather."

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.—The Arabians are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarthy complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are, in general, a martial, brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire-arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from one place to another with their flocks and herds.

The Arabians, in general, are habitual thieves. These robbers, headed by a captain,

traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and, on the sea-coast, the people are mere pirates, capturing every vessel which they can master, of whatever nation. The habit of a roving Arab is a kind of blue shirt, tied about him with a white sash or girdle; and some have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings, and have a cap or turban. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the Eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mohammedans, the Arabs eat all sorts of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and, like them, refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water, and sugar, form their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—Among the cities of Arabia Felix, Mecca and Medina deserve particular notice. Mecca, called by the natives the Mother of Towns, and the Noble, is situated in a very narrow winding valley; its principal streets are rendered in some degree handsome, by the pretty fronts of the houses, which are built of a dark-gray stone, and consist in general of three stories. The rooms are well-proportioned, long, broad, and lofty, and have, beside large windows and balconies, a row of small windows, the frames of all which windows are richly carved or gaily painted. The roofs form terraces, surrounded with a wall and a railing of red and white bricks. The lower class of the inhabitants are dull melancholy beings, deficient in talent, knowledge, and industry; and their resources from nature are so scanty, that, if the pilgrimages of the Moslems should cease, the place would, in all probability, soon be depopulated.

The famous temple or mosque stands near the middle of the city; and its great court forms a parallelogram of about 536 feet by 356 feet, surrounded by a double piazza, the fronts of the two longer sides presenting 36 arches, and the two shorter sides 24 arches, slightly pointed, supported by columns of grayish marble. Each side is composed of two naves, formed by a triple row of arches; and, in the whole, there may be reckoned more than 500 columns and pilasters. Some of the capitals of the pillars are exquisitely carved, and few of them are mean or unhandsome. The greatest curiosity of the place, and the only part which lays claim to high antiquity, is the kaaba, which is dignified with the appellation of the Navel of the World. This is a quadrilateral tower, 34 feet high, and its sides vary from 29 feet to 38 feet in length. The keepers of this holy place boast of the possession of a stone, called the heavenly stone, which, they say, was brought from heaven by the angel Gabriel, and was originally a transparent hyacinth, but has been blackened and changed by the contaminating touch of mortals. It is described by Ali Bey as a fragment of volcanic basalt, sprinkled about its circumference with small pointed and coloured crystals, and varied with red feldspath, on a dark ground like coal. The interior of the kaaba consists simply of a room or hall, with two wooden pillars, which, as well as the walls, are covered with rose-coloured silk, which is variegated by flowers embroidered in silver. This covering is changed for a new one by every sultan, on his accession: but the black cloth which covers the whole building, and is called the tob, or shirt, is annually renewed. Another appendage of the temple is the well of Zemzem, which supplies the pilgrims with an abundance of slightly tepid water: it is kept full by a subterraneous rivulet. The keeper of this well is next in rank to the sherif, or prince of Mecca: he is called the poisoner, though the water is said to be wholesome; but he is so styled, because he is sometimes ordered or bribed to send troublesome or obnoxious men out of the world, by giving them a draught of this water, contaminated by some deleterious infusion.

At Medina, a town with about 20,000 inhabitants, on the border of the great Arabian desert, is a stately mosque, called the Most Holy by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue. The story of the suspension of this coffin between heaven and earth, by the power of a loadstone, is a mere fiction. Over its foot is a rich golden crescent, curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones. To this spot the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

The other principal cities of Arabia are Sanaa, Mocha, Jedda, Muscat, and Lahsa, or El Hassa. Sanaa is the capital of Yemen, or Arabia Felix, and stands at the foot of Mount Nikkum. It has a castle, and contains a number of mosques, and several palaces. It is about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by a brick wall of great thickness, with seven gates. The environs produce abundance of fine grapes, of above twenty different species; and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in a variety of commodities. The bazaars and caravanserais are numerous.

Mocha is well built, and is of comparatively modern origin: the houses are lofty, and are, with the walls and forts, covered with chunam or stucco, which imparts to them a dazzling whiteness. The interior of the city is, however, filthy in the extreme. The harbour is semicircular; the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are several handsome mosques in the city. Its exports chiefly consist of coffee, gum arabic, myrrh, and frankincense.

Jedda, or Jidda, is the place of the greatest trade in the Red Sea; for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is inter-

ıe former sending her gums, drugs, loth, iron, furs, and other articles, mitted from Europe by the way of ıe town is well built, and occupied 00 persons.

ı a considerable town, with an ex- ·bour, and has been, from early art for Arabia, Persia, and the In- ıs taken by the Portuguese, in 1508, ·d by them during a century and a is now governed by an independent · is an amiable man, brave and in- ıuch loved by his subjects, and the l most powerful sovereign on the lf. Besides his hereditary domi- ɔssesses the islands of Kishma and d some establishments on the st of Africa, and rents, from Persia, Gombroon, and about ninety miles English ships, from Hindoostan, rade with Muscat.

ı large and well-built town, situated stream, which falls into a bay oppo- isle of Bahrein, celebrated for the y, and its springs of fresh water, out of the sea. The pearl fishery ɔut 2000 boats, and the annual value s is nearly £200,000. Aden, in the emen, has recently become a British and no doubt will, ere long, recover rity which it once possessed. At is in a state of utter desolation. remains of the grandeur which it d," says Miss Roberts, who visited consist of about ninety dilapidated s, the greater number of dwellings to shelter its scanty population be- more than huts rudely constructed But Aden possesses an excellent l, from its position, may be rendered egnable. The approach to Aden by ly picturesque. "The pass, narrow d on either side by winding rocks," oberts, "brought us at length down ep declivity to a sort of basin, sur- three sides by lofty hills, and on ıy the sea. Cape Aden is a rocky , 1776 feet above the level of the sea, n lies on the east side of it."

ıay observe, that the ruins of Petra, capital of Arabia Petræa, were ago discovered by Burckhardt, in ' rocky excavations, adorned with ontaining the remains of temples, a ba, dwellings, grottos, and a theatre. aible," says Mr. Bankes, "to give ı idea of the singular effect of rocks the most extraordinary hues, whose sent nature in her most romantic their bases are worked out in all ity of art, with colonnades, and and ranges of corridors, adhering ndicular surface." The approach ige city is through a narrow wind- ralled in by rocks from 400 to 700 ı stream flows at the bottom of the ravine, or rather chasm, into which several streamlets descend from the rocks. At the entrance of the pass, an arch, at a great height, connects the two sides; but whether it is the remains of an aqueduct or a road has not been ascertained.

In the Arabian towns few manufactures are established; for a race more unskilful in the mechanic arts than the inhabitants are, cannot easily be found. Few of them can even make their own slippers or sandals, or perform those operations which are most common in other countries. Yet, with the aid of foreigners, the linen manufacture is carried on in some places; articles in glass are fabricated; good carpets and tent-covers are made of the hair of camels; and, by the Jewish artisans who are incorporated with the natives, various kinds of work in gold and silver are produced with some degree of skill.

Government—Laws.—Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are styled sheiks and imams, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the khalifs of the Saracens. These princes appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by pashas residing among them; but receive large gratuities from the grand-signor, for protecting the pilgrims who pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no regular standing militia; but their sheiks command both the persons and purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs may seem to require.

Religion.—Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mohammed, their countryman. Many of the wandering Arabs are still little different from Pagans; but in general they profess the doctrines of their pseudo-prophet.

Learning and Language. — Though the Arabians in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so generally ignorant; yet it is said that some of them retain that poetic talent by which their ancestors were distinguished. The vulgar language used is the Arabesque, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewise spoken, with some variation of dialect, over a great part of the East, from Egypt to Hindoostan. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which by the people of the East is accounted the richest, most energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their schools, as Greek and Latin are amongst Europeans, and used by the Moslems in their worship: for, as the Koran was written in this language, they will not suffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of paradise, and think no man can be a master of it with-

out a miracle, as it consists of several millions of words. The books which treat of it say they have no fewer than a thousand terms to express the word camel, and five hundred for that of lion; but, even if we include among these the metaphorical expressions and images of their poets, the assertion is very remote from the truth. The Lord's Prayer in Arabic is as follows:

"Abuna elladhi fi-ssamwat; jetkaddas esmâc; tati malacutac: taouri masebiatic, cama fi-ssama; kedalec ala lardh aating chobzena kefatna iaum beiaum; wagsor lena donubena wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna fihajarih; laken mejjina me nescherir."

History.—The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for, while the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs, on the contrary, is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are the descendants of Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against them." They have remained from the remotest ages down to the present time, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of this prediction. Toward the north, and on the coast of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and fail not to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make no less wonderful a part of their history, than the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion, began with one man, whose character forms a singular phenomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mohammed, who was born at Mecca in the year 569, in the reign of Justinian II. emperor of Constantinople. Though he was descended of mean parentage, illiterate, and poor, he was endued with a subtile genius, like most of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed, in the early part of his life, by his uncle Abou-Taleb, as a factor, and had occasion, in that capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant, on whose death he married his widow, Khadija, and by this union became possessed both of great wealth and a numerous family. During his peregrinations, he had observed the great variety of sects in religion, whose mutual hatred was strong and inveterate, though, at the same time, there were many particulars in which the greater part of them agreed. He carefully took advantage of these; by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure—passions universal among men—he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which had hitherto been established. In this design he is said to have been assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Khadija, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mohammed was taken to her bed. This monk was qualified, by his learning, to supply the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, would have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mohammed turned to his advantage a calamity with which he was afflicted. He was subject to fits of epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous of concealing. He therefore declared, that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown, and that he was then instructed in the divine will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired the reputation of superior sanctity. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already hinted, he did not lay the foundation of his system on so narrow a scale, as to comprehend only the natives of his own country. Though rude and enthusiastic, his mind was enlarged by the survey of distant regions, whose manners and religion he had made his peculiar study. He purposed that his system should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the Eastern countries were at this time addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was equal to God the Father, as is asserted by the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia abounded with Jews, who had fled into those parts of the world from the persecution of princes who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were Pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and, like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. To these three kinds of men the new system was exactly suited. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his

nankind, among whom Moses and
re the most eminent; but the endea-
hese had proved ineffectual, and God
efore now sent his last and greatest
with a more ample commission. He
ed him not only to publish his laws,
ubdue those who were unwilling to
r obey them; and, for this end, to
a kingdom upon earth, which should
e the divine law throughout the world.
l the artful impostor, has designed
n and destruction to those who shall
submit to him; but to his faithful
he has given the spoils and posses-
all the earth, as a reward in this life,
provided for them hereafter a paradise
usual enjoyments, especially those of
l the pleasures of such as die in pro-
the faith will be peculiarly intense,
y transcend those of the rest. These,
with the prohibition of drinking strong
a restraint not very severe in warm
—and the doctrine of predestination,
principal articles of Mohammed's
They were no sooner published, than a
mber of his countrymen embraced
th implicit faith. They compose a
led the Koran, by way of eminence,
y the Bible, which means the Book.
e common people adopted his system,
those who were less blind and cre-
esolved to expose and punish the im-
but he made his escape to Medina,
was received with open arms. From
t, which happened in the 622nd year of
he 54th year of his age, and the 10th of
istry, his followers compute their time;
era is called, in Arabic, *Hegira*, or
e. the Flight.
assistance of the inhabitants of Me-
l of others whom his insinuation and
daily attached to him, Mohammed
over all his countrymen to a belief, or
to an acquiescence, in his doctrines.
d propagation of his system in Arabia
ew argument in its behalf among the
nts of Egypt and the East, who were
ly disposed to it. Arians, Jews, and
, all forsook their ancient faith, and
Moslems, or believers. In a word, the
n spread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt,
ia; and Mohammed, from a deceitful
e, or a wild enthusiast, became a
monarch. He was proclaimed king
a, in 627; and, after subduing part of
nd Syria, died in 632.
propagation of religion by the sword
a part of the Mohammedan system,
y warrior deemed himself a saint, the
n which it inspired had a rapid effect.
ker, the father of Mohammed's wife,
chosen khalif, that is, successor to
het, in preference to Ali, the cousin
in-law of the deceased adventurer, was
pon the reduction of Syria, when he
he 3rd year of his reign. Prosecuting
vigorously the schemes of conversion and of conquest, Omar subdued Syria and Palestine, invaded Persia with success, and carried his victorious arms into Egypt; but he was murdered in his career of barbarous triumph by a Persian slave. Othman was equally successful in his martial enterprises; and his fate was similar to that of Omar. Ali was then called to the throne; but though he had the unanimous suffrages of the Moslem chiefs, this seeming assent did not preclude the animosities of subsequent competition. Even the widow of Mohammed excited an insurrection against him, though he was one of the most intimate friends and zealous supporters of her husband. After a turbulent reign, he was pierced by an envenomed sword, and died at Cufa, in the year 660. His son Hassan resigned his pretensions to Moawiyah, one of Omar's most distinguished officers, who maintained himself on the throne for nineteen years—a duration of sovereignty which may be thought very extraordinary, in a government apparently so unsettled.

The new khalif ruled with vigour and ability. He quelled a revolt with ease, secured general obedience, and extended his eastern frontier into Great Tartary. He was succeeded by his son Yezid; but the people of Cufa supported the claim of Ali's son Hosein, whose death in the battle of Kerbela was considered by the Persians as a martyrdom, because he suffered for his zeal in the defence of Ali, who, by rejecting those traditions with which some doctors of the law had corrupted the simplicity of the Koran, had reformed the Moslem faith. Yezid exposed his character and memory to severe obloquy, not only for his hatred to the family of Ali, but for the massacre committed by one of his generals in the sacred city of Medina, when the inhabitants had rebelled against him. His feeble but upright son quickly abdicated the sovereignty, which was conferred upon two candidates by different factions. They reigned with divided power; but, after the death of Merwan, his son Abdalmalek suppressed all competition.

Al-Walid so far extended the Saracen power, that his authority was acknowledged from the city of Samarkand to the coast of Portugal. His brother Soliman, in 716 sent an army to besiege Constantinople; but the expedition proved abortive, and was attended with dreadful loss. In preference to his own family, he named for his successor Omar, the son of Abdalaziz, who, though he governed with mildness and moderation, was poisoned by a factious leader. Yezid, the son of Abdalmalek, then procured the diadem, which he did not long enjoy; for he died of grief for the loss of a favourite mistress, whose death he had unintentionally hastened in a frolic. The reign of his brother Hesham was distinguished by the total defeat of a very numerous army, which had advanced into the heart of France, and which, if its invasion had been as successful as it was expected

by the Moslems to prove, would have made a momentous change in that part of Europe, and have unhinged the frame of Gothic policy. The fate of Al-Walid II., the next khalif, was remarkable. He was an avowed infidel, at a time when the generality of his people were animated with devout zeal; and, as his debauchery and profligacy kept pace with his impiety, he was deposed and put to death, in 743, by his Syrian subjects.

The dynasty of khalifs of the house of Ommiyah, which had commenced with Moawiyah, terminated in 750, with Merwan II., who lost his life in an insurrection excited against him by Abou'l-Abbas, a descendant of Mohammed's uncle. The chief of the revolters then obtained the sovereignty, which he transmitted to his posterity for many generations. His brother Abou-Jaafar derived from his military success the appellation of Al-Mansour, or the Victorious. This prince put to death Abou-Moslem, a celebrated general, not because, in accomplishing and maintaining the late revolution, he had wantonly murdered myriads of people, but from the impulse of jealous policy. His successor Al-Mahadi reigned with reputation; but his fame was eclipsed by that of his son Haroun Al-Rashid, or the Just, whose reign was long and glorious. "His court," says Gibbon, "was adorned with luxury and science: he was the most powerful and vigorous monarch of his race, illustrious in the west as the ally of Charlemagne;" and his name is familiar to youthful readers, as the hero of the Arabian Tales. He subjected the Greek empire to the disgrace of tributary submission; and to the fame of his power he added the reputation of humanity and justice. He died in 809; and, after a sanguinary contest between his sons, Al-Mamoun established himself in the khalifate. That regard for learning and the arts, by which Haroun distinguished himself, shone still more conspicuously in the character of the new commander of the faithful, whose studious attention to the progress of science contributed to render Bagdad, the new metropolis of the Saracen empire, the seat of comparative elegance and refinement, when the greater part even of the civilized world seemed to be immersed in ignorance and barbarism. Damascus had already enjoyed that distinction; but Bagdad soared to higher fame.

After some intervening reigns which do not demand particular notice, we find the throne occupied by Al-Mostain, who was harassed by commotions and insurrections. Al-Motasem, one of his predecessors, observing and lamenting the decline of that elevated courage which had led the Arabs to glory and conquest, had taken into his service a large body of Turks, without considering the danger that might attend the encouragement of such barbarians. Their daring spirit and insolence soon appeared. Their officers interfered in the administration, and presumed to dictate to the *khalif.* They even rebelled against Al-Mostain, in 865, and had sufficient power to place his brother on the throne; whom, however, they did not suffer long to reign. The outrages which they perpetrated excited general indignation; and the empire was convulsed with the most alarming commotions. Sometimes, a resolute prince found means to check the progress of disorder, and to maintain the dignity of the throne: but the vigour of the executive power was at other times relaxed, and the government became a mass of confusion. At length, about the middle of the 10th century, the empire was nearly ruined by the ambition of various chiefs, who had erected so many principalities, that the khalif became merely the feeble ruler of Bagdad and the circumjacent country. Yet this contemptible government continued to exist until the year 1258, when it terminated with the khalif Motasem, who was murdered by the ferocious leader of a Mongol army.

Even the khalifs, in the plenitude of their power, were not complete masters of Arabia. Many of the roving tribes were independent, and disdained the idea of submitting to a servile yoke: but at length the Turks extended their oppressive sway over a great part of the country, and were not dispossessed of their usurped authority before the year 1630. The princes who were thus left to themselves, kept the country in a state of tranquillity, which was not materially disturbed before the year 1750, when Abdul Wahab began to propagate doctrines of reform. Wahab was a man of a grave disposition, and much respected for his talents and learning. Convinced that the Mahometan faith had become corrupted, he resolved to make an effort for restoring it to its original purity. Mahomet he considered as a mere mortal, though intrusted with a Divine commission; and he held it to be criminal to swear by him, to call him lord, or idolatrously to revere him. Acknowledging the Koran to be an inspired work, he rejected all the fables and ridiculous glosses which had been added to it. The invocation of saints, and the raising of chapels and monuments to their memory, he regarded as abominable. That his life was virtuous may be inferred from the conduct of his disciples. "In morals," says Mr. Crichton, "they were pure and rigid; they reprobated the use of spirituous liquors, and other exhilarating substitutes; they condemned all sensual indulgences, the neglect of justice and almsgiving, the common practice of fraud and treachery, usury, games of chance, and the other vices with which even the sacred cities were polluted. In the true spirit of fanaticism, they were as zealous about the inferior as the weightier matters of the law. Next to the war which they declared against saints and sepulchres, their indignation was principally turned against dress and luxury: they strictly forbade the wearing of silk, and the smoking of tobacco; and cut from their heads the only tuft of hair which their early discipline had left them. Among other unwarrantable acts which they abolished was

ying over the rosary, and lamenting hinking it impious to mourn for the brother in heaven. They did not, o far strip themselves of all super- o abolish the ceremonies of ablution leccan pilgrimage, or even those of e black stone and throwing pebbles il." Abdal Wahab may, in fact, be as the Luther of the Mahometan

ral years Abdal Wahab continued to his opinions without interruption; 6, the governor of El Hassa com- to quit his native village, and an tempt was also made to assassinate expulsion became the source of his ver. He took refuge at Deraiah, was protected by Mohammed Ibn o ultimately married his daughter, s doctrines, and, in conjunction with delazeez, contributed to spread them ge territory, by the combined in- argument and arms. Deraiah was eged by Erar, a hostile sheik, but often repulsed. In 1765 Ibn Saoud his son Abdelazeez became the sole r of the Wahabees. Abdel Waheb mained stationary at Deraiah, acting lesiastical head of his sect: he died, the great age of 95.

eez was so indefatigable in his exer- his plans were carried into effect skill and valour, that, in the course ears, the Wahabee creed was spread y the whole of Arabia; many sheiks n by compulsion, and many from . Half a century elapsed before the government thought of taking any nst the reformers. It was at length o action, in 1797, by the representa- erif Ghaleb, of Mecca, and the pasha l. The pasha was in consequence attack Deraiah, the Wahabee capital. minary, he laid siege to the citadel of ich held out so long that Saoud, the delazeez, had time to advance with e as compelled the pasha to retire. r six years was then concluded be- parties. It was, however, broken by ees in 1801. In that year, Saoud, at f 20,000 men, took Kerbala by storm, 5000 of the inhabitants, destroyed ficent and venerated tomb of Hossein, d off an immense booty. Taif, in ing year, shared the fate of Kerbala, nquest of the Hejaz was completed; 03, Mecca was reduced by Saoud, te of three months. The inhabitants ly treated by the conquerors; but ity splendid tombs were destroyed, emperance rules of the Wahabees tly enforced upon the Meccans. In an of 1803, Abdelazeez was assas- nd was succeeded in authority by son.

rse of conquest was vigorously pur- sued by Saoud. Medina fell into his hands in the spring of 1801, and with it an enormous mass of treasure. From this period till 1811, he continued to enjoy sovereign authority, had a large yearly revenue, and carried his incursions into the yet unsubjugated portions of Arabia, and even into the Hauran and the pashalic of Damascus.

But an adversary more formidable than any which Saoud had hitherto encountered was about to take the field against him. Lured by the offer of the pashalic of Damascus for one of his sons, Mehemet Ali of Egypt undertook to bring the rebellious and schismatic Wahabees under the sway of the sultan. Three years were employed in constructing a flotilla of twenty-eight vessels for the conveyance of the troops and stores. At length, in 1811, all was ready, and the expedition departed, under the command of Toussoun Bey, Mehemet's second son, who had already distinguished himself in arms. The commencement of his enterprise was not auspicious. After having captured Yambo, and spent some months in fruitless negotiations, he marched towards Medina in January, 1812. But, on his way thither, he was met by the Wahabees, in the defile of Jedeida, and entirely defeated. It was not till October that he was enabled to recommence his operations. Bribery opened for him the pass of Jedeida, and he compelled Medina to capitulate. He followed up this success by the reduction of Taif and Mecca. The Wahabees, however, still held possession of a very extensive territory, and uniformly defeated the Egyptians when it came to a fair fight in the open country.

In this state of affairs Mehemet Ali deemed it necessary to undertake in person the conduct of the war. He landed with 2000 infantry, as many cavalry, and 8000 camels, and, in November 1813, dispatched Toussoun to reduce Tarabe, which was the rallying-point of the southern Wahabees. The place was defended by a body of Arabs, at the head of whom was the widow of a chief; and with such courage did she inspire them, that they nearly annihilated the besieging army.

This disaster put a stop to military operations during eighteen months. When they were resumed, the troops of Mehemet Ali made themselves masters of Gonfoda, and indulged in the most barbarous cruelties upon the garrison. In the course of two months, however, they were driven out with great slaughter. Foiled in obtaining his purpose by the sword, Mehemet resorted to corruption. With the latter weapon he had better success; for he contrived to purchase neutrality from some of the tribes, and co-operation from others; and he also endeavoured to conciliate the inhabitants of the Hejaz by diminishing taxes, and affecting an extraordinary liberality, and zeal for religion. But the circumstance which turned the scale decisively in his favour was the death of Saoud, who died in April 1814, and was succeeded by his son Abdallah, who, equally brave as

his father, was greatly his inferior in political ability.

Though his army was swelled to 20,000 men by reinforcements, the want of camels prevented Mehemet Ali from taking the field till the arrival of the pilgrim caravans enabled him to obtain 7000 of those useful animals. In the meanwhile he sustained considerable losses from the attacks of the Wahabees; in one encounter 900 of his troops were slaughtered. At length he put his army in motion, in January, 1815, for the purpose of besieging Taraba. On his way thither, he fell in with the Wahabee army, which occupied an advantageous position in the mountains. For a whole day he was foiled in his attempts to dislodge them; but, at last, by a feigned retreat he drew them into the plain. Yet, even on that disadvantageous ground, they fought for five hours with desperate valour. Several thousands of them were slain, and everything which they had brought with them fell into the hands of the victors. Some of the chiefs cut their way through the Egyptian army and escaped. Mehemet disgraced himself by impaling 300 prisoners, to whom he had promised quarter. He then proceeded to Taraba, which he found deserted by nearly all its inhabitants.

Collecting their scattered followers, the routed Arabian chiefs took post at Beishe, a fertile country, situate to the east of the mountains of Yemen, and soon collected such a force as encouraged them to stand the risk of another battle. To strengthen their position, they threw up a line of loop-holed fortifications, from which they fired with so much effect as to keep their adversaries at bay for two days. They were at last expelled from their entrenchments by the falling of a shell among some combustibles, the flame from which communicated to the wood-work and thatching of the interior, and compelled them to fly for their lives.

Having put down opposition in this quarter, Mehemet Ali was called to meet it in another. The sheik Tami had drawn together a large army, beyond the rugged mountains of Azer, at the distance of twelve or fourteen days' journey from Beishe. The Egyptian army suffered terribly on its march, from the double pressure of famine and toil: 100 horses sometimes died in a day, and only 300 camels, out of 10,000, were alive at the close of the expedition. Mehemet found Tami posted at the mountain fortress of Tor, with several thousand men. The conflict lasted two days, and ended in the defeat and flight of the Wahabee chief. The unfortunate Tami was soon afterwards betrayed into the hands of the victor. Balerouj, another leader, was also taken prisoner. Both of them were put to death; but Balerouj was mercilessly tortured. Mehemet Ali was preparing to attack Yemen; but his exhausted soldiers refused to proceed, and he was obliged to lead them back to Mecca. The state of affairs in Egypt soon after called *him to* that country; and he left to his son Toussoun the charge of continuing the war.

While Mehemet Ali had been making progress in the south, Toussoun, with less success, had been warring against Abdallah Ibn Saoud, in the north. Toussoun now led his army towards the province of Nejid, the conquest of which he flattered himself he should be able to accomplish. But he had been too sanguine in his calculations. Abdallah confronted him with a considerable force, and his light troops were so active that the invader was soon seriously embarrassed by the want of provisions. Nor was Toussoun's army at all disposed to hazard a combat. He therefore prudently resorted to negotiation, a step which his father had authorized him to take when needful. Abdallah, too, had his reasons for wishing to put an end to, or at least suspend, the contest. A peace was consequently concluded, by which Abdallah retained his authority, but professed himself a faithful servant of the sultan. Toussoun returned to Egypt towards the close of the year, was coldly received by his father, and soon after died of the plague.

It is probable that neither party intended to keep the peace: it is certain that Mehemet Ali meant to break it. Aware of his enemy's intentions, Abdallah began to adopt measures to meet the coming storm. He provisioned his strongholds, put on foot 30,000 men, and obtained reinforcements from various quarters. With more abundant resources, Mehemet Ali was equally active. The command of the new expedition he gave to Ibrahim, his adopted son, a man of tried bravery, and of no mean talent, who was ordered to strike at the root of Abdallah's power, by reducing Deraiah, the capital of the Wahabee ruler. Six months were employed in the conveyance of military stores, to insure the success of the enterprise. In ten days after his arrival on the coast, in the autumn of 1816, Ibrahim reached Mecca, where he made a solemn vow never to sheathe his sword, or drink any forbidden liquor, till he had exterminated the heretical Arabs. Repeated skirmishes now took place, in which the Turks were frequently the sufferers; but, on the other hand, Ibrahim was joined by several Arab chiefs. Had Abdallah been able to carry into execution a well-imagined plan which he formed, of marching on Medina with 30,000 men, while his brother Faisal should move towards the coast, to intercept the succours from Egypt, the situation of Ibrahim would have been critical. But the falling off of some of his allies, and a defeat which he sustained, rendered the project impracticable. The Egyptian general was, therefore, enabled to carry his schemes into execution without danger. His first operation did not omen favourably for him. The noble resistance of the inhabitants of Rass, in which the women took part, compelled him to raise the siege, after having lain nearly four months before the place, and lost between 3000 and 4000 men. This unpromising beginning was, however, followed by a series of triumphs. The Wahabees were repeatedly de-

the towns of Khabara, Aenezeh, akara, and Dorama, were rapidly ubmit. To punish the resistance the inhabitants were put to the ah, the capital of Abdallah, alone e subdued. For more than five 'ahabee ruler perseveringly held igth, the clamours of the citizens o consent to a parley with Ibra- h was under the necessity of take his departure immediately hither the unfortunate Abdallah i thence he was soon dispatched ople, where he, with his secretary and treasurer, were beheaded on the 19th of December, 1818. Deraiah was razed to the ground, and all the relatives of the Wahabee chief, with some others of his partisans, to the number of 500, were transported to Egypt.

The destruction of the piratical power of the Joassamees, by the British capture of Ras el Khyma, Zyma, and Bu Ali, in 1819 and 1820; some outbreaks of no great importance, in various provinces; and the occupation of Aden by a British force, are the only events of any note which have occurred in Arabia since the downfall of the Wahabees.

PERSIA.

ding to the poets, derived its erseus, the son of Jupiter and fabulous authors suppose it de- as, Pars, or Fars, which signify a Persians and Parthians having elebrated for their skill in horse- e natives give to their country a of Iran.

ENT AND SITUATION.

Degrees.

between { 46. and 60. E. long. 25. and 38. N. lat.

ning 700,000 square miles.

s.—Persia is bounded by the Cas- he north; by the river Jihon, or ly the Oxus, on the north-east; n and Beloochistan, on the east; Ocean, and the Gulfs of Persia a the south; and by the Turkish the west.

—This kingdom is variously di- raphers; but the following list of ears to be that which has a ma- vour. Mr. Fraser adds Seistan o the number; but they rather tern Persia, that portion of the h is not under the sway of the dgn. The following is the order r are situated, proceeding from . The first four are on the western shores of the Caspian.

Ancient Names.	Chief Towns.
Media Atropatene.	Tabriz.
Co. of the Gelæ	Resht.
Country of Mardi and Tapyri	Balfroosh.
Hyrcania	Asterabad.
Elymais	Kermanshah.
Media Magna	Teheran, Ispahan.
Cabiene, &c.	Khorrumabad
Media, Parthia	Mushed.
Susiana	Dizful.
Persis	Shiraz.
Carmania	Kerman.
Persis	Lar.

Mountains.—The Persian mountains are graphically described by Mr. Fraser, in his excellent volume, in the "Edinburgh Cabinet Library." "There is," says he, "a very magnificent range which, striking off from the Caucasus, accompanies the course of the Georgian river Kour; crosses it to the west of the plains of Mogan; covers Karabaug and Karadaug with a gloomy assemblage of black peaks; and from Ardebil runs parallel with the shore of the Caspian Sea to Astrabad. From thence, in an easterly direction, it passes to the north of Mushed, throwing numerous spurs to the southward; and, branching into the highlands of the Hazaras and Balai Mourghaub, stretches by the south of Balk into the remote province of Badakshan. Here it is lost in that great alpine tract north of Cabul, which is continuous with the Hindoo Coosh and Himmaleh, and whence the largest rivers of Asia take their rise. This immense chain, which extends unbroken for more than 20 degrees of longitude, sends forth everywhere a multitude of branches, that in some places sink into the great salt deserts and sandy plains on the east of Persia, and elsewhere connect themselves with other elevations. Of these the Sahund mountains, striking off from the Lake Urumeah, in a north-eastern direction, spread themselves in various clusters through Azerbijan. Another, running south and south-eastward, from the junction of the Cauflan Koh and Kurdistan ranges, was known to the ancients under the name of Mount Zagros. It divided ancient Assyria from Media, and, splitting into a confused mass of ridges and valleys in Kurdistan, continues under the appellation of the Louristan and Bucktaree mountains, till, traversing Fars, it stretches along the Persian Gulf, at various distances from the sea, as far as Gombroon. There it disappears for a space; but, rising again on the south of Kerman, it passes on towards the east, through the centre of Mekran and Beloochistan, until it finally sinks into the deserts of Sinde, or is lost in the high grounds which diverge from the mountains of Affghanistan. These are the principal stocks

from whence arise the multitude of ramifications that cover the surface of Persia with a network, as it were, of rocky lines; and among which are to be found a system of plains and valleys, different in size and productiveness, according to the nature and climate of their respective districts. Wherever water abounds they are fertile; but moisture is the boon of which nature has been least liberal in Persia. 'From the mouths of the Indus to those of the Karoon and Euphrates,' says Sir John Malcolm, 'a tract extending in length a distance of more than twenty degrees, cannot boast of one river that is navigable more than a few miles from the ocean.' Even streamlets are rare, and cultivation is consequently very limited."

RIVERS AND LAKES.—The most considerable rivers are the Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, formerly Araxes; which rise in or near the mountain of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian Sea; the Sufeed-rood, which rises in Ardelan, and, passing through the Elburz chain, falls into the Caspian; and the Haweeza and the Karoon, which flow through Irak Adjemi and Kurzistan, and join the Euphrates, the one above and the other below Bussora. The principal lakes are those of Urumeah, in Azerbijan, and Bakteghan, or Niriz, in Farsistan. Both are exceedingly salt, and the former is about 80 miles long, and 25 broad. Some rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few of them can be navigated even by boats. In consequence of this deficiency, water is scarce; but the defect, where it prevails, was, in former times, admirably supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, and canals, many of which are now dilapidated.

METALS AND MINERALS.—Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, antimony, and, above all, turquoise-stones, which are found in Khorasan. Sulphur, saltpetre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Tauris. Rock-salt abounds in all parts, and sulphur is copiously supplied by the mines of Khameer and others.

CLIMATE.—Those parts of Persia which border upon the mountains near the Caspian Sea are in general cold, as those heights are commonly covered with snow. In the midland provinces of Persia, the air is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but, in the southern provinces, it is hot, and communicates noxious blasts, which are sometimes mortal.

SOIL—VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—The soil is far from being luxuriant toward Tartary and the Caspian Sea; but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruit. To the south of Mount Taurus, the country abounds in corn, fruit, wine, and the other necessaries and luxuries of life. It affords oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest drugs. Great quantities of excellent silk are likewise produced in this country; and the Gulf of Bussora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, particularly roses, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. Few places produce the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shiraz; and a more delightful spot in nature can scarcely be conceived, than the vale in which it is situated, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of everything necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot, grape, and pomegranate. The last is good to a proverb; the Persians, in their pompous style, call it the fruit of Paradise. Yet, beautiful as Persia is in parts, it is neither fertile nor attractive as a whole. The greatest portion of it is deformed by naked picturesque rocks and sterile sands. "The most remarkable features of Persia," says Mr. Fraser, "are its chains of rocky mountains—its long, arid, riverless valleys, and still more extensive salt or sandy deserts." After mentioning the salt lakes, Mr. Fraser adds, "A still more striking feature in the physical aspect of Persia, and which it shares with a large portion of Central Asia and Africa, is the great expanse of salt and sandy wastes. Commencing on the north, near the foot of the Elburz mountains, and in some points penetrating their ranges, the Kuveer, or Salt Desert, stretches southward over much of Irak, skirting the districts of Teheran, Cashan, and Ispahan; of Mourghab and Darabghird of Fars, in a very irregular and deeply-indented line; insulating Yezd, and blending with the wilderness of Kerman; while on the east, overrunning the greater part of Southern Khorasan, it unites with that of Seistan and Beloochistan. In fact, the spots that are habitable in these provinces, as well as in Mekran, may be considered rather as oases amid the surrounding desolation, than as forming any continuous tract of improvable soil. The nature of this desert varies in different places. In some the surface is dry, and even produces a few of those plants which love a salt soil; in others we find a crackling crust of earth, covered only with saline efflorescence. A considerable portion is marshy; and, during winter, the melting of the snow, and the increase of torrents, occasion an accumulation of water in the low parts. In the hot months, much of this is evaporated, and leaves behind a quantity of salt in the form of cakes upon a bed of mud. In certain spots sand predominates, either in the shape of heavy plains or wave-like hillocks, easily drifted by the wind, and sometimes so light and impalpable

extremely dangerous to travellers, t unfrequently buried in its heaps. of the Gurmaseer or Dushtitan falls description, and may, together with ible part of the Chab district, be longing to the deserts of Persia. plain which stretches from the oot of the Elburz to the east of the id along the shores of that sea to resents features very similar to the astes; that is to say, portions of termixed with extensive tracts of ccasional ridges of bare rocks. In s little doubt that these two deserts ed by means of the savage country between Mushed and Balai Mourgth there and in the mountains of and of the Hazaras, salt is abundant. n be more dreary than these wastes. raveller has advanced some distance the boundless expanse around, h utter barrenness, and hoary with glistening and baking in the rays of —only broken here and there by a rk rock, which is distorted by the fraction into a thousand wild and me—impresses him with a sense of hat cannot be described."

—The horses vary in the different some of which have fine breeds, s the contrary. The best are h are produced near the western at even these are not so swift or so the Arabian steeds. The price of t breed varies from £100 to £400. are small, but strong and finely ed; the wild asses also are fine aniheir flesh is considered as dainty the camels of Khorasan are not those of Arabia. Sheep are most a the northern parts of the country, re in general fine creatures. The rge and strong; but their flesh is ten by the natives, who confine chiefly to that of sheep and fowls. uadrupeds are lions, bears, wolves, tes, zebras, deer, wild boars, porres, &c. The birds are nearly the those of Europe. In the interior, are not much annoyed by insects; ana, and other places, there are h inflict shocking wounds, chiefly gers, so as to occasion fevers and death. Locusts appear in the arts, where snakes and scorpions nmon.

. CURIOSITIES.—The baths near are medicinal, and esteemed the iosities of Persia; but the most rebject, under this head, is the burnnenon, mentioned under the article n."

another curiosity which particularly tice. "It consists," says Mr. Morier, a ponds or plashes, whose indolent slow and regular process stagnate, concrete, and petrify, and produce that beautiful transparent stone called Tabriz marble, which forms a chief ornament in all the buildings of note throughout the country. A strong mineral smell arises from the ponds. In one part, the water is clear; in a second, it appears thicker and stagnant; in a third, quite black; and, in its last stage, is white, like a hoar-frost." It seems, he adds, as if the bubbles of a spring, by a stroke of magic had been arrested in their play, and metamorphosed into marble.

POPULATION — MANNERS — CUSTOMS. — The people of Persia may be divided into four classes. The pastoral tribes that live in tents, in the western parts, form the first division. Another class consists of the Turcoman tribes, a rough and hardy race of Moslems; the third, of the inhabitants of towns, and the agricultural part of the community; and the fourth, of the Arabs, who occupy the country between the mountains and the Persian Gulf. Under the reign of Abbas II., Chardin estimated the population of Persia at 40,000,000. But, though the country was then in its most prosperous state, this estimate is no doubt a gross exaggeration. At present, it is believed that Persia has not more than 10,000,000 of inhabitants.

The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; and the swarthy complexions of the southern natives do not detract from their dignity of aspect. The men shave their heads; but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and their beards to reach their temples; religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear magnificent turbans. They are so desirous of keeping their heads very warm, that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their persons they wear calico shirts, and over them they have a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest fur, silk, muslin, or cotton, embroidered with gold and silver. They wear linen trowsers, loose boots, and slippers. They are fond of riding, and very gay in their equipages. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; and their dress upon the whole is better adapted for the purposes of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they take great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes, particularly by tinging their eye-brows and eyelids with the black powder of antimony.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary as they seldom change their linen. Early in the morning they drink coffee, and about eleven dine upon fruit, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat

flour; and, as they deem it an abomination to cut either bread or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton or fowl, is so prepared that they can divide it with their fingers. They use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; and, though they are temperate, are not very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they smoke through a tube fixed in water, that, when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment.

The Persians are generally polite, and, though too justly accused of insincerity and dissimulation, have a pleasing and plausible address. Their chief foibles seem to be an ostentation in their equipages and dresses, and a jealousy of their women. They are fond of music; in which, however, they have little skill, and take pleasure in conversing in large companies: but their chief diversions are hawking, hunting, horsemanship, and the exercise of arms. They excel, as their ancestors the Parthians did, in archery. "Their horsemanship," says Mr. Fraser, "is celebrated; and, though they cannot compare in nicety of training with the cavalry of India, yet they may claim the honour of being the boldest riders in the world. They urge their horses, without the slightest apprehension, over ground that would make the best English fox-hunter draw up -- scramble over rocky mountains sprinkled with bushes—dash down slopes of loose and slippery stones, and gallop up the steepest acclivities, where a false step would be death. In these daring feats their spirited animals do full justice to their confidence; but an experienced horseman of Europe would be shocked at the management of their mouths, and the abuse of their feet, as much as they would admire their undaunted boldness; for they drive them at full speed over ground hard enough to break down the stoutest limbs, and suddenly check them with violence enough to break their jaws and shake their frames to pieces." They are diverted by the performances of wrestlers, jugglers, buffoons, story-tellers, and dancing-boys: but dancing-girls, not being allowed to appear at court, are rarely seen, except in the towns which are remote from the capital. Exhibitions of fighting beasts highly gratify them; fire-works and puppet-shows are among their occasional amusements; and they privately play at games of chance. The late king was particularly fond of the chase: he was an expert marksman and an excellent horseman. In his retired hours, he amused himself with the pleasantry of a fool or jester, and the varied tales of an official narrator of anecdotes and adventures.

A man of rank rises at day-break, recites his *prayers*, and then enters the hall appropriated to business. His pipe is brought to him, and sometimes fruit; and here he expects visitants. With them he is engaged until nine o'clock, listening to the reports of the morning, adjusting disputes, and arranging domestic concerns. He then pays a visit to the king, or the governor of the town or province, if it be convenient for him in point of distance. He returns to take his dinner, repeats his mid-day prayers, and retires to sleep. When he has thus refreshed himself, he again receives or visits his friends. The afternoon prayers are not neglected: at dusk carpets are spread in the open air, where he and his friends pass the evening in conversation; sometimes enjoying the scene by witnessing the performances of Georgian boys, who sing, play on various instruments, and display their address in feats of activity.

There are places in Shiraz distinguished by the name of *Zoor Khana*, the house of strength, or exercise, to which the Persians resort for the purpose of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, into which the light and air are admitted by means of several small apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth, beaten down smooth and even; and on each side are small alcoves, raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, they immediately strip themselves to the waist. Each man then puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs, of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon their shoulders; and, the music striking up, they move them backward and forward with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time and straining every nerve, so as to produce a profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, upon a signal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this exercise for some time, they commence wrestling; in which the master of the house is always the challenger, and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves conqueror. This mode of exercise contributes to health, and adds strength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame.

With respect to outward behaviour, the Persians are certainly the most polished people of the East. While a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation towards foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations. They are courteous and obliging to all strangers; they are fond of inquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in return, readily afford any information in re-

their own country. The practice of
ty is with them so grand a point, that
inks himself highly honoured if you
r his house and partake of what the
fords; whereas, going out of a house
moking or taking any refreshment, is
in Persia, a high affront: they say that
al, in which a stranger partakes with
ngs a blessing upon the house.
ir conversation they aim much at ele-
id frequently repeat passages from the
f their favourite poets. They also
n jokes and quaint expressions, and
of playing upon each other, which
aetimes do with great elegance and

IAGES.—When the parents of a young
e determined upon marrying him, they
among their kindred and acquaintance
able match; they then go to the house
e female resides, whom they intend to
If the father of the woman approves,
ediately orders sweetmeats to be
in; which is taken as a direct sign
lance. After this, the usual presents
rt of the bridegroom are made, which,
room be in middling circumstances,
consist of two complete suits of ap-
the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass,
nall sum in ready money, which is to
or the wife in case of a divorce. There
vided a quantity of household stuff
rts, such as carpets, mats, bedding,
for dressing victuals, &c. The con-
ritnessed by the cadi. The wedding-
ing come, the bride is brought forth
rom head to foot in a veil of red silk,
d muslin; a horse is then presented
o mount, which is sent expressly by
groom; and, when she has mounted,
ooking-glass is carried before her by
e bridemaids, all the way to the house
sband, as an admonition to her, that
sat time she will look into the glass
in. The procession is conducted in
ving order:—first, the music and danc-
afterwards, the presents, in trays
on men's shoulders; next come the
and friends of the bridegroom, all
; who are followed by the bride her-
rounded by all her female friends and
one of whom leads the horse by the
d several others on horseback close
sion. Rejoicings on this occasion
continue eight or ten days. Men
y for life, or any determined time, in
well as through all Tartary; and all
or merchants, who intend to stay
e in any city, commonly apply to the
temporary wife. The magistrate,
ted gratuity, produces a number of
m he declares to be honest, and free
ease; and he becomes surety for

an may divorce his wife at pleasure.
and sues for a separation, he must
pay his wife's dower; but she loses it if she should solicit a divorce. There is, however, a degree of scorn attached to divorcing, which prevents it from being very frequently resorted to. Adultery, on the woman's part, is punished with death. Beside four wives, a man may entertain in his family, as concubines, an unlimited number either of slaves or free women.

"The women of the better ranks," says Mr. Fraser, "are often exceedingly fair, of good complexions, generally full-formed and handsome. The strong admixture of Georgian, Circassian, and Armenian blood, which results from the admission of so many females from those countries into the harems of the wealthy, has tended much to improve the Tartar physiognomy of the rural tribes, and the somewhat heavy figures and sallow colour of the aboriginal Persians. In many instances their eyes are large, black, and languishing; their lips rich and red, setting off teeth naturally even and white. But they disfigure their proper charms, by painting their faces of various colours, of which white and crimson are the least offensive; constant smoking spoils their mouth and teeth; and they frequently imprint on their persons fanciful figures tattooed into the skin. A fine head of hair is reckoned among the most indispensable of ornaments; and when nature or accident has deprived them of this, the Persian beauties, like the fair ones of other climes, supply the defect by wearing wigs.

"Their dress within the harem is sufficiently simple. A shift of coloured silk or cotton covers the upper part of their figures, and, together with a pair of sere-jamehs or trowsers, compose the principal portion of their attire. Over this they throw a jacket or pelisse, with a shawl, cloak, or furs, according to the state of the weather. Round the head an immense silk handkerchief is wound in a peculiar shape, like a turban. When they go abroad they put on a wrapper of blue checked stuff, which envelopes them from head to foot, leaving only a small opening of laced work, through which the glance of the eye may sometimes be perceived; yet no husband can recognise his own wife should he meet her. Indeed, it is a point of etiquette among all well-bred Muasulmans, to turn aside from a veiled female; so that detection is impossible: and women of all ranks are said to avail themselves of this privilege, in order to enjoy some of that liberty which their lords are disposed to deny them.

"The occupations of their sex are few and uninteresting. Ladies of rank meet to talk, gossip, and tell stories; to show each other their finery and jewels, listen to singing women and see them dance, or have parties of pleasure at each other's houses. But the bath is the great scene of enjoyment and relaxation, where each, secure from interruption, lays aside restraint, and gives full scope to merriment and scandal. They are utterly wanting in all that delicacy of sentiment and language, which in the

greatest charm of females in more civilized countries; and, ignorant of what are considered propriety, they express themselves on all subjects with disgusting grossness. Their terms of abuse are indecent in the extreme, and are used with equal fluency by high and low. Where jealousy and intrigue breed constant quarrels, the conversation of a coterie of Persian ladies must of course be intolerable. The domestic pursuits of the middle and lower orders necessarily occupy more of their time; but the same causes operating, although less forcibly, produce in proportion the same effects; and, we scarce need remark, that women in Persia, as in all other quarters of the globe, are the creatures which circumstances and education have made them. If they have been adverse—if the softer sex have been basely degraded by their proud and oppressive lords, shall we blame the sufferers for a misfortune which they owe to the tyranny of Eastern customs—to the injustice of those whose solace in sorrow and suffering they were designed to be, and who, by every law of nature and manly feeling, were bound to protect them?"

Funerals.—The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a manner similar to those in other Mohammedan countries. The relatives and friends of the deceased, being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed, placed on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city walls, attended by a mollah or priest, who chants passages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Moslem should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time, "There is no God but God." After interment, the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spice, which they eat in memory of the deceased; sending a part of it to their friends, that they may also pay him a like honour.

Cities—Chief Towns—Edifices.—Teheran, in the north-western part of the province of Irak, is now considered as the capital of Persia, because it is the seat of government. It is about four miles in circumference, situated in a dreary plain, which is treeless, and only partially cultivated. It is furnished with a citadel, and surrounded by a strong wall; but it is not a handsome or well-built town. Within the fortress is the palace, which displays no external magnificence. So excessive is the heat of the summer in this neighbourhood, that the king and the greater part of the inhabitants annually leave it for two or three months. The population is then under 40,000; but, during the rest of the year, it amounts to 100,000. Near Teheran are the ruins of Rhé, the Rhages of the Bible. It was the Parthian capital, and the birthplace of Haroun al Rashid.

Ispahan, which was formerly the Persian capital, and whose inhabitants were mated at more than 1,000,000, is seat plain, within a mile of the river Zen contains some good squares and no but the streets are neither wide and the town in general is wrete It bears evident marks of neglect; so deserted as to have only a sr tion; for it is supposed to be still more than 150,000 persons. The b extensive, that you may walk for miles under the shelter which they best manufactures of the place are and cotton: the latter stuff resem and is worn by all ranks, from th peasant. The chief ornament of the Palace of Forty Pillars, cal Persian Versailles, of which Sir Porter speaks in a rapturous stral haustless profusion," he says, "o materials, may be said to reflect their own golden or crystal li other, but all the variegated c garden; so that the whole s formed of polished silver and m set with precious stones. In sh seems almost to realize an e dream, or some magic vision. T tained by a double range of c being forty feet high, and shootin united backs of four lions of while their shafts are covered w patterns and foliage. The ceili with the representations of flo mals, in gold, silver, and pa hundreds of intermingling co glittering mirrors." There is, h interior saloon, in which all th labours, and cost of eastern mag been lavished with an incredibl

Shiraz lies about 225 miles to of Ispahan. It is an open town bourhood is inexpressibly rich The only building which is wor the mosque called the Jumah was founded more than 600 yea beg Shah; but its streets are n nient, and scarcely passable in the houses in general are mea not above 4000 of them are inha perhaps, about 20,000 persons some good bazaars and caravan tinguished by the appellation bazaar, so called from its being Khan, is the handsomest. mosque built by Kerim. Thi form: in the centre is a sto water, made for performing the tions, previous to prayer; on t the building are arched apar for devotion, some of the fron covered with china tiles.

The police in Shiraz, as w Persia, is very strict. At suns the city are shut; no person is to come in or go out during the

being always sent to the
nd remaining with him
g the night, three drums
ferent times; the first at
nd at nine, and the third
ter the third drum has
whatsoever found in the
or judge of the police, or
are instantly taken up
e of confinement, where
. the morning, when they
tem; and, if they cannot
ount of themselves, are
e bastinado or a fine.
plain bounded by moun-
arren, recede into a well-
approach to it from Arde-
a the 17th century it was
nd city in Persia; but, if
ie principal residence of
the Persian crown, it
re declined into insignifi-
the fortifications, formed
t a palace for himself,
stry of the inhabitants,
uropean arts and inven-
n of the town fluctuates
,000.
y a large and flourishing
v only 4000 inhabitants,
great object of Moslem
the magnificent mauso-
ed sheik who was the
ily. It has a still greater
h regular bastions and
ean principles, the only
hich is said to have cost

of Khorasan, is said to
the emperor Humaioon,
t of Shah Thamasp. It
inhabitants. Its manu-
asser, are not extensive;
former celebrity for some
re considered as the best
as and cottons are less
s of good temper are here
lence being derived, it is
many descendants of a
isplanted from Damascus
mour. The city is built
the houses in general
earance, and the apart-
ished; and a great part
Yet, some of the public
of magnificence, particu-
ed by the wife of one of
e medressas, or endowed
e most admired structure
ausoleum of the imam
is still revered. On ap-
square strikes the eye,
ries of apartments, which
to a handsome arcaded
e of each side is a very
whole is incrusted with

mosaic work of tiles, painted and glazed, and arranged in figures of the most tasteful patterns and colours. The most striking external ornaments of the mausoleum are two minarets of a very beautiful model; the central chamber looks like the nave of a cathedral, and, in a neatly decorated octagonal room, is the shrine which covers the remains of the saint, enriched with jewels by the liberal piety of the present monarch.

Among the other cities worthy of notice, may be named Shuster, Yezd, Resht, Balfroosh, and Kerman. Shuster, in the province of Kuaistan, is situated on an eminence above the river Karoon, and contains 15,000 inhabitants. Shapoor is said to have founded it, under the inspection of the emperor Valerian, his prisoner, who is believed to have resided in the castle. Its streets are dirty, but the houses are respectable edifices of stone. Yezd, in Irak, is a prosperous city, containing about 50,000 souls. It stands in a large sandy plain, nearly surrounded by hills. It derives its prosperity from commerce and manufactures, and from being the focus where the caravans meet, from the east and the west, to interchange their respective commodities. Resht, the capital of Ghilan, is a commercial place, with extensive and well kept bazaars, and a population of from 60,000 to 80,000 souls. Balfroosh, in Mazunderan, is believed to contain 200,000 inhabitants, all of whom are devoted to commerce, and are in good circumstances. "There is not," says Mr. Fraser, "a khan or noble in the place; even the governor is a trader; and there is a plain and simple air of ease, plenty, and comfort, attended with a bustle and show of business, which resembles the mercantile towns of India rather than one in the despotic land of Persia." Kerman, an ancient city, in the province of the same name, was destroyed by Agha Mahommed Khan, but has been since rebuilt. It has about 30,000 inhabitants, and its trade is now reviving. Its manufactures of a particularly fine wool, shawls, felts, and matchlocks, are much in request in Persia.

Most of the Persian towns have some kind of defence. This, says Sir John Malcolm, is generally a high mud wall, which is flanked by turrets, and sometimes protected by a deep dry ditch and a rude glacis. The habitations of ordinary persons, according to the same author, are usually formed of mud; but the apartments are generally better than their external appearance would seem to indicate. While terraced roofs are the most frequent, a dome roof is sometimes preferred, with a view of diminishing the necessity of making use of wood.

The houses of men of quality in Persia are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office-houses being built apart. Few of them have chimneys, in-

stead of which they have a round hole in the middle of the room. Some of these mansions, however, exhibit an air of light and pleasing architecture; the halls are frequently supported by pillars, which are exquisitely carved and gilt; and the windows of the apartments are curiously ornamented with stained glass. The furniture chiefly consists of carpets; and the beds are two thick cotton quilts, which are used likewise as coverlets, with carpets under them.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world, in silk, (especially brocades,) woollen, mohair, carpets, jewellery, sword-blades, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance, to richness, neatness, and show: and yet they are ignorant of painting; for their drawings are very rude, and they have no idea of perspective. Their dyeing excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold lace and thread are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroidery and horse-furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists; which is said to be the consequence of the scarcity of timber in Persia. Their artisans in gold and silver are very unskilful; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. The internal commerce of Persia is considerable, and is wholly carried on by caravans. The exports to foreign countries are annually about £1,500,000. Upon the whole, they lie under great disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profit.

Constitution, Government, and Laws.—These are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despot. The Persians, however, formerly had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not their male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. Now, the life and property of the subject is in the hands of the sovereign, without the slightest control. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the two last centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could only be governed by exemplary rigour: but this was a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is frequently attended with death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility; so that the respect due to every man on account of his high station expires with himself.

The laws of Persia, where the will of the sovereign does not interfere, are supposed to be founded on the Koran; but the laws of immemorial custom are also admitted. The sherrah courts decide by the former, the urf courts by the latter. Civil matters are determined by the ordinary magistrates, and ecclesiastical ones, particularly divorces, by the head of the faith. Justice is administered in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of the nose and ears; for robbing on the road, the belly of the criminal is sometimes ripped up: but the most common punishments for great crimes are strangling, stabbing, or decapitation. Futteh Ali, the grandfather and predecessor of the present sovereign, though beyond measure avaricious, was rather humane than remarkably severe or cruel; but some of his predecessors, in the wantonness of power, were accustomed to put out the eyes of their subjects for trifling offences, and sometimes for no real delinquency. His tyrannical uncle ordered a soldier, who had relieved him when he had fallen into a fit, to be deprived of his sight for repeatedly looking at him; and, when he was contending for the sovereignty, he put out the eyes of 5000 inhabitants of Kerman, beside the massacre of an equal number, because they refused to submit tamely to his usurpation, and suffered his competitor to escape from their city.

Revenues.—The king claims one-third of the cattle, corn, and fruit, of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No persons, of whatever rank, are exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expenses of the court, the king's household, and great officers of state. The water, that is let into fields and gardens, is subject to a tax; and foreigners who are not of the established religion, pay a ducat a-head. Yet, according to Mr. Kinneir, the revenue does not far exceed £3,000,000 sterling. Mr. Fraser, who is a high authority upon all that relates to Persia, even reduces it to little more than £1,500,000. The system of its collection is of the most oppressive kind.

Military Force.—This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Soon after the beginning of the last century, however, the kings raised bodies of infantry. About thirty years ago it was deemed expedient to introduce the European discipline; and Abbas Mirza, who was the heir apparent, had under his command 12,000 men, who were first instructed by French and afterward by British officers. The regular army of Persia consists at present of about 40,000 men, of whom one-half are organized and disciplined in the European manner. In the course of a few weeks the king can also collect under his standard 100,000 irregular cavalry.

With regard to maritime force, we may affirm that it does not exist at all in Persia. Nadir Shah made some attempts to raise a navy; but the scarcity of wood and other difficulties baffled his views in that respect.

ARMS AND TITLES.—The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant, looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah or Sovereign; Khan and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartarian titles. To acts of state, the king does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

RELIGION.—The Persians are of the sect of Ali; for which reason the Turks, who follow the succession of Abu Beker, Omar, and Othman, stigmatize them as heretics. Both nations agree in the principal doctrines of the Mohammedan religion; but the Persians, reflecting with pious indignation on the insult offered to Ali, who, being the cousin and son-in-law of the Prophet, and the first convert, justly claimed the immediate succession, execrate the three supplanters of their favourite, and deny the authority of the traditions which were brought forward by those khalifs, and copiously illustrated by four celebrated doctors of the law, Hanifa, Malec, Shaffei, and Hanbal. Their religion is, in some things, more fantastical and sensual than that of the Turks: it is also mingled with some Brahmin superstitions. A comparison may be made between the Brahmins and the Persian Guebres or Gaurs, who pretend to be the disciples and successors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroaster, or Zerdusht, the celebrated philosopher, who, according to some authors, flourished in the reign of the first Darius. That both of them held originally pure and simple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be easily proved: but the Brahmins and Persees accuse the Gaurs, who still worship the fire, of having sensualized those ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combustible ground, near Baku, in the north of Persia, is the scene of the devotion of the Guebres. This ground is impregnated with inflammable substances, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Sefis, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sabean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mohammedanism, and are numerous toward the Persian Gulf.

The Armenians flourished in this country under the protection of the Shah Abbas; but they are now a declining sect, though they are still tolerated in their adherence to the ancient doctrines of the Greek church, and are allowed to have places of worship and monasteries.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramadan with great strictness and severity. About an hour before daylight they take refreshment, and from that time until the next evening at sunset they neither eat nor drink of anything whatever. From sunset until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramadan falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do—the Mohammedan year being lunar—is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about in the day; and is rendered still more so, as there are also several nights, while it continues, which they are ordered to spend in prayer. The Persians more particularly observe two; one being the anniversary of the lamented death of Ali, who was wounded by an assassin; while the other refers to the night when the Koran was brought down from heaven.

LITERATURE. — The Persians, in ancient times, were famous for polite literature, and their poets renowned all over the East. There is a manuscript at Oxford, containing the lives of 135 admired Persian poets. Ferdusi and Sadi were among the most celebrated. The former comprised, in the "Shah Nameh, or Book of Kings," the history of Persia in a series of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are styled by Sir William Jones "a glorious monument of Eastern genius and learning." He died in the year 1020, before the Persian throne was sullied by the intrusion of the Turks. Sadi, who was a native of Shiraz, flourished in the 13th century, and wrote many elegant pieces both in prose and verse. His principal work is the "Gulestan, or Bed of Roses." Nizami, who lived towards the close of the 12th century, and is the author of five works, one of which relates to Alexander the Great, is placed, as an epic poet, in the next rank to Ferdusi; and Gelaleddin, the greatest writer of the mystic school, is admired both for acuteness and sublimity; but his writings are clouded with obscurity. Nakhshebi wrote in Persian an amusing work called the "Tales of a Parrot." Jami was a most animated and elegant poet, who flourished in the middle of the 15th century. Hariri composed, in a rich, elegant, and flowery style, a moral work, in fifty dissertations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interspersed with a number of agreeable adventures, and several charming pieces of poetry. Khondemir and Mir-khond, who are sometimes confounded, are celebrated in the historic department.

Of the sprightly and voluptuous bard of

Shiraz, the name and character are sufficiently known to orientalists. We here allude to Shemseddin, surnamed Hafiz, who conciliated the favour of an offended potentate by the delicacy of his wit and the elegance of his verses; whom the most powerful princes of the East sought in vain to draw from literary retirement; and whose works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of mystic piety to the superstitious Moslem—the oracle which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wise, and prognosticated the fate of armies and of states.

The tomb of this admired poet stands near the walls of Shiraz: it is composed of fine white marble, and is placed in a large garden, under the shade of some cypress-trees of extraordinary size and beauty. This was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one. During the spring and summer, the inhabitants visit the tomb, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess, and other games, reading also the works of the venerated bard.

Many of the Persian historians are of high merit. Among them may be mentioned Mirkhond and his son, Albedauwi, and Ferishta. Fables, moral tales, and ethical works, are numerous in the Persian language; and the means of acquiring that language are liberally supplied by many excellent dictionaries and grammars.

Learning, in modern times, was long in a low state among the Persians; but it is said to be reviving of late. Their boasted skill in astronomy is reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession, in greatest esteem among them, is that of medicine, which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer; which often defeats the end of the prescriptions. It is said, however, that some of the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna; but they are unacquainted with anatomy, because their religion prohibits dissection. The plague is little known in this country; and almost equally rare are some other diseases that are fatal in many places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore circumscribed, and they are very ignorant of the chirurgical art.

Language.—The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak the Turkish; and the Arabic was probably introduced into Persia under the khalifs, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and persons of quality have adopted it as a modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persic is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian Gulf, and in Ispahan; but, in many of the provinces, the inhabitants speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other tongues.

The Persians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their seals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art.

The Lord's Prayer in Persian is as follows:—"Ei Padere, ma kib der osmoni: pac bashed mám tu; bay ayed padeshahi tu; shwad chwaste tu benzjunaaukib der osmon nis derzemin; b-à mara imrouz nán kef af rowz mara; wadarguasar mara konáhon ma zjunaukihma uis mig sarim orman mara; wador ozmajisch minedazmara; likin chalas kun mara ez efberir."

Antiquities.—The monuments of antiquity in Persia are many, but are generally more celebrated for their magnificence and expense, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of Persepolis, are now remaining; but many figures in relievo have been found in different excavations, which throw light on the countenances, dress, arms, and accoutrements, of the Persians who lived long before the invasion of their country by the Saracens. At Shapour is a rock very curiously sculptured, and, in a cavern under it, a fallen statue has been discovered, which, says Mr. Morier, is the only known statue in Persia. The tombs of some of the ancient kings are stupendous works, abounding with ornaments carved on rocks; but the inscriptions are unintelligible.

History.—The founding of the Persian monarchy is attributed by some of the native historiographers to Cayoumaras; but this point is as uncertain as the time of its erection. A part of this region, if not the whole, is supposed to be the Elam of Scripture, colonized by the posterity of Shem. Its limits, in all probability, were gradually extended, until it became a considerable kingdom; but, whatever may be the pretences of the Persian historians or poets (for Ferdusi and some other writers united both characters) to an antiquity which soars far beyond the reach of records, we may reasonably conclude that the earliest ruler mentioned in the nominal or pretended history of the realm did not reign above 900 years before the Christian era.

To Husheng, the reputed successor of Cayoumaras, the honourable appellation of the Legislator has been given. Another distinguished prince was Gemshid, whose memory is still respected by the Persians. After various usurpations, the crown was transferred to a new line of kings, of whom Kobad the Great was the first. According to some accounts, Cyrus was the third king of this series. Of the power and exploits of that monarch we have taken some notice in the Introduction (p. 77); but it may not be improper to treat more parti-

cularly of his remarkable acts. Before he acquired sovereign power, he had evinced his talents and courage in the government of Persia, a great part of which was then subject to his uncle Cyaxares, king of the Medes. He suppressed the commotions of that province, and enforced a due respect to the supreme authority. Being menaced with an invasion from Crœsus the Lydian king, he resolved to anticipate the views of that prince; and his success was speedy and complete; for he not only conquered but deposed his adversary. He subdued the whole extent of Asia Minor, and deprived the Babylonians of all remains of authority in Persia. His next object was the reduction of their capital, which was the strongest city in Asia. After a siege of two years, he gained it by a stratagem, when the garrison and the inhabitants were carelessly celebrating a festival. By these and other conquests, Cyrus, on the death of Cyaxares, became the greatest prince in the civilised world. Some of the oriental historians affirm, that he resigned his imperial dignity; but the Greek and Roman writers assert, that he engaged in a rash war with the Scythians, and lost his life in the field.

Cambyses, the son of Cyrus, ruined a fine army in a rash expedition into Ethiopia; and Darius, his successor, being inflamed with the ambitious hope of subduing Greece, could only, with all his efforts, entail disgrace on the great empire. Xerxes was equally unfortunate in a similar enterprise, and his precipitate flight was still more ignominious. When Alexander the Great triumphed over Darius III., it was some consolation to the Persians to find that those enemies who had so repeatedly baffled their arms were at the same time enslaved by the Macedonian victor.

In that contest for power and dominion, which arose among Alexander's generals, the sovereignty of Persia was obtained by Seleucus, and the throne was filled by his descendants, until the 250th year before the Christian era, when it was usurped by Arsaces, a bold adventurer, who easily persuaded the Parthians, or inhabitants of the interior of Persia, to revolt from tyrannic sway. The successors of the new king gradually extended their sway to the frontiers of India, and, in an opposite direction, to the banks of the Euphrates; and they even presented a firm front to the Romans, whose career of oriental conquest they seriously checked. When they had flourished in power and splendour for almost five centuries, the ambition and success of Artaxerxes introduced the Sassanian line of sovereigns. He pretended to trace his descent from the earliest Persian dynasty; and his claim was generally admitted, but not before he had established his reputation by signal victories.

The Sassanian series of monarchs continued to the time of Mohammed, who, if his life had been prolonged, would have extinguished their power, and have compelled their subjects to embrace his doctrines; but that task was reserved for the khalif Othman, by whose victorious troops Yezdejerd, the Persian king, was defeated and slain, in the year 651. The country was subsequently governed by Saracen viceroys, until the decline of the khalifate tempted the ambition of military adventurers, who erected independent principalities over the wide extent of the empire. Persia was divided into many states; but at length Togrul-Beg, a Turkish chieftain, took possession of the greater part of that region. He died in 1063; and the Seljukian line of princes followed, of whom some were men of distinguished ability.

The kingdom was conquered, in the 13th century, by the Mongol warrior, Genghiz-Khan; and it was afterwards subdued by Timour the renowned Tartar. His death left the kingdom a prey to intestine divisions, which were in a great measure terminated, in 1508, by the elevation of Ismael Sefi to the throne. This prince was the descendant of a sheik who had been patronised by Timour, and who was revered as a saint; and, by courting the sectaries who followed the doctrines of Ali, he raised an army, and waded through slaughter to the throne. To this family belonged the shah Abbas, styled the Great, who reigned forty-three years with distinguished fame, extending the boundaries and improving the state of his realm. His grandson Sefi was the Nero of Persia. Abbas II. united debauchery with cruelty; and his successor Sefi II. was a prince of a similar character, under whom the importance and dignity of the kingdom visibly declined.

In the reign of Hosein, the government became so contemptible, that the Affghans revolted, and proclaimed Weis, their leader, king of Candahar; whose son Mahmoud, in 1723, took Ispahan, and dethroned the shah. Tahmas, son of the deposed prince, formed a party against Esref, who succeeded the usurper, and, by the aid of Nadir Kouli, a leader of banditti, recovered the crown. The ambition of the fortunate general at length overcame his fidelity: he rebelled, in 1732, against his feeble sovereign, and basely supplanted him. The usurper then turned his arms against the Turks, who had taken advantage of the disordered state of Persia, with a view of extending their frontiers. They at first defeated his troops; but he took a severe revenge in another battle. He also met with triumphant success in Armenia and Georgia. He attacked the Affghans, and deprived them of Candahar after a long siege; and at Cabul, which he likewise reduced, he enriched himself with ample spoils. Intent on the conquest of India, he marched against the shah Mohammed, in 1738, and reached Delhi in his victorious career. A commotion having arisen in that populous city, from the indignation of the inferior inhabitants, who slew some of the straggling invaders, the brutal and vindictive conqueror gave orders for a general massacre: and it is said, that 120,000 lives were sacrificed to his fury. He conde-

scended to leave the Great Mogul in possession of his throne, but robbed him and his chief officers of immense wealth. After his return to Persia, he indulged himself in shameful rapacity and horrible inhumanity, and thus increased the odium which he had before excited by his endeavours to bring the bigoted followers of Ali to a conformity with the Turkish creed. The people submitted to his tyranny for many years; but it was at last so intolerable that some of his principal attendants, in 1747, put him to death in his tent. He cried out for mercy, promising full pardon to all his assailants; but an Affghan officer sternly replied, "Those who have shown no mercy deserve none."

Ali, the nephew of the murdered tyrant, quietly ascended the throne, and endeavoured to conciliate the people by some liberal acts; but he could not secure their good-will, nor, indeed, did he deserve their regard. His brother Ibrahim, taking up arms against him, defeated and deposed him. The two brothers being put to death by the troops, Shah Rokh, grandson of Nadir, was placed on the throne; but his authority was far from being generally acknowledged, and other pretenders aimed at the splendid prize of royalty. He was made prisoner and deprived of sight by a bold adventurer; he was restored, and again dethroned. At length Ahmed the Affghan, king of Candahar, took him under his protection, and permitted him to keep a nominal court at Meshed. Ispahan, in the mean time, was occupied by Ali Merdan, who, in concert with Kerim, the son of a freebooter, crowned a puppet of the Sefi family, and governed in his name.

Kerim was grossly illiterate; but he had talents, good sense, and judgment. He treated Ali with deference and respect: but, when he found himself exposed to personal danger from the ambition of his colleague, he took arms against him; and, by the death of his enemy, he obtained the chief sway over several provinces. His authority, however, was disputed by two powerful chieftains. Over one of these opponents he triumphed in the battle of Humarej; and the other, in 1757, was defeated and slain. From that time to the year 1779, Kerim enjoyed the actual sovereignty of the greater part of Persia; but he modestly declined to assume the royal title. He governed with wisdom and ability, and manifested a great regard for the interest and welfare of the people. He was sometimes severe, and his memory deserves censure for his connivance at the atrocious barbarity of his half brother Zeckee Khan; but his general government was just, moderate, and humane. "His death," says Sir John Malcolm, "was that of a father, amidst a family whom he had cherished, and by whom he was beloved. The inhabitants of Persia, to this day, venerate his name."

Two sons of Kerim were declared his successors, under the guardianship of Zeckee, who soon fell a victim to the detestation which his cruelties had excited. A contest for the chief power then arose between Sadack, the brother of Kerim, and his nephew Morad, who, having blockaded his competitor in Shiras for eight months, compelled him to surrender, and put him to death. The conqueror reigned for some years, but not with undisputed authority. Mohammed Khan, chief of the Khajar tribe, thought himself equally worthy of royalty, and erected his standard in the province of Mazunderan. He defeated the troops that were sent against him; and, on the death of Morad, he gained possession of Ispahan, while Jaffier Khan, half brother to the deceased king, ruled at Shiraz. The latter prince being murdered amidst the convulsions of the state, his son Ali assumed the royal title. For six years he contended with Mohammed for the sole sovereignty: but all his efforts and occasional victories could not establish his power. He fell into the hands of his ferocious enemy, who, having ordered his eyes to be put out, sent him to prison, and soon after issued a mandate for his death.

Mohammed Khan was now the acknowledged master of the chief provinces: but he did not long enjoy that throne to which he had waded through slaughter. He possessed vigour of mind, and manifested, in various instances, a regard for justice; but he was meanly rapacious, and execrably inhuman. When he had composed the troubles of the realm, his ambition led him, in 1795, into Georgia, over which he hoped to establish the same authority which he had usurped in Persia. On his approach to Teflis, a battle ensued, in which the Georgians, being unaided by the Russians, were totally defeated. The conqueror gratified himself and his followers with the spoils of the city, and gave them full licence for every enormity. While he was exultiug in the increase of his power, he was alarmed by the progress of a Russian army, which made a great impression on his frontiers; but he was relieved by the death of the empress Catharine, and the altered politics of Paul. He was preparing for a new expedition to Georgia, when he was murdered, in 1797, by two of his menial servants, whom, for a trivial offence, he had menaced with death.

Futteh Ali, nephew of the late king, was placed on the throne by the will of his uncle, and quickly suppressed the revolt of three chieftains or nobles, who severally aimed at the crown. He also succeeded in the establishment of his authority over Khoorassan: but he could not, with all his efforts, prevent the Russians from subduing Georgia. In 1804, he was involved in a new war with that nation; and it was carried on for some years with various success. The Persians fought with great spirit in some of the conflicts; but their sovereign consented to purchase peace, in 1813, by the cession of Shirvan and other territories. He afterwards concluded a commercial treaty with Alexander; but, being still jealous

dition of that prince, he strengthened
r an alliance with the British court.
perhaps that, while Turkey was
ed by the Greek insurrection, he
st from that power some portion of
which might counterbalance the
ade to Russia by the treaty of Gulis-
ersian monarch, in 1822, resolved to
upon the sultan. His son, Abbas
said to have prompted him to this
. Abbas had a considerable body of
sciplined by English officers, and he
himself that they would give him a
iumph over an undisciplined foe.
xt for the war was an incursion made
: of Kurds. At the head of about
n, Abbas Mirza entered Armenia
: middle of July, while another corps
in the direction of Bagdad. On the
igust a battle took place between
d the Turks, in which the latter,
he defection of a Kurd chieftain,
ited, with the loss of fourteen pieces
1 and their baggage. Abbas was
orward towards Erzerum, and had
ached that place, when the ravages
his army compelled him to fall back
azid. The army which marched
agdad had, meanwhile, taken pos-
Bassora. The contest was conti-
the following year, without any
advantage being gained on either
eace was at length concluded, on the
uly, under the mediation of Great
y which the two powers were replaced
ne situation as before this bootless
ndertaken.

ras soon committed to a contest with
rmidable enemy than the Porte. By
y of Gulistan, the boundary line
he two states had, with gross impo-
e part of the weaker power, been left
ly defined. It is probable that Russia
ived that it should be so: it is certain,
hat she availed herself of it to make a
ncroachments; at the same time studi-
ying, for years, to come to an arrange-
had it not been for one circumstance,
d, perhaps, not have been so long
especially as General Yermoloff, when
or to Persia, in 1817, had given serious
y his insolent demeanour. Abbas
s in some measure dependent on the
of the emperor Alexander, on whom
to secure for him the throne, to the
of an elder brother. But the death
rother, by which Abbas became sole
destructive of the Russian influence.
ationary movements which took place
cession of the emperor Nicholas, also
he shah to believe, that he might
pon a war against Russia, with a
access. Abbas, likewise, was now
o put a stop to Muscovite usurpa-
the whole people were clamorous for
.

For a moment there appeared to be a chance that peace might be preserved. The shah began to hesitate, and would have been satisfied with a trifling concession. The emperor Nicholas had sent Prince Menzikoff to Teheran, to announce his accession to the throne; and the Persian government hoped that he might be authorized to settle the differences between the two countries. But this hope was soon blighted. Menzikoff would not consent to the evacuation of even a small portion of the usurped territory, and a Russian force now advanced to within the Persian boundaries. The shah was therefore compelled to resort to arms: the obstinacy of his encroaching neighbour, and the indignant clamours of his own subjects, left him no other alternative.

Circumstances occurred, at this period, which were of great advantage to the Persians. Yermoloff, who commanded in the Georgian provinces, had acted with such horrible barbarity, that all the inhabitants of Daghistan, Shirvan, and Shekee, rose in arms against his tyranny. They cut off the scattered Russian detachments, and made themselves masters of Askeran, Lankeran, and other places. In July, 1826, Prince Abbas Mirza took the field, at the head of about 45,000 men, of whom 12,000 were disciplined after the European manner. While the prince was on his march, the Persian sirdar of Erivan had not been idle; he had taken Goomree, Gochka, Balikloo, Aberan, and Karakalissa, and made prisoners several hundred Russians. On his arrival at the scene of action, Abbas defeated a Russian detachment, in the pass of Kunjerik: 1200 men were killed, and the rest compelled to surrender. He then advanced to Sheesha, took possession of the town, and invested its mountain fort, which was defended by 2000 men, who were scantily supplied with provisions.

Yermoloff had, meanwhile, drawn together his scattered divisions, in order to make head against the invaders. The whole of his force was about 42,000 men; nearly equal in number to their antagonists, and better disciplined than were the best of the Persian troops. This soon became obvious. Early in September, Abbas dispatched his son Mahommed Mirza, with 10,000 men, and 6 field-pieces, towards Teflis. On his way thither, Mahommed was met by General Mududoff, and entirely defeated, with considerable loss. This was followed by a worse disaster. Abbas Mirza, on hearing of his son's discomfiture, marched towards Teflis, to recover the lost ground. But, near Elizabethpol, he was met by Paskevitsch, and a battle ensued, which ended in the slaughter of 2000 Persians, and the dispersion of the vanquished, who betook themselves to their homes, after having plundered the camp and the military chest. By dint of great exertion another army was collected to check the progress of the victors. The approach of winter suspended military operations; and the antagonist armies re-

mained separated from each other by the river Arras, the ancient Araxes.

The efforts of Great Britain to reconcile the contending parties having failed, the war was recommenced in the spring of 1827. Yermoloff had been displaced from the command of the Russian army, and succeeded by General Paskevitsch, who had about 75,000 men under him. The Persian army, led by Abbas Mirza, is said to have been swelled to 120,000 men; but this estimate is certainly much exaggerated, and most of the troops were irregulars. The campaign was opened by Benkendorf, one of Paskevitsch's seconds, who took Etchmeadzin, and formed an incomplete investment of Erivan. The approach of the Persian army, however, compelled him to relinquish the latter enterprise. Paskevitsch now laid siege to the fortress of Abasabad; while Abbas Mirza, on his part, advanced towards the Araxes, with the intention of relieving the place. But Paskevitsch anticipated his antagonist, crossed the Araxes, and defeated the Persian army, though not without considerable difficulty. The possession of Abbasabad, the garrison of which might still have resisted, was the fruit of this victory.

Abbas, though vanquished, was not discouraged. He collected his scattered forces, harassed the enemy greatly, and, in August, routed a division of 4000 Russian infantry, and 2000 horse, under General Krasososky. But these minor successes were of little weight in the scale of warfare; and the efforts of Abbas were counteracted by circumstances which were beyond his control; the ranks of Paskevitsch's army were swelled by constant reinforcements; and, besides, the disaffection of the Armenians facilitated all the plans and movements of the Muscovite invader. On hearing of this check, Paskevitsch concentrated all his forces, and compelled the Persian prince to fall back behind the Araxes. As a preliminary to a regular attack on Erivan, he besieged, in the latter end of September, the fortress of Sardarabad. It held out only four days. In the night of the 7th of October, he opened his trenches before Erivan; and, on the 13th, mainly through the cowardice or treachery of the inhabitants, he became master of the city. The fall of this fortress spread consternation among the Persian forces, which now began to melt away from their leader like snow in the sun. Flushed with success, the victor pushed forward into the province of Azerbijan, and bent his course to Tabriz, the capital. It submitted to his advanced guard, and he made his triumphal entrance into the place on the last day of October.

Pressed by the British envoy to avert the impending danger, and despairing to find the means of resistance, the shah at length consented to negotiate. The terms granted were such as might be expected from a conqueror who supposed his enemy to be at his feet:—the payment of a large sum of money, the cession of a considerable territory, and the temporary occupation of the whole province of Azerbijan till all the rest of the articles were executed which were demanded by Paskevitsch. It is hardly to be imagined that the shah could unreluctantly submit to such hard conditions. On the contrary, after many delays, he at last required that, previously to concluding a treaty, the Russian troops should evacuate Azerbijan, and retire behind the Araxes. The only reply to this requisition was a forward movement of the Russian army, and the capture of the cities of Urmiah and Ardebil. Finding that it was impossible to resist the torrent which was bearing down upon him, the shah succumbed, and, on the 21st of February, 1828, a treaty of peace was signed at Turkomanshee. By this humiliating conquest, Persia agreed to cede to Russia the khanats of Nakshivan and Erivan, and the greater part of Talish, and to pay the sum of 5,000,000 of tomans, for the expenses of the war.

The unfortunate issue of the war, and the heavy sums levied upon them to pay for their own discomfiture, rankled deeply in the hearts of the Persians. Nor was the conduct of M. Gribedeioff, the Russian envoy at Teheran, at all calculated to soothe their wounded feelings; it was insufferably haughty and overbearing. Having seized two women, under the pretext that they were Russian subjects, he confined them in his own mansion, where they are said to have been treated in the most brutal manner by the soldiers of his guard. Escaping from durance, the women ran about the streets, crying out loudly for vengeance. A mob was speedily formed, which proceeded to the house of the envoy, uttering exclamations of disgust and hatred. There they were fired upon by the Cossacks, and six of them were killed. Each of the six bodies was taken to a different mosque, and exposed to public view; the Mollahs, at the same time, calling upon all true Mussulmans to avenge the victims. The call was not made in vain; thousands of the populace flocked to the envoy's house, forced their way into it over the bodies of its defenders, and put to death the envoy and all his suite, with the exception of four persons. As soon as the shah heard of the attack, he and his son hastened to the house, with a detachment of troops; but they were too late—the work of death was completed. Embarrassed beyond measure by this fatal event, the shah instantly dispatched a messenger to Count Paskevitsch, to apprise him of it, disavowed any participation in the crime, and announced his intention of sending a special embassy to the emperor Nicholas, to offer any satisfaction which that monarch might require. Kosroo Mirza, a son of Prince Abbas, was subsequently dispatched to St. Petersburg on this important errand, and had the good fortune to be well received by the emperor Nicholas, who declared his conviction that no blame was imputable to the Persian government.

disasters which Abbas Mirza had in the north, some compensation, r no means an adequate one, was o him by his subsequent success in Aided by the counsel and valour of gentleman, he made himself master Koorshish, and Khabooshan, and re- obedience the rebellious chiefs of nce. Some accession of strength to ment was also acquired, by the shah ; his own sons to nearly all the nts: thus diminishing the power long been exercised and abused by of tribes.

reign, by no means glorious, of years, Futteh Ali died in 1834. His son, Abbas Mirza, had descended to before him. After the death of Fut- fore, a contest for the crown took ween his descendants, and Persia haps, have long been deluged with not Great Britain and Russia inter- put an end to the strife. By their the present sovereign, Shah Moham- on of Abbas Mirza, was placed upon e. It soon appeared that all his was reserved for Russia. To forward of that power against the British s in India, Mohammed, in 1838, the siege of Herat. In this enter- was aided with money from, and i by the presence of, Count Simo- e Muscovite ambassador. It was in Mr. Macneil, our envoy at Tehe- ran, remonstrated against this measure; not merely were his remonstrances disregarded, but one of his messengers was seized, stripped, and carried to the Persian camp, where he was subjected to the most insulting treatment. Kamran, the chief who ruled at Herat, de- fended himself with great vigour; but he would probably have succumbed at last, had not the British envoy given notice to the shah, that the continuance of the siege would be consi- dered as a direct act of hostility against Eng- land. As Mohammed was aware that a British force was about to march for Affghanistan, he submitted, and drew off his army, after having been four months before the town. But, though he yielded on this point, he obstinately refused to give satisfaction on others. The result was, that Mr. Macneil quitted the court of Teheran, all diplomatic relations with Per- sia were suspended, and a British armament was sent into the Persian Gulf, which took possession of the island of Karrack. After long hesitation, however, the shah made the required concessions, and amity was restored between Great Britain and Persia. Whether it will be lasting may reasonably be doubted.

The shah has very recently (1842) issued a hostile manifesto against Turkey, and some unimportant encounters have taken place on the frontier. But England and other powers have intervened to prevent the calamities of war from spreading further, and it is probable that their praiseworthy exertions will be crowned with success.

EASTERN OR INDEPENDENT PERSIA.

naive tract of country to which we denomination was once a portion of n empire, when that empire was in ing state; but it has long ceased to ent on it. It formed the largest ancient Ariana; but does not now ie territory on the western bank of . Its western limit may be defined drawn from about 50 miles west of Cape Jask; on the south, it is y the Indian Ocean, from Cape Jask er Pubb; from the river Pubb, its ontier runs parallel with the Indus, but at some distance from it, by the Brahooick and Suliman mountains, till it touches the In- dus below Kala Bagh, after which it follows the course of the stream to Attock; to the north, it is walled in by that immense chain of mountains, which, under various names, as Hindoo Coosh, &c., &c., forms a continuation of the lofty Himalayan range. It extends from the 25th to the 35th degree of north latitude, and from the 58th to the 70th degree of east longitude, and is divided into two parts, Aff- ghanistan and Beloochistan.

AFFGHANISTAN.

of Affghanistan is derived from the d is not recognised by the natives of y which is so called. They deno- emselves Pooshtoon, in the plural Pooshtanneh, from the corruption of which is supposed to be derived the term Peitan, or Patan, by which they are known in India. According to their own traditions, they believe themselves

to be descended from the Jews. Neamet Ullah, a historian who wrote in the 16th century, derives them from Affghan, the grandson of Saul, king of Israel, whose posterity being carried away at the time of the captivity, was settled by the conqueror in the mountains of Ghori, Cabul, Candahar, and Ghizni. It is probable, however, that the tradition and the narrative of the historian are equally devoid of foundation.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, about	560	between	61. and 72. E. long.
Breadth, about	500	between	28. and 35. N. lat.

Containing about 280,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES.—On the north, Affghanistan is bounded by the Hindoo Coosh, and other lofty ranges of mountains; on the west by Persia; on the south by Beloochistan; and on the east by the mountains of Suliman and the Indus.

DIVISIONS.—Affghanistan may be considered as consisting of four principal divisions, Cabul, Candahar, Peshawur, and Herat. Peshawur, which lies between Cabul and the Indus, was subjected by Runjeet Sing, the late ruler of the Seiks, who, however, allowed Mohammed Khan, the brother of Dost Mohammed of Cabul, to retain his authority. Herat, to the west of Cabul, is, in fact, part of the Persian province of Khorasan, and for some time paid tribute to Persia; but it is now independent of that power, and is governed by Kamran, a descendant of the former sovereigns of Affghanistan. These divisions are subdivided into several provinces, which are inhabited by about fifty tribes; of which the following are the names and sites. EASTERN DIVISION.—*Berdooranies*, Eussuffzehees, Otmankheil, Turkolanees, Peshawur tribes, Khyberees, Bungush, Khuttuk. *Neighbourhood of Salt Range*, Essaukheil, Sheotuks, Bunnooses, Dower, Khoostees. *Tribes of Daman*, Dowlutkheil, Meankheil Baboors, Stooreeanees, Gundepoor. CENTRAL DIVISION (including mountain tribes).—Jaujees, Toorees, Jadrans, Vizerees, Murheils, Moonakheil, Zmurrees, Sheeranees, Speen Tereens. WESTERN DIVISION.—*Dooranees* (*Zeruk*), Populzehee, Allekkozehee, Baurikzehee, Atchikzehee (*Punjpaw*), Noorzehee, Alizehee, Iskhakzehee, Khougance, Makoo. *Ghiljees* (*Tooran*), Hotukee, Tokhee, (*Boorhan*), Solymankheil, Alikheil, Under, and Turrukhee. To this division also belong the Sheerpah, Kharotee, Wurduks, Baraiches, and Tor Tereens. The paramount tribes are the Dooranees; but the Eussuffzehee, or Berdooranee tribes, who are said to amount to 700,000, are the most haughty, insolent, and turbulent. Many of them are remarkable for their plundering propensities; and among these the Khyberees hold a prominent place.

MOUNTAINS.—Affghanistan may, in general, be considered as an elevated table land, intersected with numerous narrow valleys, and walled in on the north by the Hindoo Coosh mountains, and on the east by the Sulimun range. The Hindoo Coosh chain rises from above the level of Peshawur in four distinct ranges; the last of which may always be seen from a distance of 100 miles, and sometimes of 150, and are perpetually covered with snow. The passes into Balkh run through the valleys of these hills, and can be traversed only in summer and early autumn. This chain is the ancient Paropamisus. The Sulimun chain traverses the whole frontier, parallel to the Indus, towards which it has a rapid descent. There are considerable groups of hills in other parts of the country. The defiles, especially those of Khoord Cabul, Khyber, &c. are all but impenetrable by an army.

RIVERS AND LAKES.—The streams of Affghanistan are numerous; but the principal rivers are the Cabul river, and the Helmund, the first of which flows to the east, and the second to the west, though both of them rise in the same northern range of mountains, and not far from each other. Among the tributary streams which the Cabul receives are the Ghorebund, Punsheer, and Kama, after which it falls into the Indus, about three miles above Attock. After a course of 200 miles through a mountainous district, the Helmund, the Etymandrus of the ancients, crosses the western desert, and falls into Lake Hamoon. The only important tributary which it receives is the Urghundab, which consists of three streams from the mountains to the west of Candahar. Like the Nile, the Helmund has periodical inundations, which fertilize its borders. Most of the streams are much diminished by being applied to irrigation. The lakes are the Hamoon or Zurrah, on the Persian frontier, and the Abistadi, to the south of Ghizni.

METALS, MINERALS, &c.—The geology and mineralogy of this country are as yet but imperfectly known. Mines of lead and iron are wrought, though probably to no great extent; and rock-salt of the finest quality is produced in the north-west. In the mountains there are whole cliffs, consisting of lapis lazuli. The quantity of silver is trifling; nor is there much gold, it being found only in some of the torrents from the northern range of mountains. The process of collecting this gold, from the Cabul river, was witnessed by the late lamented Sir A. Burnes. "On the banks of the river the villagers," says he, "were washing the sands for gold in the usual manner, the operation being carried on in wooden trays. I heard from them, that in the Oxus and its tributaries it is usual to spread out and fix hunky sheep skins in the bed of the river; and the water, as it passes over them, leaves the pure particles of gold, free from extraneous substances; the skins are then dried in the sun, and the precious metal collected from them."

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—The climate

yet, on the whole, is healthy. ld is excessive; and at Pesha- ıe most eastern part of the t lasts with great severity till March. Yet, in July, at the thermometer, in the shade, ees. These extremes of tem- cently proved very trying to . Sepoy troops. The south- ı sets in about the end of ı Affghanistan, though with ıce than in Hindostan. The ı occasional visiter in the hot ıtry, and is not unfrequently of Western Affghanistan is ted to pasturage; the land ıleak, which unfits it for til- quarters, the valleys are fre- The finest fruits of Europe ş wild in many places. Good ıed of wheat, barley, rice, ilet, pulse, tobacco, and all ıs; and dates, ginger, sugar- ıd cotton are cultivated in the

ep form the principal farming a handsome breed, and, like led the Cape sheep, they have broad, consisting of solid fat. ıbundance of goats, dogs, and silky hair. Horses are also ten excellent; but asses are in agriculture. The camel, predominant beast of burden. wild animals, the lion is l; the bear mostly confines mountains; tigers and leo- in the eastern parts; and and foxes, are generally dif-

IOSITIES.—Among these may defiles in the mountains, the h is a work of infinite toil, nall danger. This our gallant ıtly found to their cost. Sir ıs gives the following striking ı difficulty which he encoun- his way through the Kyber aided by the natives. "We hed our camp," says he, "in and below Ali Musjed, and in the river, when the rolling ıice of rain, and it soon came ents as must have washed us , had it not been for the great wn people, and the assistance he Khyberees. Tents, boxes, ere dragged by main force up the defiles on which we were main, drenched to the skin, out shelter, and by no means te of mind which would have oy the sublimity of the scene undoubtedly was—the water it down the bed of the pass, id everything before it, whilst waterfalls in all directions and of all hues came rushing down around us, some of them in an unbroken fall of more than 300 feet—all of these bursting out, one after another, from unseen crevices in the towering rocks by which we were surrounded."

POPULATION, MILITARY FORCE, &c. — The population can only be conjectured. When Mr. Elphinstone visited the country, he estimated the number of inhabitants at 8,000,000. Some accounts raise the amount to 14,000,000, which is doubtless an exaggeration. In the latest edition of his work, Balbi reduces it to 5,700,000. The revenue, raised by a land-tax, is about £2,000,000 per annum. The military force is supposed to be above 30,000, of whom nearly one half are Gholaums, or military adventurers. Of the rest, a majority are Dooranees, brave highland troops, each of whom, like the Scottish clansmen of old, fights under the banner of his own chieftain. The force consists chiefly of horsemen, and swords and matchlocks are their arms.

CHIEF TOWNS, &c. — Cabul, which stands 6000 feet above the level of the sea, is situated on a fertile plain, watered by the Cabul river and other streams, and surrounded on three sides by low hills, completely overlooking the place. The city is enclosed within walls, which, however, are of little use for defence. Some of the houses are of brick, but the major part are of wood, chat material being better calculated than more solid materials to avoid the consequences of earthquakes, which frequently occur. On the summit of a hill is a sort of citadel, called the Bala Hissar, and on the slope of the hill is the royal palace. Above this eminence, and commanding both it and the city, is another, crowned by a fort, and containing also a palace. The streets of the town are narrow, dirty, and irregular, and the houses high and flat-roofed. The principal bazaars run in an east and west direction; and the best of them passes nearly through the centre of the place. The latter is a spacious broad street, of two-story houses, is covered over with a flat roof, and is broken into three or four divisions, by small squares, which are open above, and have entrances right and left from the adjacent streets. On a hill near the city, whence there is a noble prospect, is the tomb of the emperor Baber. The population of Cabul is estimated by Burnes at 60,000.

Ghizni, or Ghuznee, is lamentably fallen off in importance from what it was, when it was the capital of an empire which extended from the Tigris to the Ganges. At present it does not contain more than 1500 mean dwellings, and about 16,000 inhabitants. It stands upon a hill, on the summit of which, 6000 feet above the level of the sea, is the citadel. Ghizni is surrounded by a mud wall, containing an area of about two miles. About a mile from the present town are the ruins of the old city, and the two minarets of Mahmood, each more than 100 feet high. About three miles off is the tomb

of Sultan Mahmood, a spacious structure, covered with a cupola, and having gates of sandal-wood, which were brought by Mahmood from the Hindoo temple of Somonaut in Guzerat.

Candahar, which stands on the site of ancient cities, was founded by Ahmed Shah, in 1754, who made it his capital. It is situated at the foot of the valley of the Turnuk, and is encompassed on three sides by hills. It forms a rather irregular oblong square, and has a mud wall, 33 feet high, with 62 towers, and a ditch 10 feet deep, and 26 wide. The citadel forms an inner quadrangle of 200 yards. From a gate, opening midway on each side of the town, proceed four streets, each 50 yards wide, which meet in the centre, in a circular space, about 50 yards in diameter, and crowned by a dome. This space, called the Sharshee, is surrounded by shops. The smaller streets cross each other at right angles, and are narrow, but straight; and through almost every street runs a small stream. The tomb of Ahmed Shah, which is an inviolable asylum for criminals, has a gilt cupola, and stands near the royal palace. "The houses of the rich," says Major Hough, "are enclosed by high walls, and contain three or four courts, with gardens and fountains. Each court contains a building with several small apartments, and three or four large halls, reaching to the roof, supported by wooden pillars, carved and painted. The apartments open on the halls, and are fitted up with paintings on the walls, and looking-glasses let into the recesses. In the houses of the rich, the walls are plastered with a kind of stucco, made of chunam, divided into compartments, which are ornamented with flowery patterns, impressed on the stucco by means of a wooden stamp, and then covered over with talkh, which gives a silvery but neat appearance to the room. The recesses are of plain stucco, and contain glasses or other ornaments. The ceilings are either painted, or formed of many small pieces of wood, carved, and fitting into each other, and varnished. The houses of the common people are of one story, and usually of a single room about 20 by 12 feet; they have little ornament, and scarcely any furniture." The population is generally estimated at 100,000 souls; but some accounts make it only 25,000; the latter estimate is, however, manifestly underrated. Major Hough represents the principal streets as being "usually crowded" from morning till sunset.

Jellalabad, which lies nearly midway between Cabul and Peshawur, is worthy of notice only for the late gallant defence of it by General Sale. It is a very small, poor, and dirty town, consisting of about 400 houses, enclosed within a dilapidated mud wall, and standing nearly in the centre of a plain.

Peshawur, on the north-west verge of Affghanistan, stands on the slope of a gentle eminence, which rises out of a nearly circular *plain, about* 35 miles in diameter. It has a circumference of 5 miles, and is said to contain 100,000 inhabitants. Many of the houses are three stories high, and built of pucka brick. The principal bazaar descends from east to west, is half a mile long, and has many good shops, filled with the produce of India and Khorasan. The environs of the city are picturesque, from the numbers of gardens and fine trees, and the Persian wheels, which are constantly at work to raise water for irrigation.

Herat is situated on the north-western frontier of Affghanistan, at no great distance from Persia. It occupies an area of four miles, in the midst of an extensive and fertile valley, and is enclosed by a lofty mud wall and ditch, with drawbridges and outworks. "From the Charsu, a large square in its centre, proceed bazaars at right angles to the four respective gates, the principal one being covered with a vaulted roof; and these, on market-days, are scarcely passable for the crowd. Among the numerous public buildings, the Musjed e Jumah stands conspicuous, with its domes and minarets, once ornamented superbly, but now going to decay, though it still covers with its reservoirs, courts, and arcades, an area 800 yards square. Herat is said to have 100,000 inhabitants. It carries on a considerable traffic, and has some manufactures, among which are those of rose-water, and sabres celebrated for their excellence.

Commerce, &c. — The commerce of Affghanistan is very limited, and is carried on by caravans; it is principally with India. The exports are horses, furs, shawls, tobacco, and fruits; the imports are muslins, cottons, ivory, indigo, tin, wax, sugar, and spices. Now that the navigation of the Indus is unrestricted, it may be expected that, as soon as the present disturbed state of affairs is settled, British enterprise will be enabled to open new and valuable markets in Central Asia.

Inhabitants — Manners — Customs.—The character of the Affghans is thus delineated by Mr. Elphinstone. "I find it difficult," says he, "to select those great features which all possess in common, and which give a marked national character to the whole of the Affghans. This difficulty is increased by the fact, that those qualities which distinguish them from all their neighbours are by no means the same which, without reference to such a comparison, would appear to Europeans to predominate in their character. The freedom, which forms their great distinction among the nations of the East, might seem to an Englishman a mixture of anarchy and arbitrary power; and the manly virtues that raise them above their neighbours, might sink in his estimation almost to the level of the opposite defects. It may therefore assist in appreciating their situation and character, to figure the aspects they would present to a traveller from England, and to one from India.

"If a man could be transported from England to the Affghan country, without passing through the dominions of Turkey, Persia, or Tartary,

amazed at the wild and unfre-
ts, and the mountains covered
snow. Even in the cultivated
untry he would discover a wild
hills and wastes, unmarked by
: embellished by trees, and des-
ible canals, public roads, and all
elaborate productions of human
refinement. He would find the
d far distant from each other;
look in vain for inns or other
which a traveller would meet
rildest parts of Great Britain.
ometimes be delighted with the
opulousness of particular plains
ere he would see the productions
gled in profusion with those of
, and the land laboured with an
s judgment nowhere surpassed.
the inhabitants following their
s, or assembled in villages, to
aced roofs and mud walls give an
irely new. He would be struck at
high and even harsh features,
ned countenances, their long
ose garments, and their shaggy
is. When he entered into the so-
d notice the absence of regular
ce, and of everything like an or-
. He would be surprised at the
l instability of the civil institu-
ld find it difficult to comprehend
ould subsist in such disorder; and
ise who were compelled to pass
such a scene, and whose minds
by their unhappy situation to
ence, to rapine, deceit, and re-
would scarce fail to admire their
ifty spirit, their hospitality, and
simple manners, equally removed
leness of a citizen and the awk-
of a clown; and he would, pro-
long discover, among so many
excited his disgust, the rudiments
s.

glish traveller from India would
h a more favourable eye. He
ed with the cold climate, elevated
ld novel scenery, and delighted
iany of the productions of his
He would first be struck with the
fixed population, and then with
e of the people; not fluttering in
s, while half their bodies are
erly and decently attired in dark-
len clothes, and wrapped up in
s, or in large sheep-skin cloaks.
ire their strong and active forms,
lexions and European features;
and enterprise; the hospitality,
contempt of pleasure, which
their habits; and, above all, the
and energy of their character.
ould have left a country where
nt originates in the government
and where the people absolutely
go for nothing; and he would find himself among a nation where the control of the government is scarcely felt, and where every man appears to pursue his own inclination undirected and unrestrained. Amidst the stormy independence of this mode of life, he would regret the ease and security in which the state of India, and even the indolence and timidity of its inhabitants, enable most part of that country to repose. He would meet with many productions of art and nature that do not exist in India; but, in general, he would find the arts of life less advanced, and many of the luxuries of Hindostan unknown. On the whole, his impression of his new acquaintances would be favourable; although he would feel, that without having lost the ruggedness of a barbarous nation, they were tainted with the vices common to all Asiatics. Yet he would reckon them virtuous, compared with the people to whom he had been accustomed, would be inclined to regard them with interest and kindness, and could hardly deny them a portion of his esteem."

The hospitality to which Mr. Elphinstone alludes is, indeed, carried to a great length. The phrase of reproach to a niggardly man is, that "he has nothing of the Affghan in him." An Affghan can receive no greater affront than to have his guest invited to another dwelling. Even his bitterest enemy is safe when beneath his roof; but, as soon as that enemy has got to a distance, he is again exposed to be robbed by his recent protector. On the other hand, the same Affghan who would plunder a traveller of his cloak, if he had one, would give him a cloak if he had none. So far does the sacred duty of hospitality extend, that there exists in the country a singular custom named Nannawautee, which means, "I have come in." A person who wants a favour granted goes to the tent or house of an individual, and refuses to sit on his carpet, or partake of his food, till the boon is bestowed; and if the party applied to be able to comply, custom makes it a point of honour for him to do so. If a woman sends her veil, and entreats assistance for herself or family, this circumstance gives her the strongest possible claim to the aid which she requires.

The Affghans have a great reverence for old age, are sociable, proud of their descent and of long genealogies, jealous of the honour of their country, and fond of dancing, horse-racing, and other active sports, and also of dinner parties, and of sitting in a circle to converse, or listen to story-tellers. "To sum up their character in a few words," says Mr. Elphinstone, "their vices are revenge, envy, avarice, rapacity, and obstinacy; on the other hand, they are fond of liberty, faithful to their friends, kind to their dependents, hospitable, brave, hardy, frugal, laborious, and prudent; and they are less disposed than the nations in their neighbourhood to falsehood, intrigue, and deceit."

GOVERNMENT.—The sovereign of Affghanistan

is a limited monarch, elective as to the person, but hereditary as to the family, and has the power of making peace or war, appointing to non-hereditary official situations, and disposing of, but not increasing, the revenue. Over all the tribes, except the Dooranees, his power extends no further than to levy troops and collect revenue; but, with respect to the Dooranees, he is, "their hereditary chief and military commander: to him all heads of tribes are bound to render the service of a horseman for every plough of land; and the officers commanding these yeomen are the civil magistrates of the country from which they are drawn. These sirdars are further employed in offices of state and emolument about court, where they acquire a taste for wealth and splendour; and the patronage thus placed in the hands of the crown forms a counterpoise to the power which the petty leaders might otherwise be disposed to turn against the sovereign." This innovation was introduced by Nadir Shah. Still, the authority of the king is very circumscribed, and he can do little without the concurrence of the Dooranee lords.

In the internal administration of the tribes the king has no share. "The tribes of Affghanistan, though at the present time infinitely subdivided, continue in a great measure unmixed, each having its separate territory, and all retaining the patriarchal form of government. The term of Ooloos is applied either to a whole tribe or to an independent branch of it. Each has its own immediate ancestor, and constitutes a complete commonwealth in itself. Each subdivision has its chief—a Speen Zeerah (literally whitebeard) or Mullik (master) if it consist of but a few families; a Khan, if it be an ooloos, who is always chosen from the oldest family. The selection of this officer rests in most cases with the king, in others with the people themselves. It is a peculiarity, however, arising probably from the internal arrangement of an Affghan tribe, that the attachment of those who compose it, unlike that of most countries, is always rather to the community than the chief; and a native holds the interests of the former so completely paramount, that the private wish of the latter would be utterly disregarded by him, if at variance with the honour of his kheil (clan) or ooloos. The internal government is carried on by the khan, in conjunction with certain assemblies of heads of divisions: such a meeting is called a Jeergs, and before it all affairs of consequence are brought for consideration. But this species of rule is liable to many modifications. In all civil actions the statutes of Mohammed are generally adhered to; but criminal justice is administered according to the Pooshtoonwullee, or usage of the Affghans—a system of law sufficiently rude. In conformity with this, private revenge, though denounced by the mollahs, is sanctioned by public opinion; and the measure of retribution, "an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth" is strictly enforced. But the evil consequences of this retaliating system, which leads to new disputes, and tends to perpetuate every quarrel, have given rise to judicial jeergas, composed of khans, elders, and mollahs, who take cognizance of criminal actions, and inflict penalties suited to each offence."

Where there is so little effective control, scenes of violence must often occur. The Affghans, however, prefer submitting to that inconvenience, rather than to a more vigorous sway. "We are content with discord," said one of them to an English traveller, "we are content with alarms, we are content with blood, but we will never be content with a master."

Religion. — The Mahometan religion is that which the Affghans profess, and they are all Sonnees. But they are far more tolerant than the Mahometans are in general. A striking proof of this is, that though in other countries, the Soonees and Shyites hate each other with an ultra-theological hatred, the Persians, who are of the latter sect, are allowed to hold important offices, under the slight restriction of abstaining from curses on the first three caliphs. Hindoos remain unmolested on paying an insignificant tax; and Christians are not persecuted, or even reproached.

But, though the Affghans are liberal in this respect, they are extremely superstitious. They are firm believers in magic, divination, charms, philtres, talismans, dreams, and the existence of ghosts and genii. They have the utmost reverence for their mollahs, or priests, and for dervises, calenders, and other persons who lay claim to saintly attributes. "So high is this respect carried, that a sovereign prince, in the presence of certain very eminent saints, will not sit down till he is entreated." As to the priests, Mr. Fraser remarks, that, though their authority is often exerted to repress violence and prevent bloodshed, they are "arrogant, overbearing, and revengeful; an affront, or even a slight, is resented in the most implacable manner; and anathemas are hurled against the offender by a whole army of furious divines, who urge the rest of the community to revenge their cause."

Language—Literature.—The language is called Pushtoo. About one half of the words are Persian; a few are said to be ancient Zend and Pehlevi, with some Sanscrit; but the remainder, and almost all the verbs and particles, are from some unknown root. There is in the language no trace of similarity to the Hebrew, Chaldaic, Georgian, or Armenian tongue. It is written in the Persian alphabet and the Nishe character, and sounds rough when spoken. There are no Pushtoo authors above 150 years old; all of them are of the poetical class, and their compositions are chiefly lyrics. The educated Affghans are generally well acquainted with Persian literature.

Antiquities.—It is in the valley of Bamian, or Bameean, that the most remarkable vestiges of antiquity are found. Through this deep and narrow defile, which is about three days journey

to the west of Cabul, runs the difficult road which leads across the Hindoo Coosh into Khoondoox. Excavations in the mountains, and some gigantic idols, are the curiosities which this valley presents to the view. For the space of eight miles in length, the sides of the mountains are excavated, and one insulated hill is quite honey-combed with caves; but it is on the northern side, where the idols are also found, that caves are the most numerous. Most of them are merely squared holes cut in the hill, but some are finished in the shape of a dome, which has a carved frieze below it. They form altogether an immense city, called the city of Ghoolgoola, and said to have been the work of a king named Julal. The greatest part of the population now dwells in these caves.

"The idols are three in number—two larger idols, a male and a female, and a smaller one. The figures are cut out in alto-relievo, on the face of the hill. The male is the largest, and is about 120 feet high; it occupies a front of 70 feet, and the niche in which it is excavated extends about that depth into the hill. The figure is much mutilated, both legs having been fractured by cannon, and the countenance above the mouth is destroyed. The lips are very large, the ears long and pendent, and there appears to have been a tiara on the head. The figure is covered by a mantle, which hangs over it in all parts, and has been formed of a kind of plaster; the hands, which hold the mantle, are broken. The female figure, which is less mutilated, is dressed in the same manner, and cut in the same hill, at the distance of 200 yards. It is about half the size of the male. The niches in which the figures stand seem to have been plastered, and ornamented with paintings of human figures, which have now disappeared from all parts except those immediately over the heads of the idols. Here the colours are as vivid, and the paintings as distinct, as in the Egyptian tombs. There is little variety in the design of these figures, which represent the bust of a woman, with a knob of hair on the head, and a plaid thrown over the chest, the whole surrounded by a halo, and the head again by another halo. The execution of the work is indifferent. There are no inscriptions on the figures; but the caves generally have Cufic inscriptions, which are of a later date than the age of Mohammed."

History.—The Affghan annals cannot be traced farther back than to about the middle of the tenth century. In 975, all the level country was conquered by Nasser ud Deen Sebuctaghi, who is said to have been originally a Tartar, in the service of the chief of Khorasan. The mountaineers, however, retained their independence. Sebuctaghi established his capital at Ghizni, and extended his conquests into India. He died in 997, and his younger son Ismael usurped the crown, to the prejudice of Mahmood, his elder brother. But the usurper was soon defeated by his brother, who detained him for life in a splendid captivity. Mahmood, one of the greatest princes of his time, became master of Khorasan and Irak, subdued Kohistan, and other adjacent states, and more than once overran India. He died in 1028, and was succeeded by his sons Mohammed and Masood. For nearly two centuries the sovereignty was held by the descendants of Sebuctaghi, to the number in the whole of fifteen, or, as others state, of seventeen princes. But, in 1159, the Ghaznevide race was expelled by Mohammed of Ghore, who descended from the ancient Affghan rulers. Mohammed burned Ghizni, and committed such atrocities that he obtained the appellation of "the incendiary of the world." Mohammed was the founder of the Ghauride dynasty, which, however, existed but for about sixty years, when it was overthrown by the monarch of Kharism. The Kharismian sovereigns, in their turn, were dethroned by Genghis Khan, whose successors appear to have held possession of the country till after the death of Tamerlane. The anarchy which, after his decease, succeeded in the states of Tamerlane, enabled the Affghans to recover their independence. They retained it till 1506, when Baber, a descendant of Tamerlane, obtained possession of the government, mainly through the good-will of the people, who were tired of the constant disturbances and bloodshed which were caused by the pretensions of rival chieftains. In 1526, Baber became monarch of Hindostan, and from that period till the death of Aurungzebe, Affghanistan, with the exception of Candahar, continued to form a part of the Mogul empire.

Soon after the commencement of the 18th century, events began to occur in Candahar, which ultimately raised the Affghans, for a while, to a degree of power such as they had not for a long time possessed. The principal actor in these events was Meer Vais, the head of an Affghan tribe, a man of bravery and of popular manners. In 1709, availing himself of the hatred excited in the minds of his countrymen, by the tyranny and exactions of Gurghin Khan, the Persian governor of Candahar, Meer, after having taken the most prudent precautions to ensure success, attacked Gurghin by surprise, slew him, and made himself master of Candahar. He defeated, in various encounters, the Persian forces which were sent to reduce him to obedience; but, at length, in 1711, a formidable army, under Khosrow Khan, obtained a slight advantage over him, and formed the siege of Candahar. He, however, succeeded in utterly destroying it; and he was equally fortunate, two years later, against Mohammed Rustan Khan, another Persian leader. The result of the last battle was, that all the remaining towns and strongholds of the province acknowledged the sovereign authority which he had assumed. He died, in his new kingdom, in 1715.

Meer Mahmood, the son of Meer Vais, being

scarcely eighteen years old, Vais was succeeded by his brother, Meer Abdallah, a man ill qualified to fill the station to which he was raised. The first step which he took excited disgust and anger; for he entered into a negotiation to make the province again dependent on Persia. Enraged at the idea of being robbed of a crown, Meer Mahmood, with a party of friends, made himself master of the palace, and put his uncle Abdallah to death. He was immediately recognised as monarch by the people. At the same period, the Affghan tribes in the north-west threw off the Persian yoke, and established an independent government in Herat and the neighbouring country, under their victorious leader Ezadallah.

As a preliminary to a more serious attack upon the Persian empire, Meer Mahmood undertook, with 10,000 men, an expedition against the province of Kerman. Notwithstanding all the precautions which he had taken, he lost 2000 men, and numbers of his beasts of burden, in his fifteen days' march across the dreary desert of Seistan. He, nevertheless, took possession of Kerman, the capital of the province; and might, perhaps, have retained it, had he not alienated the inhabitants by his cruelty and extortion. Their disaffection, and the approach of a Persian force, compelled him to retire within his own territory.

The toil which he had met with did not discourage Mahmood. Circumstances also arose which favoured his projects. Persia was assailed by enemies in various quarters, and her sovereign was not a man qualified to steer the vessel of state in a stormy season. By dint of presents and promises, Mahmood collected an army of 25,000 Affghans and Beloochies; and early in January 1722, he once more bent his way towards the capital of Kerman. The city submitted, but the citadel stubbornly held out, and Mahmood was beginning to be embarrassed, when he was relieved by the governor offering to pay a considerable sum of money, on condition that the Affghan prince would raise the siege. Mahmood embraced the welcome offer, and pushed forward on the road to Ispahan. Rejecting a proposal to accept a large sum to desist from advancing, he continued his progress, and, in the beginning of March, encamped at Gulnabad, about three leagues from the capital. There, soon after, a battle was fought, which terminated in the utter discomfiture of the Persians, 15,000 of whom were stretched lifeless on the field. Ispahan was speedily invested by the victor. It held out for seven months, and was not surrendered till it had suffered all the horrors of famine. The unfortunate Shah Hussein was forced to resign his crown, and was placed in confinement, and Mahmood became the sovereign of Persia.

The victor held his new dignity but little more than two years. At first, he acted the part of a wise prince, by displaying clemency and justice. But an entire change soon took place in him. There can, indeed, be no doubt that the change was occasioned by insanity. He at times shed the blood of thousands with the coolest barbarity, and then resorted to penances of the severest kind. He was next assailed by frenzy fits, his body was covered with leprosy, and his flesh seemed to be decaying from his bones. While he was in one of his fits, which had lasted seven days—a fit so terrible that he tore his flesh with his teeth, and was on the point of expiring from his wounds—he was assassinated, in April 1725, in the 27th year of his age.

His cousin and successor Ashruff, at whose instigation Mahmood was murdered, had all the cruelty of the late sovereign, without the excuse of insanity. During a part of his reign, of five years, he was engaged in war against the Turks, with whom he was at length forced to sign a disadvantageous peace. In 1729 and 1730 he was thrice defeated by the celebrated Tamas Kouli Khan, the general of his rival Shah Tamasp, and was driven out of Persia. After having wandered for some time in Seistan, he was recognised and slain by a Beloochi, who cut off his head, and sent it to Shah Tamasp. Thus terminated the Affghan domination over the Persian empire.

The invasion of Persia was retaliated upon Affghanistan by Nadir Shah, who reduced Cabul and Candahar, on his way to Delhi, and, before he quitted India, obtained from the incapable Mogul emperor, Mohammed, the cession of all the provinces to the west of the Indus. But his death, in 1747, broke the tie which held the recently conquered provinces. On the day after the murder of Nadir, Ahmed Khan Abdallee, a gallant soldier, the head of the Dooranee tribe, and who commanded a body of Affghans and Usbecs, had a sharp but indecisive conflict with the Persians. He succeeded in fighting his way through Khorasan, and reached Candahar with about 3000 horse, where he seized upon a treasure, which was coming from India for Nadir. Ahmed was only 23, but his courage, talents, and influence were so great that, in October 1747, he was raised to the throne at Candahar. He soon won the good will of all the tribes; and, in order to give them a powerful motive for concord, he resolved to occupy them in schemes of conquest. India, rich, open to invasion, and ruled by a feeble government, was the first object of his attack. His first irruption into India took place in 1748; and, in the course of the next fourteen years, it was five times repeated. Multan, Lahore, and Cashmere, were added to his dominions by these invasions; Delhi was taken by him; and, had he pleased, he might have seated himself on the throne of the Mogul. In India, the Mahrattas were his most formidable opponents; but he repeatedly routed them, with great slaughter, especially at the battle of Panipat, in 1760, in which their army was nearly annihilated. In other quarters Ahmed was also successful; so that, at the time of his death, in

extended from Khorasan to Sir-
unjab, and from the Oxus to the

, which Ahmed had raised into
his talents and activity, was en-
e weakness and indolence of Ti-
is son and successor. Timur
y years, during which the power
was continually undermined, and
id conspiracies were frequent.
mpolitic measures was the re-
seat of government from Canda-
Dooranee country, to Cabul, in
city he hoped to find more sub-
:ts. On his decease, in 1793, Shah
of his younger sons, was placed
, to the prejudice of Humayoon,
ier. Humayoon proclaimed him-
Candahar, but was defeated and
ut; and Mahmood, another bro-
d established himself at Herat,
in attempts against Zemaun, in
1799, and was ultimately com-
refuge in Persia. Zemaun, who
ent and courage, might have
lested, had he not wasted his re-
emes of conquest in India, and
partisans by neglect, or, still
imony and cruelty. His projects
gave such alarm to the British
n that country, that it sent an
frontier, and negotiated an alli-
sia, to frustrate them. A conspi-
st organized against him, in 1800,
an, one of the chiefs of the Bau-
who succeeded in deposing him,
ahmood to the throne. Zemaun
into the hands of Futteh Khan,
is eyes, and sent him a prisoner

ed in attempts to overthrow Mah-
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Mulk, a younger brother of Ze-
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803. For five years he reigned in
t; but, in 1808, the restless spirit
is, and his imprudently neglect-
ite some of his powerful subjects,
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rgents he was victorious; but, in
year, he was twice defeated, and
mpelled to take refuge in the ter-
ajeet Sing. By the inhospitable
is plundered and ill treated; and
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he British dominions. He settled
, and a pension for his subsistence
y the government.

as voluptuary Mahmood was now
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e exertions he had been restored.
ruling, yet indignant at being
od resolved to destroy the vizir,
nded in his proposal by his son
ey began by putting out his eyes;
an act of barbarity which excited an insurrection, at the head of which were all the brothers of Futteh Khan. Unable to stem the tide of popular indignation, Mahmood and his son deliberately cut the vizir to pieces, and then fled privately to Herat.

A long anarchy succeeded, during which the only real possessor of authority was Azeem Khan, the eldest of the many brothers of the deceased Futteh Khan, and chief of the Baurikzehees. The fugitive dastard Mahmood had a brother named Ayoob, who seems to have been worthy of the relationship. While the chiefs were in debate as to who should be chosen to rule, Ayoob entered the tent of Azeem, and sued in the most despicable manner for the dangerous dignity. "Make me but king," said he, "and the whole power and resources of the kingdom shall be yours; give me but the title of king, and I will be contented with bread." The degrading prayer was granted: Ayoob became the pageant monarch, and Azeem reigned under the title of vizir.

While Affghanistan was thus internally torn to pieces, Runjeet Sing was busily employed in narrowing its limits. He expelled the Affghans from the Punjab, conquered Cashmere, Leia, and Dere Ghazee Khan, and, crossing the Indus, compelled Peshawur to become tributary. In 1823, he again passed the Indus, and, at Nouskeeo, on the northern bank of the Cabul river, a sanguinary battle took place with the Affghans, who were headed by Azeem Khan, and his brother Dost Mohammed Khan. After a hard struggle the Affghans were overcome; and this defeat so preyed upon the spirit of Azeem Khan that he did not long survive it.

After the decease of Azeem Khan, a violent contention for the sirdarship of Cabul took place between his sons and their uncle Dost Mahommed. To such a height was it carried, that daily battles occurred in the streets. Fearing for his safety, and perhaps tired of playing the phantom of a king, Ayoob sought a refuge in Lahore. Eventually, all power became vested in the relatives of Futteh Khan, the victim of Mahmood, and his son Kamran. "Thus, in only seventy-six years, was the great Dooranee monarchy overturned and dismembered. Dost Mohammed Khan ruled in Cabul; Shere Dil Khan, Pore Dil Khan, and Siaheem Dil Khan, (other brothers of Futteh Khan,) established their joint authority at Candahar; Sooltan Mahommed Khan, another brother, enjoyed the precarious possession of Peshawur; and a member of the same family secured Jellalabad. Sinde threw off its yoke, Balkh was annexed to Bokhara; and the richest part of the Cabul kingdom, the Valley of Cashmere, was in the hands of Runjeet Sing. The only province of the empire founded by Ahmed Shah, which remained in the possession of his descendants, was Herat." Mahmood died at Herat, in 1829, and the country has since been ruled by Kamran, his son.

The events which, for some subsequent years,

occurred in Affghanistan, are not such as require to be noticed in this rapid sketch. But as Dost Mahommed Khan held the foremost rank among the rulers of that country, and as he is about to occupy a conspicuous place in the narrative, it may not be amiss to bring the reader in some degree acquainted with him. When, in 1832, Lieutenant Burnes, then proceeding on his expedition into Central Asia, visited Cabul, he associated with the khan on the most friendly terms, and had therefore a good opportunity to form a correct estimate of the Affghan chief's deserts. "The reputation of Dost Mahommed Khan," says he, "is made known to a traveller long before he enters the country; and no one better merits the high character which he has obtained. He is unremitting in his attention to business. Trade has received the greatest encouragement from him, and he has earned his own reward, since the customs of the city (two and a half per cent.) have increased 50,000 rupees, and now furnish him with a net revenue of £25,000 per annum. The merchant may travel, without guard or protection, from one frontier to another—an unheard of circumstance in the time of the kings. His justice affords a constant theme of praise to all classes: the peasant rejoices in the absence of tyranny; the citizen at the safety of his home, and the strict municipal regulations regarding weights and measures; the merchant at the equity of his decisions, and the protection of his property; and the soldier at the regular manner in which his arrears are discharged. A man in power can have no higher praise with respect to his deportment and intellect. One is struck," adds Burnes, "by the intelligence, knowledge, and curiosity which he displays, as well as his accomplished manners and address. He is doubtless the most powerful chief in Affghanistan, and may yet raise himself by his abilities to a much greater rank in his native country."

It is to be regretted, that a ruler possessed of such estimable qualities should have exposed himself to the perils arising from British hostility. Russia, with her accustomed sinister policy, was the power which, in furtherance of her designs against our Indian empire, tempted Dost Mahommed to venture upon such an imprudent measure. We have seen, under the head of "Persia," that, as a part of the Russian plan, Count Simonivitch had encouraged the shah to make an attack upon Herat. At the same time, Russia concluded a treaty with the ruler of Candahar, and sent an agent to Cabul, to bring over Dost Mahommed to its party. The desire of establishing a commercial intercourse with the states of Central Asia, was the pretext under which the schemes of Russia were veiled. There was one circumstance which rendered particularly dangerous to Dost Mahommed the lure that was held out to him, of receiving aid from Russia. Not only had he ever been exceedingly anxious to recover from Runjeet Sing the Affghan provinces to the east of the Indus, but he had also reason to fear that the provinces which he held on the west of the river were eagerly coveted by that unscrupulous personage. It is said, but we know not with what degree of truth, that he expressed his willingness to dismiss the Russian agent, and to rely upon British protection, if he could be assured of it; and that his overtures to this purport were slighted. Be this as it may, it is certain that the Indo-British government resolved to expel him from the seat of power, and substitute Shah Sujah ul Mulk in his stead. In the accomplishment of this object Runjeet Sing was to co-operate.

To carry this plan into effect very extensive preparations were required. The line of march through Candahar to Cabul was that which was chosen. Proceeding from Bombay, one British division was to advance up the Indus; while another division, and a force raised by Shah Sujah, were to move from Ferozepoor, on the Sutlege, follow the course of the latter river and of the Indus, and effect a junction with the Bombay division, at Shikarpore, in Upper Sinde. The combined army was then to take the route of Candahar, through Dadur, the Bolan pass, Kwettah, the valley of Pishen, and the pass of Kojuk. The Sheikh contingent, and a native division, under the son of Sujah, were simultaneously to advance on the side of Peshawur.

The march of the Bombay division was retarded for a while, by the necessity of bringing to reason the refractory Ameers of Sinde, who at first seemed disposed to resist. They soon, however, yielded, and signed a treaty, by which they, in fact, became tributaries. Early in March, the whole of the divisions were united at the appointed rendezvous, to the number of about 21,000 men. The difficulties of the army had begun soon after its setting out from Ferozepoor, and every step of their progress from Shikarpoor augmented them. When the Bengal army left Ferozepoor it was followed by from 25,000 to 30,000 camels, but many had died in a march of nearly 600 miles; and, from the want of forage, and other causes, the mortality increased greatly after the departure from Shikarpoor. Provisions, too, began to be scarce. It had been calculated, that supplies for thirty days out of fifty might be obtained on the road, but it was found that not a single day's subsistence could be procured; and the army was therefore obliged to be placed upon half rations. The troops were likewise much annoyed in their progress by the hordes of Beloochees who swarmed around them, making incessant desultory attacks, cutting off the stragglers, and plundering the baggage.

In spite of every obstacle, the army made good its way to the pass of Bolan. This pass, which extends nearly from Dadur to Kwettah, a distance of about 70 miles, runs on a continued ascent the whole of the way, through bare and lofty mountains, and in some places is not more than 30 feet wide. In the diary

Outram a portion of it, and that not
, is thus described. "Marched with
ery brigade, escorted by the 17th foot,
into the pass, along the bed of
a river, the channel of which is the
l; a stream of clear water, from 30
t broad, and from 1 to 3 in depth,
the road six times. During the floods,
m, which is in some places confined
perpendicular precipices, within a
30 or 80 feet wide, would preclude the
y of escape to an army caught in the
The mountains on every side are the
upt, sterile, and inhospitable I ever
ot a blade of vegetation of any kind
nd, save in the bed of the stream,
ere is some coarse grass, on which
d camels pick a scanty subsistence.
atains are as repulsive in appearance
e barren in reality, being everywhere
miform brown colour." Throughout
ndous defile the path is strewed with
loose shingle, and huge boulders,
uble the fatigue of the soldier, and
im from pitching tents, as the teut-
ake no hold of the ground. Through
itable fissure in the mountains did
toil onward for seven days, and at
ged from it on the 17th of April.
ay, it suffered much from the cold
d encountered a snow storm, which
many of the camels. But a still
than these was the horrible stench
se from the putrefying bodies of the
wers, camels, and beasts of burden,
l of fatigue and want of food. For-
he enemy made no attempt to defend
ich nature has rendered almost im-
.

assing through the valley of Pisheen,
still another defile, that of Kojuk, to
tered before the invaders could reach
This, though far shorter than that
was more precipitous. It is very
d rises to a height of 7500 feet. "For
ive miles the ascent," says Captain
s gradual, the road good, and suffi-
le to admit of the troops and their
hills were skirted by timber, which
otted among the surrounding rocks.
s infected, and our road obstructed,
casses of dead men, horses, tattoes,
d bullocks. We must have passed
horses, nearly all of which had been
tless from their inability to move
ed by fatigue and starvation. The
ually narrowed, winding upwards to
suddenly turning off to the left in a
e, and running along the edge of a
vity, where the dragoons were com-
ismount, and lead their horses along
file. On reaching the summit, we
fty mountainous range in our front,
th us was a deep and perpendicular
he foot of which lay many a lifeless
fter descending the ravine, we had
again to scale the summit of the opposite mountains, from whence we obtained a magnificent view of the valley beyond, in which were encamped the artillery and the 17th, looking so diminished in the distance, that a sheet would apparently have covered them. The former were four days making their passage through the mountains; and, had it not been for the fatigue parties of the Queen's, who dragged the guns over the most difficult passages, it is doubtful whether they could in any way have accomplished the pass, so completely exhausted and disabled were the horses, they not having had grain for a fortnight, and their forage being of the most meagre description. The descent was far more irksome than the ascent. Our baggage was but slightly molested. General Willshire, who formerly made ludicrous comparisons between our hardships and those endured in the Peninsular war, throughout which the gallant but testy veteran had served, here declared that, with the exception of Sir John Moore's retreat to Corunna, he had never witnessed greater difficulties." Major Hough states that, from the utter impossibility of conveying it, "there were 27,400 rounds of musket ammunition and 14 barrels of gunpowder lost in the pass, and destroyed, to prevent their falling into the enemy's hands, together with an immense quantity of baggage, and a great number of camels, tents, &c. The men of the 1st Bengal regiment were great sufferers; much of the sickness in the corps is attributed to the very great exertions the men underwent in this pass." The distress of the troops was much augmented by the scarcity and badness of the water; there was little of it, and that little was brackish and unpleasant, and even this had sometimes to be procured from a distance of three or four miles.

The army had now surmounted the chief obstacles; and in the course of a few days it arrived at Candahar. Yet, even now, had the enemy been united and brave, they might at least have protracted the contest; for the ground was favourable to them, and the British force was suffering from sickness and fatigue. But disunion and treachery were in the camp of the sirdars, some of whom had long before promised to come over to Shah Sujah. Candahar was in consequence abandoned by them, and the shah entered the place amidst the acclamations of his partisans. He was speedily joined there by some of the most influential heads of tribes, with numbers of their followers.

After having halted nearly six weeks at Candahar, to rest the troops, and give time for the arrival of supplies from Sinde, Sir John Keane again put the army in motion. Its course lay through the valley of the Turnuk, which is inhabited by the Ghiljees; and some resistance was expected to be met with at Khelat i Ghiljee. But neither there, nor during the whole of the march of 230 miles from Candahar, was any opposition made to the invaders.

On the 21st of July, twenty-five days after their leaving Candahar, the British army came in sight of Ghiznee, within 90 miles of Cabul. Here it was that the Affghans first appeared inclined to make a stand. To his astonishment, Sir John Keane found the fortress of Ghiznee much stronger than he had reason to expect. It had "a high rampart in good repair, built on a scarped mound, about 35 feet high, flanked by numerous towers, and surrounded by a fausse-bray and a wet ditch, whilst the height of the citadel covered the interior from the commanding fire from the hills on the north, rendering it nugatory. In addition to this, screen walls had been built before the gates, the ditch was filled with water, and unfordable, and an outwork was built on the right bank of the river, so as to command the bed of it." The fortress was garrisoned by 4000 men, under Hyder Khan, one of Dost Mahommed's sons; another son was in the immediate neighbourhood, with a body of cavalry; and two chiefs, with considerable bodies of men, were at no great distance.

The day after the arrival of the troops, an Affghan division made a furious attack on Shah Sujah's camp; but it was repulsed, and suffered severely. The fortress was now carefully reconnoitred, and was found to be equally strong on every side. The rampart was too lofty to be passed by escalade, the deep ditch rendered mining impracticable, and the cannon which the army had with it was of too light a calibre to make any impression on the walls, even had there been time to resort to the operation of breaching. It was resolved, therefore, to blow open the Cabul gate, by fastening to it and exploding a bag containing three hundred pounds of powder, and then rush to the assault. This project was carried into effect at three o'clock on the morning of the 23rd of July. "Four companies of European infantry," says Captain Ogle, "were ordered, at the concerted signal, to make good their entrance within the gate; and to four European regiments, minus the above companies, under Colonel Sale, the storming was intrusted. As we breathlessly stood to our arms, we heard the measured tramp of the infantry approaching the fort; the sound had been caught by the garrison, who instantly commenced a straggling fire, which was answered by our artillery in an opposite direction, to distract the attention of the beleaguered from the fated gate. Suddenly, the whole expanse became brilliantly illuminated; the minutest object on the walls, for a second, was plainly distinguishable; not a heart but bounded as that light shot up, succeeded by a tremendous explosion, which stunned the gallant engineer, Peat, who had set fire to the train, leaving him for the time senseless. For a moment there was a death-like and strongly-exciting silence, broken by the roar of our artillery, and the entrance of the assaulting party over heaps of ruins and rubbish. The rush of the besieged on the storming party was terrific: none but Europeans—perhaps none but British soldiers—could have stood its force. Yet slowly and steadily our men pushed on, opposed at every step by hundreds of desperate Affghans, armed with swords, matchlocks, and daggers, who had risked their all on the cast of that die. Colonel Sale led in heroic style, in spite of two sabre cuts across his mouth and head, every now and then cheering his men with, 'Well done, my brave fellows!—well done!' On—on they pushed to the citadel, bearing down all opposition, and forcing open the gates within two hours from the explosion. Amidst the cheers of the British army, our flag waved over the citadel of the hitherto impregnable Ghiznee!" The conflict ended by the surrender of Hyder Khan and the survivors of the garrison.

This unexpected blow seems to have struck terror into the partisans of Dost Mahommed. The chief of Cabul had drawn together an army of 13,000 men, and it was supposed that he would not be driven from power without making a desperate struggle to retain it. A week after the fall of Ghiznee, one of his brothers came to the British camp, for the purpose of endeavouring to negotiate; but he was not authorized to concede all that was demanded, and his mission therefore proved abortive. Still expecting a battle, Sir John Keane and Shah Sujah pressed forward on the Cabul road. They had not, however, proceeded half way, before intelligence arrived that Dost Mahommed's forces had refused to fight, and that he himself had in consequence fled, with only 200 horsemen, in the direction of Bamian. The allied forces now pushed forward to Cabul, and, on the 7th of August, Shah Sujah was replaced upon the throne, apparently to the perfect satisfaction of his subjects. The greater part of the army of the fugitive prince immediately tendered their allegiance to his rival, and were taken into his pay.

As soon as the arrangements could be made for the security of the restored sovereign, the major part of the British troops commenced their march back to India, leaving the remainder as a subsidiary force till the complete restoration of tranquillity. During the whole of 1840, the auxiliar army, and that of the shah, had abundant occupation; insurrections broke out in various quarters, and in more than one instance the troops acting against the insurgents and marauding parties sustained considerable loss. It was from the northern quarter that Shah Sujah had the most to fear. His rival, Dost Mahommed, had escaped into Independent Tartary, and he at length succeeded in gaining allies there. The wallee of Khooloom, and other Usbec chiefs, espoused his cause, and brought an army into the field to support it. Dost Mahommed is also said to have had reason to expect that, in case of his being successful at the outset, he would be aided by the Seiks and Nepaulese. But his hopes were crushed by one decisive blow. On

of September, his army, consisting of , was utterly routed and dispersed. Dennie, at the head of a much inferior id, a few days after, Sir Robert Sale a decisive advantage over the rebels tan. His defeat induced the wallee into a treaty with the victors, and hommed became once more a fugitive. of recovering his throne, and weary dering and precarious existence, the ch at last came to the resolution of himself on the generosity of the He surrendered to the British envoy d of November, was received with due nd courtesy, and was soon after dis- to Calcutta, where a liberal pension ned to him by the government.

reatest part of 1841 was marked by more than a few sharp encounters, in auxiliaries and troops of Shah Sujah erally victorious. In the beginning n everything wore so pacific an as- the British public was assured that listan—the great theatre of recent at—was reposing in tranquillity, after dt and turmoil with which it had visited." At the very moment when rance appeared in print, our army in s suffering the most direful calami- almost general insurrection had ce, unforeseen, and of course unpro- dent. In this insurrection the most t part was taken by the powerful e Ghiljees, or Ghilzees. The cause of g is not yet perfectly ascertained. It attributed to revenge for a wanton ade upon a hill fort, by a British the dissatisfaction produced in some efs by their allowances being reduced, igious fanaticism of the priests, and trigues of a brother of Shah Sujah, ed to seize the throne of the shah. mprobable that all these causes con- h others to produce the melancholy

e portion of the mischief was occa- a system of paltry and impolitic eco- which some pretended statesmen are namoured, appears to be certain. For pen the passes it had always been y to make a small allowance to the es which inhabit the mountainous ween Cabul and Peshawur. This , after having been promised, was in consequence of a deficiency having overed in the revenue. The folly of ure was quickly made apparent. Ge- e was at that moment setting out, on to India, with his brigade, consisting 000 men. He had no sooner reached rd Cabul pass, a few miles from and the first of the long series of de- h he had to traverse, than he found it by the enemy, and all the surround- ts swarming with matchlock men. esperate struggle, in which he was severely wounded, the Affghans were driven from their post, and he proceeded on his way. At Tezeen, and at Jugdaluck, not many miles further, still greater difficulties had to be encountered, and increased loss to be sustained. It was not till the 29th of October, that General Sale, constantly fighting, could reach Gundamuck, which is about 70 miles from Cabul, which he had quitted on the 11th. Of the baggage, ammunition, and stores, a large portion was lost. After a halt of a fortnight at Gundamuck, the gallant Sale resumed his march, and, after one sharp but decisively favourable action, and hourly annoyance from enemies ambushed in the hills, he reached Jellalabad, where he resolved to take post, and defend himself to the last extremity. His loss, in this succession of combats, was 300 men killed or wounded.

While one portion of the British force was thus struggling through the mountains, another was contending against an infuriated multitude at Cabul. On the night of the 1st of November, while everything was supposed by the British envoy and officers to be safe and tranquil, a tremendous insurrection, evidently long concerted, broke out in that city and the surrounding country. So little, indeed, had this been expected, that the most obvious prudential arrangements seem to have been forgotten. While one half of the troops was stationed in the Bala Hissar, the other half was in cantonments at a considerable distance from the town, and divided from it by an unfordable stream. The provisions had been so placed as to be exposed to immediate danger, and the ammunition so as to leave one part of the troops with an insufficient supply, and no means of increasing it. The first victims of the revolt were Sir Alexander Burnes and his brother. At the very outset, the insurgents succeeded in making themselves masters of most of the provisions; and thus the prospect of famine was added to the evils which the besieged had to encounter. Among those evils, not the least was the intense cold, from which the sepoys in particular suffered greatly. "At the beginning of winter, Cabul," says a narrator of these terrible scenes, "was beleaguered and beset on every side, by famine within, war, pestilence, and storms without; but the brave garrison remained so long as they had an ounce of food, clothing to cover them, or ammunition to defend themselves. The loss of men on our side must exceed 2000, and that on the part of the enemy at least five times the number. During November, there had been an almost uninterrupted succession of encounters in and around Cabul. Colonel Maclaren, with three regiments, marched from Candahar to the relief of Cabul, but was compelled to halt at Ghiznee, and to retreat to Candahar. Sir R. Sale was cooped up in Jellalabad. Thus the beleaguered host at Cabul, surrounded by some 20,000 foes, could not reckon upon any relief. One half of the troops were in the Bala

Hissar, at Cabul; the other half, under General Elphinstone, were in a fortified camp, six miles off, divided from Cabul by a powerful stream; and between the city and the camp were scattered about the unsightly corpses of 10,000 dead. These bodies are thus exposed that pestilence may, on a change of temperature, be added to the horrors of the siege. The enemy had attempted to submerge this insulated camp, by turning a full and rapid stream upon its entrenchments; but foresight and science had prepared a canal to carry off the hostile waters. The camp had ammunition, but the nullah was impassable, so that it could not be conveyed to the citadel."

Late in November, the insurgents were joined by Mahommed Ukhbar Khan, the favourite son of Dost Mahommed, and his presence seems to have stimulated them to still more violent efforts. In proportion as the garrison was weakened, and discouraged by famine, cold, and its seemingly desperate situation, the attacks of the constantly increasing enemy became more frequent, vigorous, and successful. From the imperfect information which has yet been afforded on the subject, it would seem that General Elphinstone adhered too closely to a merely defensive system of warfare; a system which has always the effect of damping the spirits of the assailed, and raising those of the assailants. The inclemency of the season, the scantiness of food, which for some time had been only horse flesh, and the gloom which began to cloud the minds of the soldiers, at length produced a disposition to capitulate. Sir W. Macnaughten, the British envoy, is said to have protested against the measure; but finally to have consented. In an interview which he had with the insurgent leaders, on the 23rd of December, they insisted on such disgraceful terms, and in such imperious language, that he refused to listen to them, and replied, "Death is preferable to dishonour; we put our trust in the God of battles, and in his name we defy our enemies." He was immediately shot dead, and the same fate was shared by Captain Trevor, who had accompanied him. Notwithstanding this treacherous and ferocious act, the negotiation was continued by Major Pottinger and General Elphinstone, and it was ultimately arranged that the British troops should quit Affghanistan, with their muskets, side-arms, and part of their artillery, leaving hostages for the performance of the conditions; and that an unmolested passage to the frontier should in return be guaranteed to them.

A favourable result could hardly be augured from a treaty concluded with an imperfectly civilized enemy, and under such unhappy circumstances. But the very worst that could have been anticipated fell far short of the frightful catastrophe that ensued. A proclamation had been sent round to the chiefs, summoning them to rise and cut off the Kaffirs on their retreat. The summons was but too well *obeyed*. On the 16th of January, the troops quitted Cabul, and they had scarcely commenced their march before the enemy began to press upon and assail them. Every step they moved onward increased the number and inveteracy of their foes. They contrived, nevertheless, to force the Khoord Cabul pass; but this was the last united and vigorous effort they were able to make. They had to fight every step of the way; and at the next pass the confusion and slaughter were fearful. Under pretence of saving the ladies, fourteen in number, who accompanied the army, among whom was Lady Sale, the wife of the general, and worthy, for her heroic spirit, of such a husband, Ukhbar Khan proposed to take them under his protection. He, soon after, made prisoners of General Elphinstone and Brigadier Shelton. To these steps he was no doubt prompted by the wish to have hostages in his power, should any reverse of fortune befal him. The troops still continued their weary and hopeless march: but they were now nearly exhausted, both in mind and body. "Our men," says an account of the retreat, "had now been five days and nights encamped on the snow. The sepoys became benumbed and useless; some deserted to the enemy; many perished of cold; the remainder fell easy victims to their remorseless assailants, who hemmed them in, and cut them down on every side. At Jugdaluck, the pass, for about three miles, has an average width of from 40 yards to 10 feet, and is at one place no more than 6 feet in width; the precipices on either side are nearly perpendicular, and it turns so often at right angles and in zigzags, that the road is only visible for a very short distance a-head; the pass, besides, had been barricaded by heaps of stones. Here a halt was called; and the troops, pent up in this horrible defile, were for more than a day exposed to the shot of the enemy, who crowned the heights and fired on them incessantly. The men, worn with fatigue and benumbed with cold, had only made a single meal, and this of horseflesh, half-cooked with the miserable fuel which the scattered bushes by the way supplied." Henceforth all discipline was at an end, and the retreat degenerated into a disorderly flight, individuals and small parties endeavouring to save themselves as best they might. But, wherever they turned, they were furiously assailed and slaughtered. Of 12,000 soldiers and camp followers who had left Cabul, a solitary individual, Dr. Brydon, succeeded in reaching Jellalabad: with the exception of some 40 or 50 more, who were taken prisoners, all the remainder perished!

The situation of General Sale, at Jellalabad, would have excited many misgivings in the mind of a less resolute officer. To return to Cabul was impossible, and it was doubtful whether he could receive succour from that quarter; to penetrate to Peshawur, through the formidable defiles which he must pass, would, with his small force, be equally impracticable. On the other hand, the post of

Jellalabad was weak, and its stock of provisions and ammunition was scanty. Undismayed, however, by these adverse circumstances, he dispatched a messenger to the government political agent at Peshawur, to solicit succours; proceeded to put the dilapidated works into a defensible state, and add new ones; and firmly resolved to maintain his ground as long as resistance was possible. He was speedily hemmed in by several thousand enemies, who seemed to consider him as their certain prey. But they soon found that their veteran opponent was not likely to become an easy conquest. All their attacks on the working parties were defeated; and, in two sallies made by the garrison, in November and December, the besiegers were routed and sustained a heavy loss. In January, an attempt was made by Colonel Wyld, to penetrate from Peshawur to Jellalabad, but it failed. General Sale had previously received the order of General Elphinstone to withdraw his troops, in pursuance of the convention signed at Cabul; but though, at the moment, he was unaware of the massacre which had taken place, there were circumstances connected with the delivery of the order, which induced him to suspect that something was wrong, and to resolve to hold his position till further instructions could arrive. It was well for himself, and his gallant little band, that he thus resolved; had he obeyed, there can be little doubt that destruction would have ensued.

Quitting for awhile the north-east of Affghanistan, we must now turn to other quarters. At the time of the insurrection breaking out, Candahar was held by General Nott, with about 7000 men. In January, a force of several thousand men was dispatched against him from Cabul. On the 12th of that month he defeated it; but the enemy still continued within twenty miles of the city, and received considerable reinforcements. Nothing of importance occurred till the 6th of March, when General Nott marched out against the enemy. A body of Affghans artfully retreated before him, drawing him to a considerable distance, while the main body doubled back, unnoticed, upon Candahar, and made a vigorous attack on the town. A sufficient garrison had fortunately been left behind, and it exerted itself so gallantly that the assailants were routed, with the loss of more than 600 killed or wounded. This defeat discouraged the Affghans so much, that for a time they retired wholly from the neighbourhood. The victory was rendered more important by the circumstance of General England being foiled, shortly after, in an attempt to lead reinforcements from Candahar to Candahar.

But, though they were baffled at Candahar, the Affghans were in some measure compensated for their failure, by the surrender of Ghizni. That fortress, which was garrisoned by a regiment of sepoys, under the command of Colonel Palmer, had been closely blockaded ever since the outbreak at Cabul. The troops suffered much from constant duty, fatigue, and intense cold, and at length their supply of water failed. In this emergency, Colonel Palmer, on the 1st of March, consented to capitulate. Honourable treatment and safety were promised on oath by the Affghan leaders; but there is too much reason to fear that all, or nearly all, of the garrison were massacred by their ferocious enemies.

At Jellalabad, meanwhile, the gallant veteran Sale continued to defend himself with undiminished vigour and success, though the number of his enemies was greatly increased, Ukhbar Khan having, about the middle of February, arrived from Cabul with a reinforcement to the blockading army. Nor was Sale discouraged by the occurrence of an earthquake, which shook down two bastions and a part of the walls. He repaired the damage, and defeated Ukhbar, who endeavoured to take advantage of the weakened state of the works. From February till towards the end of March, incessant skirmishes took place, in which the British troops had constantly the upper hand. By the beginning of April, provisions began to run short; but a supply was obtained by a fortunate sally, the result of which was the capture of 500 sheep and goats. On the fifth of April, a feu-de-joie and salute of artillery was fired in the enemy's camp, and information was brought into the town, asserting in the most positive manner, that the firing was to celebrate a defeat which General Pollock had just sustained in the Khyber pass, which had compelled him to fall back upon Peshawur. Sale, however, was too good a soldier to be deceived or intimidated by this stratagem; he well knew that, even supposing the report to be true, there was the more reason for acting with vigour; and that, if it were untrue, a strenuous exertion on his part would materially contribute to facilitate the movements of General Pollock. Accordingly, on the following morning he sallied forth with all the force he could muster, consisting of 1800 men, and gave battle to Ukhbar, who brought 6000 men into the field. The struggle was for some time desperate; but it ended by the complete overthrow of the enemy, who fled in consternation towards Lughman. Their camp was burned, two standards were taken, and four guns, lost by the British on their march from Cabul, were recaptured. The blockade of Jellalabad was thus raised, after having been continued for five months. The only drawback from this triumph was the death of the brave Colonel Dennie, who fell while leading his regiment against a fort which was occupied by the Affghans.

While Sale was thus making heroic exertions to maintain his ground, General Pollock, who had been appointed commander-in-chief, was straining every nerve to succour him. Warned by the failure of Colonel Wyld's attempt, the general had forborne to move till he had collected together his whole force, and provided

the means of transport. The latter was a difficult point to accomplish, the mortality among the camels and other beasts of burden having been so great, that the requisite number were scarcely to be procured. It was not only here, but in every other quarter, that this obstacle stood in the way of operations. Having taken all necessary measures, the British general quitted Peshawur, and, on the 5th of April, he reached the entrance of the formidable Khyber pass, where he found the enemy in readiness to receive him: they were numerous, and strongly posted. The task to be performed was an arduous one, there being no instance on record of this defile having been passed in the face of opposition. Yet, so well did the general frame his plans, and so determined a spirit was manifested by the army, that, in spite of a strenuous resistance, the Khybereers, 10,000 strong, were routed upon every point. The fort of Ali Musjeed subsequently submitted to the victor, who experienced little further opposition during the remainder of his march; and, before the middle of the month, he arrived at Jellalabad. In the south of Affghanistan, also, affairs assumed a favourable aspect. The Affghans were defeated in an attack upon Candahar; and General England, with a division from Sinde, succeeded in effecting his junction with General Nott, at that city.

It might have been expected that, after these cheering events, and with a force amounting to 35,000 men, condign punishment would be inflicted on the Affghans for the treachery and cruelty which they have so flagrantly displayed. But, since the junction of Pollock with Sale, and of England with Nott, nothing, as far as appears from the last dispatches, has been done, except destroying the forts of some of the mountain tribes, and compelling them to pay their contributions to the revenue. It is affirmed, and such appears to be the fact, that, even while the troops were advancing into Affghanistan, to avenge their slaughtered comrades, the new governor-general of India issued an order for all the divisions to return over the Indus, and that it was only the timely arrival of contrary dispatches from England, which prevented this goodly scheme from being carried into effect. Since the revocation of this order, an army of 20,000 men, to be called the army of reserve, has been directed to assemble on the banks of the Sutlege; but its destination is as yet uncertain.

In Cabul, the capital, a state of anarchy seems to have existed ever since the departure of the British troops. Shah Sujah, who is suspected to have acted the part of a traitor to his allies, was left in the Bala Hissar when our army retired, and he appears to have contrived to maintain at least a nominal authority for a few months. He is said, however, to have been ultimately got rid of, either by poison or being shot. Upon his decease, a struggle for power ensued, and one of his sons exercised a transient sway. Who at present rules at Cabul is not ascertained.

BELOOCHISTAN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, about 600	}	between	{ 58. and 69. 10. E. long.
Breadth, about 300	}		{ 24. 50. and 30. 20. N. lat.

Containing about 160,000 square miles.

These, however, are the extreme limits of Beloochistan; which country was known to the ancients by the name of Gedrosia. About the centre of this territory, it is deeply indented by Affghanistan, which advances into it in the shape of a truncated pyramid, extending from the 28th to the 30th degree of latitude, and the 61st to beyond the 65th degree of latitude; so that, in this quarter, the width of Beloochistan is contracted, between the ocean and the Wusheetee mountains, to a width of not more than 200 miles.

BOUNDARIES.—On the north, Beloochistan is bounded by Affghanistan; on the east, by Sinde and Seweestan; on the south, by the ocean, from Cape Monz to Cape Jask; and on the west, by the Persian provinces of Laristan and Kirman.

DIVISIONS.—Beloochistan is divided into provinces of unequal magnitude. Entering the country at the south-east angle, and proceeding to the north-east, we pass through the provinces of Lus, Jhalawan, Sarawan, including the district of Khelat, Hurnnai Dasel, Mustoong, and Shawl. The last two originally belonged to Affghanistan, but were ceded to the chief of Khelat, by Ahmed the founder of the Affghan monarchy, as a reward for having leagued with him against the Persians. All the rest of the Beloochee territory—about three-fifths of the whole—is comprehended under the general name of Mukran, the north-east portion of which is called Kohistan. The great popular division of the inhabitants is into Beloochees and Brahooés. But it also contains Taujiks, supposed to be descended from the Arab invaders; Baubees, a tribe of Affghan dealers; Dehwars, believed to have sprung from Persian emigrants; Hindoos, and Juths, principally artificers and labourers, the progeny of the Hindoo converts to Islamism. The Beloochees are divided into three great tribes, which have numerous sub-

These tribes are the Nahrooes, the
l the Murghsees. The Nahrooes
ly in Kohistan and the upland
the north and south of Khelat;
:r tribes have settled in Cutch Gun-
they are incorporated with the
Brahooés principally reside in the
Khelat, the Hala or Brahooick
and their bordering lands, and are
ispersed as far to the north as the
e Brahooés are mostly a pastoral
ory race, changing their abode fre-
uent of pasturage for their flocks.

ES.—Numerous chains of moun-
ect the country in various direc-
the east, the Brahooick or Hala
from the sea to the most northern
f the country, rising to a great
throwing out many long branches.
e is the Wushutee or Much chain
ns; and in the west a series of
ids from Cape Jask to the desert
h, where they terminate with the
ntains. For fifty miles to the north
f the parallel of Khelat, the dis-
s of a succession of high hills and
eys. In the neighbourhood of
whole of the country is not less
:t above the level of the sea.

The rivers are few and insig-
sidering the great extent of Beloo-
ie principal are the Poorally, the
Kauhee, and the Dustee Nuddee.
'ers nearly as much as the desert
nt of water. It is indeed crossed
from north to south, by channels,
ionally become furious torrents of
idth, but are generally dry. By
e delusive semblances of a river,
Alexander the Great was placed
peril on its return from India; and
a moment when the troops were
hing from thirst. They had en-
n extensive ravine, through which
ninutive brook, that came from
a the night a storm burst in the
ie torrent came thundering down
ible impetuosity, and it was not
:h difficulty that the Greeks es-
its fury. Nor did all escape.
women, and children, with beasts
and the king's equipage, were
by the raging flood. In a few days
of water disappears, or is only to
in scattered and insignificant

MINERALS, &c.—In the province
gold and silver are found, but the
the Punjab to be smelted. Iron,
tin, antimony, brimstone, alum,
e, occur in various places. Ko-
rticular, is rich in iron, copper,
etals, and also in rock-salt, sal-
d sulphur.

SOIL.—PRODUCE.—The climate
derably in different parts of the
country. In the northern upland countries, snow falls from October to the end of February, and even the valleys are covered with it from the end of November to the beginning of February. It is attended by intense frost, and usually by north-eastern winds. Abundant rain succeeds, in February or March, and then comes the dry season, which lasts till September. The latter month and October are showery, as is likewise the cold season, except during frost. It is seldom, and then but for a short time, that the temperature rises so as to become unpleasantly warm. In the plain of Cutch Gundava, there are two seasons—the rainy, from July to September—and the dry, which continues for the rest of the months. The winter is mild; but in summer the heat is excessive, and the Bade Simoom, or pestilential wind, blows frequently, and is fatal to many persons. In Mukran and Lus there are two wet seasons—the one, of short duration, in February or March—the other, which lasts throughout June, July, and August. The hot season begins after the spring rain, and, with the exception of the south monsoon time, continues till October. During this period the winds blow constantly from the sea, and destroy vegetation. The heat is occasionally so great, that there are days when the natives themselves dare not venture abroad. In the desert of Beloochistan, tornadoes, accompanied by deluges of rain, often arise; and, were it not for them, the desert would always be as impassable as it is from June to September, when the scorching simoom is destructive alike to vegetable and animal life.

A very small fraction of Beloochistan is subjected to agricultural labour; but the part that is cultivated is neither ill-managed nor scantily productive. In the grazing districts, the deficiency of natural grass is supplied by the culture of camel grass, which is a species of clover. The country also affords rice, wheat, barley, maize, and other kinds of grain. Most of the European vegetables and fruits, and several others, abound in the upland country of Khelat. The water melons especially, grow to such a size, that a man cannot lift them up. The dates of Mukran are abundant, and remarkable for their excellence. Madder, cotton, and indigo, are among the products of Khelat and Cutch Gundava, and the sugar-cane thrives in the plains of Lus.

ANIMALS.—Of the wild species there are lions and tigers, but few in number; hyenas, which, when stimulated by extreme hunger, will attack man; wolves, jackals, tiger-cats, foxes, hares, mongooses, mountain goats, antelopes, elks, red and moose-deer, wild asses, and wild dogs. The wild dogs, which frequently hunt in packs of twenty or thirty, are exceedingly ferocious, and a pack of them will kill a bullock in a few minutes. They are, nevertheless, very timid, and hide themselves from mankind in impenetrable jungles. Camels, which, however, are not found in the lowland coun-

tries; dromedaries, horses, which, except in Lus and Mukran, are strong and spirited; mules, asses, sheep, principally of the flat-tailed kind; buffaloes, goats, dogs, and cats, are the domestic animals. The camels and dromedaries are most prized as beasts of burden, on account of their powers of endurance.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—The most singular of these are to be found in the desert. Among them is that delusive phenomenon the mirage, denominated by the Persians the suhrab, or water of the desert, which incessantly cheats the traveller with the hope of quenching the thirst that consumes him. The sand waves, formed by the wind, and the cloudy veil in which the traveller is enveloped by the dust, are two other curious circumstances. "We quitted the well just as the sun rose," says Mr. Pottinger, "and proceeded the greater part of the way on foot, 27 miles further, over a desert of red sand, the particles of which were so light, that when they were taken in the hand they were barely palpable; the whole is thrown by the winds into an irregular mass of waves, principally running east and west, and varying in height from 10 to 20 feet; most of these rise perpendicularly on the opposite side to that from which the prevailing wind blows, (north-west,) and might readily be fancied, at a distance, to resemble a new brick wall. The side facing the wind slopes off with a gradual declivity to the base, or near it, of the next windward wave. It again ascends in a straight line, in the same extraordinary manner as above described, so as to form a hollow or path between them. I kept as much in these paths as the direction I had to travel in would admit of, but had nevertheless exceeding difficulty and fatigue in urging the camels over the waves when it was requisite to do so, and more particularly when we had to clamber up the leeward or perpendicular face of them, in which attempt we were many times defeated, and reduced to go round till an easier place or turn in the wave offered. On the oblique or shelving side the camels got up pretty well, as their broad feet saved them from sinking deeper than we did ourselves; and, the instant they found the top of the wave giving way from their weight, they most expertly dropped on their knees, and in that posture gently slid down with the sand, which was luckily so unconnected, that the leading camel generally caused a sufficient breach for the others to follow on foot. All symptoms of vegetation had ceased for the latter ten miles of my journey this day, except a few stunted bushes of a species of tamarisk, and a hardy little plant called by the Beloochees, skirrikoh, (mountain-top,) bearing a purple flower with a very powerful odoriferous smell. My guide appeared to be regulated in his movements by a chain of mountains that were at times just discernible to the southward. We spent the night under the shelter of one of the sand waves, where the atmosphere was uncommonly hot and close. I travelled to-day twenty miles across a desert of the same description as yesterday, and consequently the like impediments opposed me; which were trifling, however, compared with the distress suffered not only by myself and my people, but even the camels, from the floating particles of sand—a phenomenon which I am still at a loss to account for. When I first observed it, the desert seemed, at the distance of half-a-mile or less, to have an elevated and flat surface, from 6 to 12 inches higher than the surface of the waves. This vapour appeared to recede as we advanced, and once or twice completely encircled us, limiting the horizon to a very confined space, and conveying a most gloomy and unnatural sensation to the mind of the beholder: at the same moment we were imperceptibly covered with innumerable atoms of small sand, which, getting into our eyes, mouth, and nostrils, caused excessive irritation, attended with extreme thirst, that was increased in no small degree by the heat of the sun. On questioning my Brahooé guide, who, though a perfectly wild savage, had more local knowledge than any other of the party, he said that this annoyance was supposed, by his countrymen and himself, to originate in the solar beams causing the dust of the desert (as he emphatically styled it) to rise and float through the air; and, judging from experience, I should pronounce this idea to be partly correct, as I can aver that this sandy ocean was visible only during the hottest part of the day."

POPULATION, MILITARY FORCE, &c.—The amount of the population of this country has not yet been ascertained. It has been variously guessed at, from 500,000 to 3,000,000. The one estimate is certainly much too low, the other as much too high. It is probable that the number may be between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000. It is said that the khan of Khelat can bring into the field 25,000 foot and horse: but this seems to be an exaggeration; and, at all events, the difficulty of providing for their subsistence would prevent so large a force from being long kept together.

CHIEF TOWNS.—In this extensive region the towns are few, and none of them are of great magnitude, or remarkable for beauty. The capital of Beloochistan is Khelat, which stands on a small hill on the west side of a fertile valley. At a distance, its situation gives it a striking appearance; but, on entering the place, the charm vanishes. The streets are narrow and dirty, and the upper stories of the houses, on the two sides of the way, nearly approach each other. A mud wall surrounds the town, which contains 3750 houses, and about 20,000 inhabitants. Gundava, the chief town of Cutch Gundava, is better built than Khelat, and contains nearly the same population. The only other towns which are at all worthy of notice are Kedje, Bela, Sarawan, Kharan, Zaharee, Kwetta, Dadur, and Bunpoor.

COMMERCE, &c.—The commerce of Beloo-

stan is trifling. The exports consist of in from Cutch Gundava and Lus, horses n Gundava and Khelat, and dates from kran. The imports are metals, spices, and aufactured silk and cotton goods, and some from Multan.

INHABITANTS — MANNERS — CUSTOMS. — It already been mentioned, that the largest t of the population of Beloochistan consists two divisions, the Beelochees and the Bra-ús. With many points of resemblance, re are some of difference between the two es. It has been stated of the Beloochees, t, while they consider it a highly honourable ion to pillage and devastate on a large scale, y consider petty theft as disgraceful in the reme. Captain Ogle, however, demurs to justice of this statement. "I confess I uld like to know," says he, "at what animal article these rascally plunderers draw the tinction; for, although their predilection horses and camels seemed innate and unquerable, their anxiety to obtain even the allest trifle was really wonderful for a people o despised plunder on a small scale. Even urreem Khan warned us to keep a good look , as he assured us the *brave* Beloochees uld not let the smallest opportunity of ft escape them."

The predatory forays made by the Beloo-es upon the devoted villages are called paos, and are thus described by Colonel linger. "These lawless incursions they nsider as exploits deserving the highest amendation; and, steeled by that feeling, y will individually recount the assistance y have rendered on such occasions, the nbers of men, and women, and children, y have made captives and carried away or dered, the villages they have burned and ndered, and the flocks they have slaughd when unable to drive them off. These paos are almost always conducted under immediate superintendence of the chiefs, whom they form a very considerable source profit. The depredators are usually mounted camels, and furnished, according to the stance they have to go, with food, consisting dates, sour cheese, and bread; they also y water in a small leathern bag, if re-site, which is often the case in the midst of r deserts. When all is prepared, they set and march incessantly till within a few es of the point whence the chupao is to ommence, and there halt in a jungle or some frequented spot, in order to give their camels t. On the approach of night they mount dm; and, as soon as the inhabitants have tired to repose, they begin their attack, by rning, destroying, and carrying off whatever nes in their way. They never think of rest-; for one moment during the chupao, but s over the territory on which it is made, til they have loaded their camels with as ch pillage as they can remove; and, as they very expert in the management of these animals, each man, on an average, will have ten or twelve in charge. If practicable, they make a circuit, which enables them to return by a different route from the one they came. This is attended with the advantage of affording a double prospect of plunder, and also misleads those who pursue the robbers; a step generally taken, though with little effect, when a sufficient body of men can be collected for the purpose." The resemblance of these free-booters to the Pindarees of India is obvious; and it is to be regretted that they have not, like their Indian brethren, been long ago converted or exterminated.

The Beloochee is tall, active, and, though not possessed of great physical strength, is capable of enduring much fatigue. He has a long face, prominent features, dark complexion, and black hair. His dwelling is a ghedan, or tent, consisting of a wicker frame-work, covered with black felt or coarse blanket. A cluster of these abodes constitute a toomun, or village, and the aggregate residents form a kheil, or clan. When not engaged in murdering, robbing, hunting, or some other favourite amusement, the Beloochee is indolent, and will spend day after day in going from one tent to another, smoking and gambling. They have generally two wives, and sometimes more. Their hospitality, their strictness in keeping their pledged word, and the attention and respect which they pay to their women, are the virtues which may be pleaded as a small set-off against their avarice, revengefulness, cruelty, and other vices.

The character of the Brahooés is far more estimable than that of the Beloochees. "They are not less hospitable, nor less faithful in adhering to their promises, than the Beloochees, but they are more quiet and industrious; less inclined to rapine and violence, though at least equal in bravery; and their manners are mild and inoffensive, though uncivilized and uncouth. They are grateful and faithful, and exempt from revenge, cruelty, and avarice." In person they are short and strong-boned, with round faces and flat features, and many of them have brown hair and beards. In activity, strength, hardiness, and the power of enduring both heat and cold, there are few people who surpass them. Both sexes take a part in the domestic concerns, and mingle together more than is common with Asiatics. Tilling the ground and tending the flocks fall to the lot of the men; the women are, meanwhile, occupied in milking, making cheese, butter, and ghee, and manufacturing carpets, felts, and coarse white cloth. Most of them migrate with their flocks from one quarter to another, on the approach of winter, and, occasionally, for shorter distances, in search of pasturage, during the summer.

GOVERNMENT — RELIGION. — The khan of Khelat is nominally the sovereign of all Beloochistan; but, in the western districts, all authority is in the hands of the sirdars, who

are chosen by the people, and not invested with extensive powers. In Khelat itself, though the khan is in theory a despot, he is controlled by a sort of aristocracy, consisting of sirdars, or chiefs of tribes, partly hereditary, and partly elected by the tribes. The sirdars are only bound to furnish a quota of troops, and to attend the court. Each tribe is, in fact, a petty republic. Both the Beloochees and the Brahoo's are Mussulmans, of the Soonee sect.

LANGUAGE.—That which is spoken by the Beloochees bears a strong likeness to the modern Persian, from which half the words of it appear to be borrowed; that of the Brahoo's, on the contrary, differs entirely from the Persian, contains numerous Hindoostanee words, and sounds like the dialect which is spoken in the Punjab. The Dewars and Juths speak the common pure Persian; and the language of the inhabitants of Lus is analogous to that of the neighbouring country of Sinde.

ANTIQUITIES. — The most remarkable are those which were discovered by Lieutenant Pottinger, on the western bank of the river Bale, near Sarawan. "About four miles from our halting-place, we this evening passed," says he, "the remains of some very extraordinary tombs, built on the western bank of the river, about 400 yards from it: they were of a quadrangular shape, and had each been surrounded by a low wall of curious open free-stone work, which conveyed to me at the moment the idea of the meshes of a net stretched at one end into a conical shape: these walls enclosed an area of four or five square yards, and the entrances to them, as well as the buildings, fronted due east; there were several large mounds of earth and stone scattered over the desert, to a considerable distance, which induced me to get off my camel; but, as it was raining at the time, and I was but just able to walk, I did not stay to examine any of them minutely. I could discover no inscriptions; and it was in vain that I subsequently made strict inquiry with respect to these places, as I had not the good fortune to meet with any person who had seen them. All the satisfaction that my guide could give me was, that they were built in the time of the Guebres, (fire worshippers;) but that is the source to which is ascribed everything uncommon or inexplicable throughout this country, and ought not therefore to be implicitly credited. It is, however, probable that in this instance the conjecture was right: there was nothing whatever Mohammedan or Hindoo in the style; and, if we remove the erection of them from those nations, it naturally rests with the Parsees, unless we choose to attribute it to a still earlier period. They were evidently very ancient; for, notwithstanding the durable nature of the materials of which they were composed, they were every one mouldering and in a complete state of dilapidation. The most remarkable circumstance regarding them, if true, was pointed out to me by Moorad Khan, who informed me there was no stone of the same description with that they were erected with, to be found in any part of the country; and added, that it would be of no value, for the people of our days were incapable of executing such workmanship. I am still dubious whether these buildings were formerly sepulchres or places of worship; inside of each there was a raised mound covered with stone, which had, beyond a doubt, the appearance of a grave; but it is also possible that this was the altar for the sacred fire of the Atush Kadu, (a fire temple;) their numbers speak, more than any other argument, to their having been cemeteries."

HISTORY.—The passage of Alexander through Gedrosia, on his return from India, is the most remote event which is recorded relative to Beloochistan. For ten centuries nothing more occurred; but in 677, the caliph Moavia I. dispatched, through Mukran, an army to attack Sinde; which army, in order to secure a supply of water, followed the line of the coast, where water is always procurable by digging to a certain depth in the sand. The invading army does not appear to have entered the inland country. A long interval of time elapses before we learn anything more relative to this region. But, when the Ghiznevide and Ghoride monarchs overran India, a multitude of Hindoos fled from their fanatical enemies, and found a refuge in the rugged mountains of Beloochistan. Their increasing numbers, and their unwearied industry, enabled them, at no distant period, to establish in the government a Hindoo dynasty, called the dynasty of Sehwa. Khelat was the capital of this race of princes. The family continued to reign till about two centuries ago, the last monarch of it committed the imprudence which has been fatal to many sovereigns—that of calling in foreign aid in a case of danger. Being menaced by one of the native tribes, he applied for help to a Mussulman tribe of Arab descent. The Mussulman chief, who was named Kumbur, willingly came to the rescue, and repaid himself for his exertions, by deposing the Hindoo monarch, and compelling his progeny to fly to Cutch Gundava.

The Kumburanee dynasty held the throne unshaken till the reign of Abdoollah Khan, the great grandson of Kumbur. The khan was attacked and rendered dependent on Persia, but confirmed in the government by Nadir Shah, who carried off the khan's two sons as hostages. Abdoollah was killed in a battle with the Sindians, and was succeeded by Hajee Mahommed Khan, his son, a licentious and tyrannical ruler, who, after he had reigned only three years, was stabbed to the heart by his brother Nusseer Khan. With the sanction of Nadir Shah, who had become much attached to him during the young chief's residence as a hostage at the Persian court, Nusseer was raised to the vacant dignity. Though he was stained by the crime of fratricide,

eer was worthy of praise as a monarch. evoked the grinding taxes which his pre- sor had imposed, granted privileges to itherto oppressed Hindoos, reduced the chiefs to submission, and visited every of his dominions, to remedy grievances, improve agriculture and the administra- system. On the death of Nadir Shah, he the side of Ahmed Shah, who conferred m the districts of Shawl, Hurrund Dazel, Mustoong, as a reward for his services. eer reigned fifty years, and was succeeded s son Mahommed Khan, then a boy of een—of a humane but indolent dispo- . His reign, of fifteen years, was spent in efforts to suppress the perpetual dis- in his family, to which the death of his brothers at last put an end. Of two ring sons, one, named Mehrab, murdered rother, and thus acquired the throne. A ndant from the Hajee Mahommed Khan, vas killed by Nusseer, had been suffered, his two sons, to remain unmolested during ement reign of Mohammed Khan; but, as soon as the treacherous and cruel Mehrab seized upon the throne, he assassinated the father, and imprisoned the sons at Candahar. One of them, however, Shaw Newaz Khan, soon contrived to escape, and returned to Beloochistan, where, at the head of a band of determined followers, he plundered and laid waste that country. When the British army was on its way to Affghanistan, he proffered his allegiance, and it was agreed that, at the close of the campaign, Mehrab Khan should be compelled to grant to him the districts of Shawl and Mustoong. But, before the time appointed for the cession, Mehrab had acted with so much perfidy towards the British, that a resolution was taken to depose him. He resisted; Khelat was carried by assault; and he, with several of his dependent chieftains, was killed while defending his palace. Shah Newaz was then proclaimed khan, and guaranteed in the possession of his states, on condition of ceding in perpetuity to Shah Sujah the districts of Shawl, Mustoong, and Cutch Gundava.

CIRCASSIA.

rine Eastern or Independent Persia, we now retrace our steps to a country which the north-west of the Persian frontier. h Affghanistan and Circassia are widely ted, yet they, and the people who in- them, have various points of resem- e. Like Affghanistan, Circassia is moun- s, abounds in passes, and is consequently lt of access. Like the Affghans, the Cir- ns are divided into tribes, are brave, ed to predatory excursions, and devotedly ed to their native land and their inde- nce; but in personal appearance, gene- , hospitality, tolerance, and many other able qualities, the latter are far superior former.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
h, about 250	between	37. 10. and 42.
th, from 50 to		30. E. long.
		43. 28. and 45.
		25. N. lat.

aining about 25,000 square miles; not in- g, however, Great and Little Kabarda, , though peopled by men of Circassian , are omitted, because they are, in some s, brought under subjection to Russia.

name of Circassians is never used by the s, and by many of them is not under- . The word Tcherkess, from which it is d, is a word of Turkish or Tartar deriva- "The prince of Janat," says Mr. Bell, ated to us a story of the derivation of the 'Tcaerkess,' which, though probably fabulous, or mixed with fable, is yet so generally narrated by the people (Potoski having, in 1797, heard part of the tradition from Kabarda) as to merit some notice. It is, that the Circassians, Albanians, and Kurds, are descended from three brothers, princes of Arabistan: one of whom having somehow deprived a person of an eye, and this individual having refused to accept of any other satisfaction than the *lex talionis*, the matter was referred to the caliph Omar, who decided, that, if the aggrieved party insisted on it, he was entitled by law to have 'an eye for an eye.' In consequence of which decision, the three brothers fled from the country, and went to Kara-Hissar, in Asia Minor. There a message from Arabistan overtook them, to the effect that they might return to their native country, for the maimed man had consented to accept of such compensation as they chose to give. But the brothers had now determined to seek their fortunes elsewhere; and they departed from the house where they had found refuge, each repeating a word from which the name of his nation was derived." The word Tcherkess is said literally to signify "to cut the road;" which, by some, is considered as alluding to the strenuous defence made by the natives against invaders, and, by others, is less flatteringly supposed to refer to the prevalence of predatory habits among the Caucasian tribes; so that, in one case, the Circassian is a hero, in the other, a highwayman. The natives, however, as we have just now stated, do not recognise the appellation. They

call themselves Adighe, or Attéghéi, which signifies a people inhabiting a mountainous country near the sea coast; Atté, in their language, being a defile, and Ghéi the sea.

BOUNDARIES.—On the west, Circassia is bounded, for an extent of 200 miles, by the Black Sea; on the north and north-west, the river Kuban separates it from the territory of the Tchernemorski Cossacks; and, on the south and south-west, it is divided from Mingrelia by the highest chain of the Caucasus, down to where the little river Salamache, or Burzuklu, falls into the Black Sea.

DIVISIONS.—Circassia is divided into many provinces. The present confederacy, which is struggling to maintain the independence of the country against Russian ambition and tyranny, originally consisted of twelve of these provinces; namely, Notwhatsh, Shapsuk, Abazak, Psadûg, Temeĝui, Hatukwôi, Makhosh, Bensi, Bashlibâi, Teberdah, Braki, and Karatshâi. Of these, all but Notwhatsh are situated on the northern side of the Caucasian chain. Other provinces have since taken a part in the great work; and many thousand men from the neighbouring provinces, Georgia, Mingrelia, Immeritia, and those on the Caspian Sea, together with numbers of Poles, have joined the Circassian standard. The Poles are said to be "so popular that many of their national songs have been translated into the Circassian language, and are now sung with as much enthusiasm as their own war-songs."

MOUNTAINS.—The whole of this country is traversed by the great Caucasian chain of mountains; which, passing from W. N. W. to E. S. E., extends from Anapa, on the Black Sea, to the peninsula of Abcheron, on the Caspian, having a length of 700 miles, and an average width of about 80. The loftiest of these is Mount Elborus, or Elbrooz, an insulated mass of rock, which rises to an elevation of 16,800 feet, and is, for one-third of its height, perpetually covered with snow. From the principal range, innumerable ramifications intersect the Circassian territory, especially on the southern side. On that side, from Anapa to the mouth of the river Ingour, or Engeori, a distance of 250 miles, these ramifications often descend close to the shore. Except at a few points, the coast of the Black Sea, within these limits, is high, bold, and rocky.

RIVERS.—From the nature of the country, the rivers of Circassia, especially on the seaward side of the Caucasus, are necessarily small; at times mere insignificant streams, at others impetuous torrents. The only great river of Circassia is the Kuban, which rises between the main Caucasian range and Mount Elboorz, and falls into the Black Sea, after a circuitous course of 400 miles. It has numerous tributaries from the Caucasus, among which are the Zelentshuk, the Urup, the Tshalmik, the Leba, the Fars or Emause, the Kijips, the Shagwashe, and a number of smaller streams.

METALS—MINERALS.—Respecting the mineral riches of the country, information is very scanty. Gold is found in the sand of the mountain rivulets. The natives say that gems and silver are among the products. Iron, lead, and coal are known to exist in various parts. Sulphur has also been found in certain spots, but does not seem to be abundant. There are likewise salt and petroleum springs; but the former are not numerous, which is to be regretted, as the Russian blockade impedes the importation of salt into Circassia, and the natives will rather deprive themselves of that necessary article, than purchase it from their Muscovite enemies.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—With the exception of some marshy situations on the banks of the Kuban, and a few other parts, the climate of Circassia is exceedingly healthy. Men who have reached extreme old age are very common. In summer Mr. Bell describes the climate as being very similar to that of England. "The heavy dews over night, by their evaporation each morning, give for some hours a delicious freshness to the air." In July and August, the temperature is from 78 to 84 degrees at noon, in the shade; and, in the sun, the thermometer sometimes, though rarely, rises to 126 degrees. April and September are the months when most rain falls; in September, the equinoctial gales are violent, and the thermometer sometimes descends more than 20 degrees. In winter there is much frost and snow, and the thermometer varies from 16 degrees above zero to 16 degrees below. Barley, oats, and rye are fit for reaping by the beginning of July; but wheat and millet are not reaped till the latter end of August and early in September.

The soil is exceedingly fertile. A great part of the mountains even, instead of being sterile rocks, are cultivated, and afford excellent pasturage. In many instances, the flat summits of hills, at a height of from 4000 to 5000 feet, are covered with a rich verdure. "Nearly the whole of my excursions," says Mr. Spencer, "lay through that part of the Caucasus in the immediate vicinity of the most formidable line of Russian operations. There was hardly an uncultivated spot to be seen; immense herds of goats, sheep, horses, and oxen, as if in the midst of peace, were browsing in every direction among herbage which could not be exceeded in luxuriance. Yet, however lovely it might be, I did not, during my second visit to Circassia, see the country when its charms are most fully developed; for it being now the decline of the year, the fields were partially robbed of their beauty, the trees of their fruit, and the leaves of the rich verdure of summer." Mr. Bell, who resided in Circassia for two years, describes the fertility of the country in even more forcible language. Wheat, oats, barley, rye, maize, and millet, are the kinds of grain which it abundantly produces; its fruits, among which is the grape, are numerous and of the finest flavour. Among its trees are the oak, beech, ash, elm, lime, walnut, chestnut, hon-

wood, and many others, most of which are of a magnitude seldom equalled elsewhere. Large vines are almost perpetually seen climbing up these trees, and hanging from them in festoons.

ANIMALS.—"A rich Circassian," says Mr. Spencer, "like a patriarch of old, values himself on the excellence and number of his flocks and herds; to which we may add, his wives and children." The oxen and sheep are remarkably fine, the goats are large and long-haired, and the sheep of an excellent breed. Buffaloes are numerous. But the horse, which is strong, beautiful, fleet, and full of sagacity and affection, is the favourite animal of the Circassian, who trains him to a degree of docility which is hardly to be found in any other land. Game, winged and four-footed, is abundant. Among the wild animals are the bear, wolf, boar, the jackal, the suroke, suslik, jerboa, and shepez: the latter, in all but the head, resembles a mole. "Being armed with the most formidable tusks, it is rendered, for so small an animal, a dangerous foe; and its courage is such, that, when marching in numbers, they rarely deviate from the path, but bite and tear everything they encounter." Of the rapacious feathered tribes, the principal are the vulture and eagle; the latter of which grows to an enormous size.

POPULATION, MILITARY FORCE, &c.—There are no data for forming a correct estimate as to the population of the confederated Circassian provinces. M. Klaproth gives to these provinces considerably less than 500,000 inhabitants. There can, however, be but little doubt that he has very considerably underrated the number. From the fertility of the country, the number of the villages, and the facility with which, within a narrow space, and a short time, large bodies of troops can be called together, we are justified in believing that the population is probably at least treble what he states it to be. From the third of one province, not among the most populous, and from only the frontier of another, between 4000 and 5000 volunteers were assembled on a notice of only three days. This implies a much more densely peopled country than M. Klaproth is willing to allow. As regular infantry, the Circassians, ignorant of discipline, would be scarcely a match for European soldiers; but as cavalry they are unrivalled. Their charge is impetuous and almost irresistible, and their war-cry, in rushing to battle, is said to be so thrilling and terrific, that new troops are panic-struck on hearing it. That they are excellent horsemen is needless to add. "A Circassian warrior," says Mr. Spencer, "will spring from his saddle to the earth, plunge his dagger into the breast of the horse of his enemy, again vault into the saddle, then stand erect, strike his adversary, or hit a mark, almost at a hair-breadth, with his light gun; and all this while proceeding at full gallop." "This young man," says Mr. Bell, "showed us, besides the excellent management of his horse, and the uncovering, cocking, and firing his gun at a bonnet on the ground, while at full gallop, another feat I had not before seen; viz. leaping out of his saddle to the ground; and, at the same instant almost, uncovering his rifle, or unsheathing his sabre." The bow, the ancient weapon of the country, is partly superseded by the rifle. They have not, however, forgotten how to use it; as Mr. Bell had an opportunity of witnessing. "The mark," says he, "is a small one, projected from the top of several lofty poles fastened together so as to raise it to a considerable height. Two horsemen, one before the other, put their horses to their speed, a short distance from the pole, during the approach to which the pursuer bent his bow, stooped to the left side of his horse, (the pole being on his right,) and thus twisted, with his face backwards, and then looking upwards from beneath his raised left arm, he let fly the shaft, which on several occasions ascended perpendicularly, and very near the mark." The rifle in the hands of the Circassian is a terrible weapon; men and boys are all "dead shots." No one ever fires till he has taken deadly aim; powder is too precious to be wasted on random shots. The warrior is also strong, brave almost beyond imagination, agile, full of resources, capable of enduring great fatigue, and of preserving his spirit and vigour with very scanty fare. A bag of millet, and a leathern bottle of skhou, a species of soured milk, is all the provision which he takes to the field, and his mantle serves for both tent and bed; ten ounces of food daily suffices for him. The moment he sees the signal fire blazing on the hills, he mounts his steed, which always stands saddled at the door, and away he hurries to the rendezvous. So rapid are the movements of the Circassians, that an enemy can never feel safe on any side; and such is their vigilance, that seldom indeed can he take them by surprise. "They are found now in one place, and then in another, and even creep, like a snake, in the grass, and surprise the sentinel on duty at the gates of the fortress: in short, every tree, crag, and shrub, serves a Circassian as an ambuscade." In regular warfare, the loss of the horse is almost necessarily the loss of the man; but it is not so with the Circassian: agile as a deer, and having all his weapons attached to his person, it is only by overpowering numbers that he can be cut down; for he often springs like a tiger upon the horse of his opponent, and hurls the rider to the ground. Nothing short of killing him will put an end to his resistance. "The Russian officers assured me," says Mr. Spencer, "that a Circassian warrior never surrenders, combating while a spark of life remains, even with a host of enemies, it being only when powerless from wounds that he can be taken to grace the triumph of the conqueror." But though the Circassian will not become a prisoner, he is willing enough to make prisoners. He either employs them on his land, or he sells them. The Russian captives generally fill the more

menial offices; but they are humanely treated; and when one of them dies, his funeral obsequies are performed with as much solemnity as those of a native. The great disadvantage under which this gallant people labour in their contest with the Moscovite hordes, is the want of field artillery, and, still more, of gunpowder. The scarcity of these articles fetters their operations, and prevents them from harassing the Russian camps on the shore by a cannonade from the surrounding heights. A few pieces of artillery they have taken from the invaders, but the scanty supply of powder renders them unavailable.

CHIEF TOWNS.—As far as regards this article, the map of Circassia presents an absolute blank; there is nothing which can be called a town. The country is, however, thickly studded with villages, hamlets, and insulated houses. "Every time that I ascended a plateau" (table land) "from whence I could obtain an extensive view over the valley, I discovered," says Mr. Spencer, "partially shaded by the trees, at one glance, from twenty to thirty hamlets, and I have frequently found one of them inhabited by 100 to 150 persons." The villages and hamlets are almost always of a circular form. In the interior of the circle the cattle are deposited on the approach of an enemy, and in winter to protect them from the attacks of wolves. The houses are, in general, built of slight materials, that they may be the more easily and cheaply destroyed and rebuilt in case of invasion. The scattered cottages are always concealed by dense foliage, that they may be less easily discovered by an enemy.

COMMERCE—MANUFACTURES.—Oak timber, the finest boxwood, WAX, tallow, honey, ox, horse, goat, and deer hides, and the fur of the hare, fox, and fitch, are the chief articles of exportation which this country furnishes. Silk begins to be produced, and may become a valuable article of export, as the white mulberry tree, which supplies food for the worms, is a native of the soil. "Previously to the surrender of Anapa, during peace, there resorted to that port, in the course of the year," says Mr. Bell, "about thirty vessels, carrying from 10,000 to 12,000 kilos—about 200 tons burden. Spring and autumn—especially the latter, after harvest—were the best periods, and then full cargoes were obtained in twenty to twenty-five days, consisting of grain, hides, tallow, butter, honey, furs, &c., and from 50 to 60 passengers for each vessel. At that period, on the portion of the coast from Sûbesh to Gagra, the annual arrivals were about sixty vessels, carrying each from 6000 to 7000 kilos. In thirty to forty days they found full cargoes, consisting in part as above, but chiefly of boxwood. They had also passengers to the amount of from 50 to 200 each, according to the season of the year. Twenty vessels per annum, of smaller tonnage, may be calculated on for the rest of the coast from Sûbesh to Anapa." Bar and rod iron, cotton manufactures, and gunpowder, are the articles of prime necessity as exports to Circassia.

Manufacturing establishments there are none. Almost everything is of domestic production; even the highest ranks work with their own hands. "I found," says Mr. Spencer, "the princess and her daughters employed in embroidery. This refined accomplishment does not, however, occupy a large portion of the time of the women of the Caucasus; and those of my host, like the princesses of old, occasionally employed themselves in spinning wool and flax: their fair hands not only made the clothes for their families, down to the very shoes, but plaited camels' and goats' hair into mantles, made cushions for the saddle, housings for the horse, and sheaths for swords and poniards. Nor were they less expert in the art of cookery, or the management of the dairy; and sometimes even displayed their agricultural skill in the fields, the whole wardrobe of finery being reserved for visits of ceremony.

"My host was equally industrious: for, besides building, with his own princely hands, the little cottages he occupied, he was his own carpenter, tanner, and weaver; mounted his pistols and guns; manufactured his inimitable bows and arrows; and, like old King Priam, in conjunction with his princely boys, tilled the land, and tended his flocks and herds in the mountains; and, when the wintry snow rendered his occupations in the open air no longer agreeable, he made mats of great beauty, which find a ready sale in Turkey and Persia. Nor was this his only employment: he cast bullets; made gunpowder; and, if these were not sufficient to fill up his time, he smoked his tchibouque.

"There is no regular body of artificers and mechanics in Circassia, except the cutlers, armourers, and goldsmiths, who fabricate and mount the weapons with gold, silver, and precious stones; in which they exhibit much elegance and taste. I often admired the beauty of the designs traced on their swords and poniards; while the excellence of the temper they give them cannot be surpassed; nor yet their ingenious method of inlaying their guns and little tables with mother-of-pearl. Their brass chain armour, and some of their weapons, are obtained from Persia and Turkey." Among the manufactured products of Circassia may also be mentioned a beautiful kind of goat-skin leather.

INHABITANTS—CUSTOMS—MANNERS.—The Circassians are remarkable for personal beauty and manly grace: beauty is the rule, plainness the exception. "I have been much struck," says Mr. Bell, "by the number of fine-looking men assembled. Their characteristics are, lofty stature; great breadth of chest and brawniness of shoulder; a thin flank; a small foot, and keen, lively eyes. It may justly be said here, 'Man is the noblest growth this realm supplies.'" Mr. Spencer describes them in similar

language; and, as his picture of the armed Circassian warrior is complete, it may gratify the reader. "I was first struck with their fine martial appearance, athletic forms, regular features, and the proud consciousness of freedom displayed in every glance and movement. The most accomplished cavalier in Europe could not sit his horse with greater ease and grace than did these wild mountaineers; and the symmetry of the noble animals that carried them I have never seen equalled, except in our own country. All this ill accorded with the poverty of their habiliments and accoutrements; but, whether they were habited in hemp, linen, the coarsest baize, or even sheep's skin, I was compelled to admire the sensible shape of their vestments, and their admirable adaptation either to display the symmetry of the form, a defence against the weather, or an appropriate military costume: and yet this has been the attire of this singular people from time immemorial—a people whom we have been accustomed to regard as barbarians, but whose dress and system of warfare is now adopted, to improve that of the Russian army.

"The usual dress of a Circassian warrior of all classes is a tunic resembling a military polonaise, without a collar, closely fitted to the body and descending to the knee, secured around the middle by a leather girdle, ornamented, according to the wealth or fancy of the wearer, with gold or silver, in which are stuck a pair of pistols and a poniard: the latter is a most formidable weapon in close combat; during an attack they hold it in the left hand, and, from its breadth and length, reaching to the elbow, it serves every purpose of a shield.

"In addition to this, the Circassian is armed with a light gun, slung across the shoulder, and a sabre suspended by a silk cord in the Turkish fashion; attached to the belt is a powder-flask, and a small metal box, containing flints, steels, gun-screws, oil, and, not unfrequently, a small hatchet. Hence, a Circassian, whether on foot or on horseback, is at all times completely armed. Sometimes he carries a javelin, which he uses with singular dexterity and effect, hurling it to a considerable distance, with an aim that never errs. The latter weapon is also used as a rest for the rifle, having a groove at the top expressly for the purpose. Bows and arrows are now very rarely used, except in cases where it is necessary to arm the whole population.

"On either side of the breast of the coat are the patron pockets, made of iron tubes covered with morocco leather, usually containing 24 rounds of ball cartridge: these not only add to the military appearance, but in some measure protect the breast, and are extremely convenient: a round fur cap, with a crown the same colour as the ammunition pocket, is the covering for the head; and cloth trowsers, in the eastern fashion, complete the costume. Princes and nobles are alone entitled to the privilege of wearing red; and the Circassians, like the natives of most other eastern countries, shave the head, and are never seen barefoot. When marching, or on a journey, they always add a cloak made from camels' or goats' hair, with a hood which completely envelopes the whole person: this is called a tchauka; and no Mackintosh was ever more impenetrable to the rain: rolled up in its thick folds, it forms the only bed during their encampments, and serves, besides, to protect them against the scorching rays of the sun."

The Circassians are in a high degree hospitable, generous, and polite. With a truly neighbourly spirit, they assist each other in their agricultural labours. In no country is greater reverence paid to age. When an old man enters a dwelling, whatever may be his rank, those who are present rise, and do not sit down till he has seated himself. In all cases, every one is eager to assist him. It is the same with respect to matrons. So far is this deference to seniority carried, that, when a father dies, his authority devolves on his eldest son, in whose presence his brothers seldom eat or seat themselves; and this supremacy is never disputed. In diet the Circassians are abstinent; rich and poor usually subsist on vegetable food and milk, except when they have visitors, in which case they are abundantly liberal of their choicest fare. Their manners are dignified without being haughty. "No titles are used here in conversation," says Mr. Bell: "even dependents address their chiefs by what we call their Christian names, and occasionally eat with their sons; yet perfect respect is never wanting." They delight in music, singing, dancing, the tale of the story-teller, and the song of the wandering extemporizing bard. Many of these bards display much exuberance of fancy and warmth of feeling; and, wherever they come, every house is open to receive them. In their public meetings, the Circassians manifest much eloquence and argumentative ability. "In summing up the virtues of the Circassians," says Mr. Spencer, "we must not forget their charity; the poor man never cries at the door of the rich in vain; the orphan is provided for by the nearest relation as his own children; if a man's house is burnt, his neighbours assist in rebuilding it; if he loses his cattle from sickness, or his corn from blight, each gives him his assistance, which the obliged party always makes it a point of conscience to repay liberally when fortune is kind." But the trait which is most prominent in their character is their intense patriotism; death in the cause of their country is not dreaded, but coveted, and is considered as gaining for them the palm of martyrdom.

The enemies of the Circassians accuse them of being robbers; but this accusation refers much more to the past than to the present. "There is no instance, as far as I can learn,"

says Mr. Bell, "of anything like brigandage existing, notwithstanding the destitution to which many have been reduced in this long war. Theft is of frequent occurrence; but when discovered it is, as I have shown, severely punished; and it is only in a remote neighbourhood, and when adroitly executed, that it has, or rather had, the same tolerance among the Circassians, that it had, less than a century ago, among our own Highlanders. Armenian and Turkish merchants, attended only by their own few attendants, traverse the country with large stocks of goods, and never experience either theft or violence."

The estimation in which woman is held by a people affords no indifferent criterion by which to judge of the character of that people. In Circassia, women are treated with far more respect and affection than in most other oriental countries. Their charms and virtues are celebrated in the songs of the bards, and their domestic happiness is generally secure; their moral conduct as wives is said, with very few exceptions, to be excellent. Concubinage and prostitution are unknown. Polygamy is, indeed, allowed; but the men appear usually to be contented with one wife, and never to go beyond two. It may at first sight appear, that the buying of wives in Circassia, and the selling of daughters and sisters to foreigners, are circumstances which cannot be reconciled with the idea of a real esteem for women. With regard to the purchase of wives, however, it must be remembered that, from the most remote antiquity, such has been the custom in eastern countries, and that it implies no degradation on the part of the female; Rachael was not the less honoured and loved by Jacob because he bought her. As to the practice of selling young females, though it is impossible to reconcile it to European feelings, there seems to be, at least, neither cruelty nor disgrace inflicted upon those who are its objects. Mr. Spencer tells us, and his assertion is borne out by Mr. Bell, that it "is not considered in any other light than as a most honourable way of providing for them; and the fair lady who has spent her youth in the harem of a rich Persian or Turk, on returning to her native country, decked in all her finery, never fails to create in the minds of her young friends a desire to follow her example; consequently, they jump on board the vessel destined to convey them, perhaps for ever, from home and friends, with as much alacrity as if they were proceeding to take possession of a crown." The lady who proceeds from England to India, in the hope of changing her state of "single blessedness," differs but little from the Circassian girl who eagerly desires "to go to Stambul to push her fortune."

"The present condition and manners of the females of Circassia," says Mr. Bell, "appear to be the consequence of the blending of Turkish and Circassian usages, the former of which preponderate with regard to the married women, and the latter as respects the unmarried—making them altogether the very antipodes of the females of Europe, especially of those of the higher classes. The house and society of the married female is inaccessible, as in Turkey, to all males except those of her own family, the ataliks of her children, and the members of her husband's fraternity, who have free admission at all times. When she goes out to visit her female friends, her head and face are closely veiled, and her whole figure enveloped in a cloak; she must avoid meeting males, or, unless they be serfs, stand respectfully aside till they pass. But the maid—whose tight corslet covered in front with clasping plates of silver, and scull-cap ornamented with knobs and lace of silver, give her somewhat of a martial appearance, as if the panoply of her innocence were proof against assaults, while her pendent tresses, flowing skirts, and gentle gait, preserve the feminine character of her figure, and, if she be tall, give it much dignity and grace—sallies forth unveiled, and upon occasions she fearlessly, but never with effrontery, enters amid groups of men.

"But, although the charms of the matron be thus concealed from public view, it must not be supposed that they have smothered one of the chief (and certainly not the least amiable) characteristics of their sex—the desire of admiration; for the veil they wear is in general white as the driven snow, of very ample folds, and often of muslin, and the finest texture they can afford; and the paraja, or cloak, is one of the most costly articles of Circassian dress, being a very large square of European woollen, as fine as they can possibly afford to pay for."

The dress of the higher class of females is thus described by Mr. Spencer. "The mother of my young companion, probably between forty and fifty years of age, was sumptuously attired in a blue silk robe, open in the front, confined with silver clasps, and a girdle ornamented with silver; her trowsers were very beautiful Turkish muslin, of variegated colours, and red slippers; on her head she wore a light shawl, partly arranged as a turban, and partly falling, in graceful folds, over her neck and shoulders, completely concealing her hair: over this was thrown a large, thin muslin veil, that nearly enveloped her figure; her dress being completed by an abundant display of gold trinkets, evidently extremely ancient, and, from the workmanship, I should think, Venetian. Her person still retained traces of great beauty. The attire of her daughters was even more splendid; but, in lieu of the turban, each wore a tiara of red Morocco leather, ornamented with a profusion of small Turkish and Persian gold coins. In other respects their dress was similar, except that the hair of the young dames, instead of falling on the neck in curls, like that of the married women, was arranged in a thick plait, confined at the end by

a silver cord, which descended below the waist: their features were as beautifully regular and expressive as those of their mother. On a signal being made, the young prince, agreeably to custom, left the room, when one of his wives entered, a princess of the Demorghoi tribe, one of the handsomest women I think I ever beheld. She might be about eighteen, with the most regular features of the Grecian cast; eyes, large and dark; complexion, a clear brown; hands and feet delicately small; and her whole figure admirably moulded. She was dressed in a similar style to that of the elder princess, except that it was more tasteful, and studied with no small degree of coquetry; her fine dark hair hung in tresses on her shoulders."

Among the articles which are given in purchasing a wife, a bow is indispensable. Mr. Bell, having made a present of a pistol to a man who was about to be married, the latter requested him to exchange it for a bow. When all the preliminary bargaining is concluded, the bride is dressed in her finest clothes, and covered from head to foot with a veil, which, in the case of rich persons, is flowered with gold or silver. The bridesman then gallops away with her to the house of some relative, where the wedding is to be celebrated, and solemnly delivers her up to the matron of it, who conducts her to the apartment designed for the bride and bridegroom. There the fair one is left by herself, with a bundle of pine torches, or a fire of the same wood, which she must on no account fail to keep in a continual blaze till her intended husband arrives. The intent of this is, to keep aloof any supernatural foe, who might be desirous of carrying her off. Previously to this, however, an elderly matron, usually employed on such occasions, walks thrice round the nuptial bed, beginning at the head and ending with the feet, muttering some Arabic charm; after which she places at the head, foot, and side, three earthenware pots, each filled with corn, and having in it a burning lamp. At midnight the bridegroom mounts his horse, and joins his friend, who has been waiting for him in the neighbouring woods, and then proceeds to his bride. On being introduced to her, he instantly performs the ceremony, which is common to all the Caucasian tribes, of cutting open the corset that has confined her form from childhood. At break of day he takes home his wife, and presents her to his parents, and the couple are installed in the dwelling appropriated to them.

The ceremonial part, however, is not yet over. "To-day, Miss Paak," says Mr. Bell, 'like all the other young female friends of the family, married and unmarried, has gone, charged with cakes and *bonbons*, to pay her respects to the bride, who, until the marriage festival—generally ten days, a fortnight, or even a month after her carrying off—must not be seen out of her room, but remain there seated in state, to receive the congratulations of those female visitors; and, as it is considered indecorous for her to be loquacious during this long interval, Miss Dissepli, her sister-in-law, must remain in attendance in her chamber, to make suitable replies for her. During this interval also the unfortunate bridegroom is understood to have no communication with his fair one, and his visits to her, which are also only understood, must be paid under cloud of night. He is even an exile from the society of his parents until the marriage festival, when he presents them with a bullock, sheep, or goat, for the repast, kisses their hands, and obtains permission to visit his wife; which, however, must still be done at night only. On the birth of the first son, and often of those following, the festival is repeated."

The funeral ceremonies are as singular as the nuptial. Mr. Bell thus describes those which were performed for a Circassian warrior, who was mortally wounded in a battle, and was buried at a distance from his home. "When, as in this case, the body is not forthcoming, a cushion is placed on a mat at the side of a room; upon and around it are the clothes of the deceased; and, on the wall immediately above, are suspended his arms. The room is filled with the females, and the female relatives and friends of the family, seated; and, at the door, stands the widow erect. At each side of the cushion are seated the daughters or some young female relatives. On the green before the door the men assemble. One of them approaches the door, uttering a wailing cry, which is responded to by the females inside, who rise while he enters softly, with his hands over his eyes, and kneels before the cushion, placing his forehead upon it. The young girls on each side assist him to rise, and he retires. The rest follow, one by one, until the whole have performed this ceremony; but the old men generally, instead of uttering the lament, speak some short sentence of consolation or endurance, such as, 'It is the will of God.' This larger assemblage of men and women lasts for three days; but the females of the family, and its immediate relatives, must be in attendance to receive mourners in this manner for a fortnight; and the clothes and other relics of the deceased remain as described, until the great funeral repast, which is given either six months after, or on the anniversary of the death. The very poorest never omit this entertainment; but the rich give other repasts at intervals of a week, a fortnight, or forty days after the death. If the clothes of the deceased were not good at his death, new are made, and the relatives contribute different articles, such as shoes, leggings, leather drinking cups (for travelling,) &c., which are laid with the rest of the things on the mat, and are subsequently distributed to the priest of the neighbourhood, and those who assisted at the ceremonies. The family can retain nothing except the arms which the deceased bore, and the horse he rode, which, out of respect to his memory, is kept six months in the

stable, and well fed during that time. When one has died a natural death at home, his body is immediately washed, enveloped in new white cotton or linen cloth, and buried within three or four hours, the immediate neighbours assisting in the first portion of the lamentation. If he was killed in battle (that is, a *bonâ fide* battle, not a mere excursion for booty—for a decided line of distinction is drawn,) he is interred in the clothes he was killed in, and without washing; it being supposed that in this state he will be at once received into paradise, as having fallen in defence of his country; but if he survive his wound some days, he is presumed to have again sinned, (perhaps in regretting his wound, or expressing impatience under it,) and must, therefore, be washed and dressed for his immortal journey. The same ceremonies are performed at the death of women and children, but the assemblages are less numerous."

The mode of bringing up the children of the princes and nobles is curious. When a male child is born, he is presented with a bow and a quiver of arrows, as symbolical of his future destiny; and, to secure him from the malignant influence of witchcraft and the evil eye, an amulet is bound on some part of the body. When he is past his infancy, he is taken wholly from the paternal home, and placed under the care of some warrior distinguished for his skill in military exercises. With this sort of guardian and tutor, who is called an atalik, the youth remains for six or eight years, and sometimes more. Here he perfects himself in all gymnastic exercises, swimming, the use of weapons, and of popular speaking; not forgetting the predatory art. It is probable, however, that the latter accomplishment has been in less request, since the union has taken place between the various Circassian tribes. "An atalik not only feeds, clothes, and educates the pupil gratuitously, but gives him a horse and arms. He trusts for his recompense to the spoil his foster-son may take in battle, and to the gratitude of himself and family after the tutelage is over." On the return of the youth to his father's house, a splendid banquet is spread, to which his friends and relations are invited; he gives proof of his acquirements; and his atalik is complimented and loaded with presents. Education, in the common meaning of the word, is not in a very flourishing state; but there are numerous establishments where youth are boarded by the mollahs, and taught to read and write the Turkish language, and to qualify for the offices of mollah and kadi.

GOVERNMENT, LAWS, &c.—The government of Circassia appears to be a sort of aristocratic republic, composed of three classes—pshi or princes, vorks or nobles, and thfokotls, freemen or clansmen. The pshis, however, are regarded by their clans rather as presiding magistrates, than as rulers invested with uncontrollable authority, and may be deposed for oppression or infringement of ancient usages. Titles are never used in addressing a pshi; nor is any distinction of rank recognised, except in as far as relates to public affairs. The only privileges of any consequence enjoyed by him are, that, of the spoil taken from the enemy, he may retain one-half for himself and his family; and that, if he happen to be in possession of a port, he may impose a trifling custom-house duty. The dignity is hereditary, and, on failure of the male line, descends to females; in which case the lady is united to one of her own nobles, who is considered as being the bravest and best allied among them. The pshi who is deficient in bravery, loses the whole of his influence. The title of vork or noble is also hereditary. Many of them are powerful; and, in case of the chief being incapable or treacherous, or his line being extinct, they often succeed to the chiefdom. Among some of the tribes, the inferior nobles and clansmen are obliged to follow their chief to battle; and, should the summons be disregarded, all connexion between the two parties would cease, and the vork would be under the ruinous necessity of restoring all the presents which he and his ancestors had received from the chief and his progenitors. The thfokotl or freeman is a landed proprietor, often possessed of extensive flocks and herds—which are the riches of a Circassian. As far as regards his property, he is quite independent of chief or noble. His chief or noble is called his konak or protector; and, if he be dissatisfied with the konak's conduct, he can place himself under the protection of another. As the influence of a chief is in proportion to the number of his followers, this power of changing them is an effectual safeguard against tyranny. Every stranger who travels in Circassia must have a konak, without which he will be seized upon and made a slave: the danger of admitting Russian spies renders this a necessary precaution.

The remaining class of society consists of pshilts, that is, serfs or slaves. Some of these are supposed to be descendants of the conquered aborigines; others are prisoners taken in battle, or persons who, on entering the country, have neglected to place themselves under the safeguard of a konak. Their usual occupation is to cultivate the ground, tend the horses and cattle, and serve in the guest house, which is the residence of visitors. The serf is treated with much kindness: he cannot be compelled to go to battle; and he may obtain his freedom, either by purchase, by marriage with a Circassian, or by adoption; in the latter case the serf performs the ceremony of sucking a woman's breast, after which he has all the privileges of a native, and through life is regarded by his foster-parents with the earnest affection. The same ceremony is sometimes extended to a favourite stranger, and with the same result. "Slavery, according to our acceptation of the word," says Mr. Bell, "does not exist here, and is not at all the term that

should be used in speaking of the condition of the lowest grade of Circassians. When an individual of this class is transferred from one occupier of land to another, an amount of cattle or goods, at present equivalent to from £15 to £20, is paid for the right of his services; but such transference cannot take place without the servant's consent, and he receives lodging, maintenance, clothing, and some gratuity yearly for his services. When he wishes to marry, his master must pay the purchase-money of his beloved; and, with regard to the children, the boys continue servants to the master; and when the girls are married, the money paid for them is divided between the master and the father. If the master strike, or otherwise ill use a servant, he has a right to insist upon being sold to another. He may also buy his freedom, the present price of which is about thirty oxen. Fines for his misdemeanors must be paid by his master." If a serf leaves his master, and puts himself under the protection of another, he cannot be compelled to return; but must pay a certain sum for his ransom.

A singular institution among the Circassians is that of fraternities or brotherhoods, each of which has its appropriate name, and is presided over by its elders. They are supposed to have been established for the purpose of maintaining such an equilibrium of power as would prevent any chief assuming a sovereign authority over all. "The Circassian word for the societes or fraternities," says Mr. Bell, "is *Tlenish*, which signifies also seeds. The tradition with regard to them is, that the members of each all sprang from the same stock or ancestry; and thus they may be considered as so many septs or clans, with this peculiarity—that, like seeds, all are considered equal. These cousins-german, or members of the same fraternity, are not only themselves interdicted from intermarrying, but their serfs too must wed with the serfs of another fraternity; and where, as is generally the case, many fraternities enter into one general bond, this law, in regard to marriage, must be observed by all." Such marriages were once punished by drowning, as being incestuous; they are now expiated by a fine of 200 oxen, and the restoration of the wife to her parents. The fraternities of the nobles are divided into consanguinities, or tarkos; the word tarkos signifies "sworn together." The fraternities vary in numbers from 15 or 20 to 3000; and every individual, serfs included, is comprised in some one of them; for at his birth he is held to belong to that of his father. "Their chief peculiarities are, that the members are bound naturally to protect each other, and assist in paying the fines of individuals who may commit manslaughter or other crimes; but this is only done on the first, or first and second occasions; if the offence is again repeated, the society takes the punishment of the individual on itself, and sometimes inflicts death. All the brotherhood are also bound to aid any member who may fall into reduced circumstances; and when one of them has become the konak, all the rest must protect and avenge the stranger. In travelling they enter the family houses of each other, as freely as if they were brothers in reality." One special duty is to see that no brother disgrace himself by a marriage beneath his rank, whatever it may be. When a member dies, his wife, as having been purchased by one of the fraternity, is regarded as its property, and is given in marriage, without payment, to another member, who must support her children if she have any. But if she is permitted to marry into another fraternity, she must part with her children, who must remain in their father's. If she be too old to be remarried, the society must support her. In trials, they act as jurors, six from each fraternity concerned being the minimum number; and the fraternities are bound to enforce the execution of the sentences which are passed by the tribunal. "They are," says Mr. Bell, "essentially the government of Circassia; and any improvement in it must be ingrafted upon them, deeply rooted as they are in the habits and affections of the people."

There is a thoroughly primitive simplicity in the mode of holding their judicial assemblies. "Immediately on arriving in a district where criminals are reported to be," says Mr. Bell, "the tamatas, or elders and others, assemble in some central locality which affords partial shelter from the wind then prevailing; and, whether it have been one from the northward, bearing frost and snow, or from the opposite quarter, with torrents of rain, the proceedings of these hardy lawyers of the hills have gone on uninterruptedly. If the ground be in a fit condition, the elders seat themselves upon it with a little straw; if otherwise, they stand in a circle, while those especially engaged to cooperate, (whose muster-roll is a notched staff, and none of whom dare quit the vicinity of the *wittenagemote*, or field of justice, without the special permission of the three presidents,) remain around on horseback, or as their fancy may lead them, listening at times to what is going forward, or practising their steeds, ready to be dispatched to bring by force before the elders any person reported criminal, and who may refuse to attend. On the appearance of one of the latter, if his confession agree with the information against him, he is at once adjudged to pay the fine attached to his offence; and payment being exacted immediately on condemnation, the most difficult duty of the judges appears to be that of valuing the articles—horses, arms, armour, merchandise, &c. taken in lieu of the number of oxen one is liable to pay; viz. 6, (or 300 piasters,) if he prove by witnesses, on his oath, that he visited a Russian fort solely for the purpose of purchasing salt; 24, if it be proved that he held communication for other purposes with the enemy; but, if he have previously taken the

national oath against such practices, and it be proved that he has broken it for any purpose, he may be held to have forfeited his life, which he or his fraternity must redeem by the payment of 200 oxen, or their value: such extremity is not, however, resorted to, excepting after repeated transgressions. The same fine falls to be paid by any one whose examination disagrees with the report against him; and who, upon being put to his oath, can be proved by the oaths of two or more witnesses to have forsworn himself. For the purpose of having the oath administered, the Koran is appended to two rifle rests, hard by the circle of elders, and he who has to be sworn goes there apart with three or four of them, in whose presence he makes his declaration, taking the Koran in his hand, and saying, 'This is the book of God, and I declare,' &c. I may explain, that the oaths of two witnesses are necessary to condemn an accused, because the oath of the latter is taken; and if its testimony disagree with that of but one witness, the one is held to have counterbalanced the other, and judgment cannot then be pronounced, but by the convention of the judicial elders of eight fraternities. But if even they pass sentence of death upon an individual, his fraternity, if it still think him undeserving of such extremity, has the power of redemption, by the payment of 200 oxen. I may further explain, that in each fraternity a certain number of the tamatas or elders, (according to the amount of the fraternity,) are selected by their fellows, on account of their integrity, wisdom, and experience, and solemnly sworn to administer justice according to conscience, without regard of persons, and without acceptance of fees to pervert it. These elders are denominated tarkokhass—that is, 'sworn justice.'

"In the judicial and other assemblies, any one present is at liberty to speak, but few who are not tarko-khass, or at least elders, are much attended to; and the latter, after the evidence in a trial has been publicly given and debated on, go apart and decide upon the judgment, when they return and publicly communicate it through him who has been appointed president.

"During the present circuit for the punishment of treason, it has so happened, that many of those accused have been found to have absented themselves. In such a case, the house of the accused would be burned, unless some friend became guarantee for his production on his return home.

"In cases of theft, the criminal is ordinarily tried by the judicial elders of his own fraternity, and that of the person robbed; but the latter, if a judicial congress be assembled, has his choice of carrying his cause before it. In the former case, the fine (which is to the value of seven oxen, in addition to restitution of the value of the article stolen, or twenty-four oxen, if the crime be a second one,) falls to be divided among the judicial elders of the two societies: in the latter, these fines go into the general account of the judicial elders and their assistants. In the case of a hardened malefactor, he is dealt by as in the case of extreme treachery; that is, he is either, besides condemnation on his last offence, adjudged and put to death by his own fraternity, (which is the usual mode,) or condemned to it by the judges of eight other societies, leaving the power of redemption to his own." It does not appear that this division of the fines among the judges has at all the effect of warping their judgment on the side of severity. In these trials, also, the testimony of a witness has weight only in proportion to his known credibility: that of a person of bad character is not admitted; and the prisoner is permitted to speak for himself, and cross-examine the witnesses.

RELIGION.—From the number of crosses of the St. Andrew form which, at one period, were existing in the Caucasian provinces, it has been supposed that the inhabitants of those provinces were converted to Christianity by St. Andrew. Others have attributed the honour to St. Nina, a Georgian princess, who was contemporary with Constantine. Nothing certain is, however, known upon this subject. Mr. Spencer was assured, by several Armenian merchants, who declared themselves to be eyewitnesses, that "at the base of the Caucasus a tribe still exists called Kervisour, who have preserved among them Christianity to the present day, and in manners and customs differ entirely from every other, and are not exceeded by any in bravery, or in their love of independence. They are still habited in ancient armour; the figure of a cross distinguishes their bucklers, and one of red cloth is constantly worn on the breast. It is generally supposed, from the similarity of their weapons with those of the Normans and French of the middle ages, that they are descended from Gallic ancestors. They added, that in the interior of Abasia, between Soubachi and the Alps, a greater number of remnants of the ancient Christians exist than in any other part of Circassia; that several churches are in tolerable preservation, and must have been fine buildings; and that some of them even still contained the sacred books and ancient armour, which, according to the traditions of the natives, were deposited there by a band of Christian warriors as votive offerings, in gratitude for their deliverance from the infidels." If there be any truth in these accounts, it is probable that these secluded tribes are descended from the Crusaders.

At present, the religion professed by the Circassians is Mahometanism, not of the most rigid kind, mingled with a little of heathenism, and some ceremonies which are obviously derived from the Christian faith. Mr. Bell was informed by one of the judges, that it was only about sixty years since anything like general religious observances and social order were introduced into the country; and that, pre-

lously, intestine wars and feuds raged generally and incessantly; and the only semblance f religion consisted in some unmeaning ceremonies performed before the crosses. "The arieties of shade in religion," says Mr. Bell, and in manners—upon which it has everyhere such influence—I find to be considerble, according to the localities. To a consirable distance around Anapa, and along the uban, where the former Turkish inhabitants of he frontier chiefly traded, their influence and xample have tended to give a supremacy and arity to the profession of Mohammedism; while rom Gheleńjik to about Waia, and for some istance inland, there is mingled with that faith strong tincture of Christian observances: ent, Easter (with its dyed eggs,) and carnial, being all to be traced amid the rude rites ractised at their respective periods of the ear. In the valley of Tshopsin we overtook a rge body of men and lads on horse and foot, eparting from one of these celebrations. From Vaia to Sûtsha, where there has always been uch Turkish trade, Mohammedism is again ore prevalent, and instances are to be found here of its having triumphed over the disinction of rank, so firmly adhered to elsehere in cases of marriage. The ancient cusom, however, of drinking wine has kept its oting among a large portion of the inhaitants of these parts, and will, I presume, ng continue to do so, notwithstanding the proach of infidelity it entails—habits being ronger than precepts. Southward of Sûtsha re are again traces of Christianity; while, vards the high mountains inland, many are d to live apparently regardless of all relia."

he wearing of black by the females, when ath occurs in a family, seems to be a ves- of Christianity, the practice being forn by all rigid Mussulmans. Among the vals is one which the Circassians them- state to have been instituted in honour e Virgin Mary, when Christianity was lent. It is called Merem, and lasts for ays, during which time troops of young ys from house to house, and spend the in dancing, singing, regaling, and in-

Merem to send them always health, and happiness. Sacrifices are made occasion, and provisions distributed the poorer inhabitants. Another festi- the aspect of being derived partly from h source. It is called the Feast of tion. Every boy, after a certain age, presented to God at this festival, and ul must be sacrificed for him. The al commences with a brief petition to t God" (Taskho) to confer every blessavert every evil; after which cakes of d bread and goblets of shuat are the priest and distributed to the and the sacrifice is then performed. e of heathenism in the Circassians ed by their belief in, and homage paid to, a sort of subordinate deities, among whom are Tshible, the spirit of thunder, Sozerès, who holds the winds and waves in subjection, and other imaginary beings, the protectors of agriculture, woods, &c. The Circassians have likewise many superstitions. Persons, for instance, whose eyes are of a certain colour and form are supposed to be afflicted with the evil eye, and to be dangerous to whatever they look upon; and even deformed persons are considered as unconscious agents of evil spirits. When a man is wounded, every weapon is removed from his sight, and a basin of water is placed at his chamber door with an egg in it, and a ploughshare beside it, to scare away any demon who might intend to molest him. At night, partly for the same purpose, and partly to amuse him, his friends, male and female, assemble around him, and spend the hours in telling tales, music, and buffoonery.

Language.—The dialects spoken by the Caucasian tribes are exceedingly numerous; but the three principal Circassian languages appear to be, the Adighe, the Azra, and the Abaza. Of these the first is the most widely diffused; it being spoken from the eastern extremity of Kabarda to the Black Sea, and along the coast from the Kuban to the Bu—more than three-fourths of the coast line. The Abaza prevails from the Bu to the Hamish, and the Azra from the Hamish to the frontier of Mingrelia.

The Circassian language has no literature, is difficult to learn, and is said by linguists to be without the slightest affinity to any other on the face of the earth. It is difficult even to convey, in European characters, an idea of its sound. "An anecdote," says Mr. Spencer, "is related of one of the sultans of Turkey, famous for his love of letters, who sent a learned Turk to the Caucasus, to learn the language of the inhabitants, and reduce it to established rules. After some time he returned to his master, hopeless of success in his enterprise, carrying with him a bag of pebbles, which he shook, saying, that he could give no better imitation of the sounds of the language spoken by that people." There is a curious circumstance connected with this anecdote. There is a tradition that the Lesghees, a kindred race with the Circassians, came originally from Affghanistan. Now, precisely the same story is current with respect to the Affghan language. A certain king, we are told, dispatched his vizier to collect all existing vocabularies and dialects. When, on his return, the vizir came to speak of the Affghanee, he stopped, produced a tin pot, which contained a stone, and began to rattle it. Being asked by the monarch what he meant, he replied, that he had failed to acquire a knowledge of the Affghanee tongue, and could only give an idea of it by rattling a stone in a tin pot. The Affghan language seems, indeed, to have always laboured under opprobrium. Mahomet is said to have declared that

the Affghanee was to be the language of the infernal regions, as Arabic was to be that of heaven; and in the Oriental comparison of languages, Arabic is denominated *science*; Turkish, *accomplishment*; Persian, *sugar*; and Hindustanee, *salt*; while the luckless Affghanee is contemptuously likened to *the braying of an ass*.

ANTIQUITIES.—The antiquities of Circassia are not numerous. Among them are tumuli, similar to those of Krim Tartary, but more various in form and large in dimensions. Sometimes they are wholly composed of earth; at others they are girt by a stone wall; and a third kind are mere cairns—vast heaps of loose stones. Tradition represents them as tombs of the distinguished warriors of a race who occupied the country before the present race. Mr. Spencer visited one which had been long before opened near Sújúk Kaleh, and was consequently empty. The interior was a large arched vault, built of cut stone, united without cement; and the skill displayed in its construction, and the admirable turn of the arch, proved that it must have been the work of a highly civilized people. There is still another kind, which is found in various parts. It consists of four enormous slabs of stone, and one laid upon them. Mr. Bell saw one in the valley of Pshat, the four uprights of which were each 5 feet high; the covering stone being 9 feet long and 6 feet broad. In the front slab was a circular aperture, large enough to admit the head of a child. In some places there are found antique statues of common stone, rudely carved. They represent "a human figure of either sex, with a large head, flat breast, short neck, broad face, high cheek bones, and flat nose, exactly like a Calmuck; and the headdress is precisely similar to that worn by a Calmuck woman of the present day." This would seem to be sufficient evidence that, at some distant period, unrecorded in history, the Calmucks were lords of the ascendant in this country; since none but a Calmuck could have any wish to employ sculpture in the representation of Calmuck ugliness. Among the visible relics of Christianity are a Greek cross, about 12 feet high, with a nearly effaced inscription, on a hill, in the glen of Lúkwa; and several crosses of iron in other places, some pendent from trees, and some erect. One of these hangs from the arm of a huge old oak, to which it is attached by an iron wedge, in the valley of Saahe. Three hooks depend from it, which, says Mr. Bell, "were the recipients of many a various offering, which were scrupulously left there till borne off piecemeal by the elements. Some rags of the last showed that such offerings had not long since been made."

HISTORY.—The history of the Circassians, in ancient times, and even down to a very recent period, is enveloped in complete darkness. Some writers, founding their system on vague traditions which exist in that country, have imagined that the western Caucasus was the abode of the Amazons, and that the present natives are descended from those warlike females. Some of the tribes of the eastern Caucasus claim the Arabs as their ancestors. In like manner, the Leshees, as we have mentioned under the head of "Language," have been supposed to be derived from Affghanistan. There is, however, no evidence in support of these systems; of which the last seems to be the most plausible. It appears to be certain, that the Caucasian tribes were never subdued by the Macedonian conqueror, the Romans, or the Eastern emperors. Yet the primitive race must, at some period or other, have been brought under the yoke, exterminated, or expelled; for the present possessors do not assert themselves to have sprung from the aborigines. They say that, before their race occupied the country, it was inhabited by a people so diminutive in stature, that a hare served them for a steed, instead of a horse. The assertion, that their predecessors used hares as horses, is probably only a hyperbolical mode of expressing contempt for their weakness.

In the 16th century we find Circassia incidentally mentioned by an Englishman. Anthony Jenkinson, who was dispatched to Russia by Queen Elizabeth, states that he had a conference with an Armenian, who was sent to him by the king of Georgia, who was sorely oppressed by the "great Turke and the Sophie," and wished for his advice how to send an ambassador to the emperor of Russia for assistance. "Unto whom," says Jenkinson, "I did answer, not only persuading him to send his ambassadour to Russia, not doubting that he should find him most honourable, and inclined to helpe him; but also I directed him his way how the said king may send by the country of Chircassie, through the favour of Tenezat, king of the same country, whose daughter the same king had lately married." The king of Chircassie, of whom Jenkinson speaks, was, no doubt, a prince of only one of the Caucasian tribes; had he, at so comparatively recent a period, been the monarch of the whole country, tradition would certainly not have failed to preserve some remembrance of him.

In the beginning of the 18th century, a Circassian prince stands recorded as a traitor to his native land. This person was Prince Alexander Becovich, the son of a chieftain in Kabarda, who was partly educated in Russia. In 1713, this renegade presented to the czar Peter a project for subjugating the Caucasian tribes. The Muscovite monarch was, however, too busily occupied in the war with Sweden, to attempt carrying the project into effect. Becovich was dispatched, in 1717, with an army to conquer Khiva; but he was defeated and taken prisoner, and lost his own head, and nearly the whole of his army.

By the unprincipled seizure of the Crimea, and all the territory on the north of the Kuban, in 1784, Russia became a close neighbour of

he Circassians. In 1792, the profligate empress Catherine directed the Tchernomorski Cossacks to be removed from the banks of the Dnieper, and settled on those of the Kuban. This measure was avowedly taken for the purpose of keeping an eye upon the Circassians, and checking their incursions. It is probable that there were other motives besides that which was assigned. These Cossacks were turbulent subjects, and therefore it was desirable to place them where they would have sufficient occupation to prevent them from being troublesome; they were of predatory habits, and were therefore likely to keep alive a quarrel with the Circassians, which might be made use of as a pretext for subjugating the latter, should a favourable opportunity occur. Hostilities between the two parties did accordingly take place. In 1800, Dr. Clarke was present at a conference between the Circassians and Russians, on the northern bank of the Kuban, in which a peace, or rather an armistice, was agreed upon. In this case, Dr. Clarke was given to understand by the Russians, that the fault of aggression was entirely on the side of the Circassians; but, for the truth of this, he had only Russian evidence. "The picture," says the lion in the fable, "would have been quite the reverse had a lion been the painter."

In 1784 an event occurred which was ultimately productive of important consequences. Desirous to possess a station for carrying on commercial intercourse with the Caucasian tribes, the Porte, in that year, obtained permission from a Circassian prince to make a settlement at Anapa. At that place the Turks built a fort, and established a pasha. A few years afterwards, another Circassian prince granted to them a similar privilege at Sûjûk Kaleh. In both these instances, the occupation was granted merely as a matter of favour: no territorial cession was made. It, however, brought war and Russian encroachment to the Circassian coast, and was at last converted into a pretext for still more violent encroachment. Anapa was thrice taken by the Russians, in 1791, 1807, and 1828, and the same fate was twice shared by Sûjûk Kaleh. From the latter settlement the Turks were finally expelled, in 1820, by the Circassians themselves, who were irritated by the frequent infliction of the plague, through the carelessness of their Ottoman friends.

At length, the moment arrived when the submissive occupation of Anapa and Sûjûk Kaleh by the Turks was to be turned to account by Russia. When the emperor Nicholas commenced the war against the Porte, in 1828, he solemnly pledged himself not to derive any territorial advantage in case of his being the conqueror. The pledge was speedily broken; and it must be owned, that the folly of those who put faith in it was as enormous as the perfidy of him by whom it was violated. When the Turkish government was frightened into a treaty, by the rapid advance of the Muscovite army, Russia, affecting to consider Circassia as a Turkish dependency, inserted in the fourth article of the treaty a few words, by which the dominion of the whole eastern coast of the Black Sea, from the mouth of the Kuban river to port St. Nicholas, an extent of nearly 300 miles, was made over to the Russian autocrat. It is avowedly on this untenable ground, and this alone, that Russia presumes to treat the free Circassians as rebellious subjects, and to carry on the war against them in a manner which is well worthy of such a cause and such invaders.

Formidable as was the power which now summoned them to yield their necks to the yoke, the Circassians scorned to bend before it. They were "convinced," says Mr. Bell, "that for them the only hope dwelt in native swords, and native ranks. They made preparation, therefore, to continue alone the war with Russia. For this purpose Sefir Bey, the most distinguished of their princes, Hadji-okee Mehmet, their chief judge, and other persons of rank and influence, set out on a tour through the provinces. In each province they were met by a congress of delegates, specially chosen, who took oath for their respective communities, that they would remain faithful to each other, and would reject whatever terms of submission Russia might propose, unless under their general concurrence and sanction. At the same time they constituted the prince and the judge their ambassadors for procuring foreign aid; and the former their plenipotentiary for remaining abroad in prosecution of that object. A special condition was made, I believe, for the consent, or even presence, of Sefir Bey, before any change could be made in the terms of the convention. He has now (in 1837) been absent for about seven years."

Before we proceed to narrate the military operations, it may be proper to mention that, at various subsequent periods, additional measures were taken to strengthen the bonds of union among the tribes. Among them was the general administering of an oath, by which the person taking it bound himself "to remain true to his country, to hold no communication by trade, or in any other manner, with its enemies the Russians; and denounce those who do, and assist in their condemnation and punishment; to abandon entirely the habit of stealing from his countrymen, and to inform against those who do so, and to assist in their condemnation and punishment. He bound himself further, to make unreserved confession in regard to all acts at variance with these engagements in which he had participated, or which had come to his knowledge in time past." By putting an end to predatory incursions, one stumbling-block of offence between the tribes was effectually removed. An oath of this nature had been suggested, thirty years before, by a native, but is was not until 1834 that it was adopted, on the recommendation of Mr. Urquhart, a talented English gentle-

man, who took a warm interest in the Circassian cause, and visited the country for the purpose of aiding it. He also made many valuable suggestions as to their means of defence, recommended the formation of a central government, and devised for them a national standard. The device is three golden arrows, crossed, on a green field, over which are several white stars, indicating the number of independent states united in the confederacy. Mr. Spencer, who was present when the flag arrived, thus describes the manner in which it was received by a vast assembly of the people. "The valiant chief, Hirsis Sultoune Oglou, unfurled the splendid national banner he had just received from Stamboul, wrought by the beautiful hands of a Circassian princess occupying a high station in the Turkish empire. At the sight of the long-expected national flag, thousands of swords flew in the air, and one universal long-continued shout of joy burst from the immense multitude. Never was there a greater display of enthusiasm, nor a fiercer determination exhibited by a people, to defend their father-land." The example which had been set by Mr. Urquhart was followed, in 1837, 1838, and 1839, by Mr. Bell and Mr. Longmore, the former of whom resided two years, and the latter one year, in Circassia, enjoyed the confidence of the natives, and were indefatigable in promoting the cause of independence.

Of the early events of the war little has been recorded. Europe had not begun to feel an interest in Circassian affairs, and Russia could not be expected to divulge the secret of the disappointments she met with in the pursuit of her ambitious schemes. At the period when the contest commenced, the Russian army of the Caucasus is supposed to have consisted of from 70,000 to 80,000 men. Deficient as our information is, we know that, from 1830 to 1834, this large force was unable to make any permanent impression on the Circassian territory. Inroads were, indeed, made into Circassia, and villages were destroyed; but seldom without heavy loss, and scarcely ever without being avenged by Circassian inroads into the district beyond the Kuban. In 1832, the Russians attempted to found a colony at Ghelenjik, on the coast of the Black Sea. The Circassians, however, soon rendered the colony too hot for its few inhabitants, who were glad to abandon it. A fort was substituted in its stead, with a garrison of 2000 men, who were soon closely cooped up in it by the active mountaineers. In 1832 also, a part of the enemy's force was diverted from Circassia, by an outbreak of the Lesghian tribes, and by the necessity of quelling a formidable revolt which was organized by the nobles of Georgia. In 1834 and 1835 Russia was not more fortunate than she had been in the preceding years; in 1834 the Circassians had the upper hand in seven encounters, and in 1835 they succeeded in *baffling* all the efforts of the invading hordes, and "sent them bootless home, and weather-beaten back" to their winter quarters behind the Kuban.

One of the measures on which the Russians mainly relied for reducing the refractory tribes to submission, was the establishment of a blockade along the coast, to cut off the supply of arms, ammunition, and salt. But, independent of the danger arising from the notorious unsafeness of the Black Sea, and the unskilfulness of Muscovite sailors, there was another cause which rendered the blockade inefficient. The light boats and vessels of the Turks and Greeks who carried on the trade, could elude the heavy sailing vessels by which they were pursued, and could take refuge in inlets, whither it was impossible to follow them; being manned by skilful sailors, they could also venture to keep the sea in winter, when the blockading squadron was compelled to retire into a distant harbour. Already some of the Russian ships had been wrecked in attempting to capture the hardy violators of the blockade.

The means hitherto employed having failed, it became necessary to devise others, which might be more effectual. Two plans were accordingly submitted to the emperor Nicholas for his choice. One of these plans, which is believed to have been supported by Count Woronzow, deprecated the waste of blood and treasure which must be caused by a continuance of a hopeless struggle to conquer by brute force, and recommended the trial of a contrary system. Proposing still to maintain the blockade, and some forts on the coast, and to resist foreign interference in the question, it counselled the opening of a commercial intercourse with the Circassians, and the lavishing of honours and advantages upon individuals possessing influence; by the gradual and silent operation of which proceedings, it was hoped that the Circassians would at length be so thoroughly broken in as to submit of their own accord to the sovereignty of Russia.

The pacific system-mongers wished to proceed by gradually undermining; but this was by no means to the taste of the military class, who naturally preferred the more violent process of storming. The second plan is ascribed to General Williaminoff, and is such as one of Genghis Khan's chiefs might have formed. As a preliminary to the main operation, it proposed that a strict blockade should be established along the coast, by means of forts erected, and strongly garrisoned, wherever it was possible for a vessel of any kind to enter with supplies for the Circassians. From these forts, which were to be linked together by a military road, he purposed to spread devastation up the valleys which led into the interior. Ten battalions, two steam-boats, and a fleet of transports provided with guns and stores, were required for this service. This being accomplished, a certain district was to be selected, and invested by a line of forts, communicating with each other. The army was then to be let loose upon the devoted district,

and fire and sword were to spread their ravages in every direction, till the last house was consumed, and the last inhabitant driven out or exterminated. The horrible process was then to be repeated in another district, and persevered in till the whole country was either bent to the yoke, or rendered a desert, where nothing would meet the eye but blackened ruins and bleeding corpses. This part of the goodly scheme was to occupy 15,000 soldiers and a formidable train of artillery; and, if all these "appliances and means to boot" were granted, Williamineff pledged himself to consummate the work of destruction in seven years. His plan, being in the true Muscovite spirit, was adopted. The seven years have, however, passed away, and the work yet remains unconsummated.

While the Russian cabinet was thus occupied in framing schemes for enslaving them, the Circassians issued a declaration of independence, addressed to the sovereigns of Europe and Asia. It is an animated and well-reasoned production, appealing powerfully to the feelings and interests of other countries, and breathing a spirit of uncompromising hostility to their insolent foes. "It is with the profoundest humiliation we have learnt," says this manifesto, "that our country is marked, on all the maps printed in Europe, as a portion of Russia; that treaties, of which we know nothing, have been signed between Russia and Turkey, pretending to hand over to the Russians, these warriors that make Russia tremble, and these mountains where her footsteps have never come; that Russia tells in the west, that the Circassians are her slaves, or wild bandits and savages, whom no kindness can soften, and no laws can restrain. We most solemnly protest in the face of Heaven against such womanish arts and falsehood. We answer words with words, but it is truth against falsehood. For 40 years we have protested triumphantly against accusations with our arms; this ink, as the blood we have spilt, declares our independence; and these are the seals of men who have known no superior, save the decision of their country—men who understand no subtle arguments, but who know how to use their weapons when the Russians come within their reach."

The truth of this last assertion had already been amply proved, and still further proof was afforded by the next campaign, that of 1836. Williamineff commenced with considerable vigour the execution of his plan. The scene of action was the north-west angle of Circassia, comprised between the Black Sea and the rivers Kuban and Abun. On the latter stream, which rises on the northern slope of the Caucasus and falls into the Kuban, two forts had already been erected at Nicolaefski and Abun. Having thus, as he supposed, made all secure on this line of operations, Williamineff, with 15,000 men, and 12 pieces of artillery, began his march up the valley of the Abun, for the purpose of penetrating to the coast. By dint of extraordinary exertions, and an enormous sacrifice of lives, he succeeded in opening his way to Sújúk Kaleh, on the shore of the Black Sea, where he immediately entrenched himself, and began the construction of a fort. There he was seconded by a squadron consisting of a large frigate and five smaller vessels. But he had made no more permanent impression on the country than the oar makes upon the water through which it passes; he was master of only the ground on which he was encamped, and scarcely of that. While one body of mountaineers gathered round and harassed him by hourly attacks, and another ravaged the Russian territory north of the Kuban, numerous well-appointed guerilla parties occupied all the defiles, and the banks of the Abun, on the route by which he had entered Circassia. All supplies were as effectually cut off from him, except by sea, as though he had been surrounded by an insurmountable brazen wall: such, indeed, has uniformly been the state of all the forts erected along the coast, all of which have been compelled to have even the forage for their cattle conveyed to them by transports. In spite of the sickness of his troops, the failure of provisions and stores, and the perpetual attacks of the enemy, which had cost him several hundred men, Williamineff lingered in his useless conquest till autumn. Necessity at last compelled him to think of retreating. Day after day his weary march was furiously broken in upon by his irritated foes, and the route along which he had moved might be traced by deserted arms and baggage, and lifeless Russians. Few recrossed the Kuban; and it is said that these few were indebted for their safety to a deception which was practised by their commander. Finding that it was impossible to pass the river in the presence of the Circassians, who were pressing on him, he assured them that the war was at an end, and he took a solemn oath that he had received a letter from the emperor ordering him to desist from hostilities. The credulous Circassians put faith in his story, and suffered him to withdraw his troops.

Shortly after the Russian general had abandoned Sújúk Kaleh, an occurrence took place which might have led to the most important consequences. An English trading vessel, called the Vixen, laden with a cargo of salt for the Circassians, was seized in the bay of Sújúk Kaleh by a Russian corvette, under pretence of having violated the blockade, and was taken to Sebastopol, where she was condemned as a lawful prize. The British government had never recognised this pretended blockade, and it was cognizant of the sailing of the Vixen, but took no step to prevent it. This seizure gave rise to a correspondence between the British and Russian governments; and it was generally expected that the former would have insisted upon reparation for the wrong. But, for some reason which it would be difficult to divine, the insult was passed over, and Russia

was allowed to triumph, and to boast, as she subsequently did, that England stood in fear of her. A Chatham, on such a provocation, would have made the thunder of the British cannon heard in the streets of St. Petersburgh.

It might have been supposed, that the disasters so lately experienced by Williamineff would at least have taught him to moderate his tone in addressing his vanquishers. It was not so. On the contrary, previously to opening the campaign of 1837, he summoned them to lay down their arms, in language of such inflated and ludicrous insolence, as could not fail to excite scorn and laughter. Abuse of England, and a peremptory demand of the most slavish submission, were backed by a threat, that their "valleys should be destroyed with fire and sword, and their mountains crushed like meal." Pilfering from the Poles a hyperbolical phrase, which was spoken in the time of their prosperity, the vaunting general exclaimed, "Do you not know that if the heavens should fall, Russia has power enough to support them on her bayonets? The other countries are good mechanics, artificers, &c.; but power rests with Russia alone!" Combining blasphemy with arrogance, he added, "If you wish peace, you must believe that there are but two powers—God in heaven, and the emperor on earth!" To this bombastic summons a calm and dignified defiance was returned by the Circassians.

The military performance of the year, on the part of Russia, was far indeed from coming up to the expectations which had been excited by the flourish of trumpets which preceded it. An army of 15,000 men, principally of Georgians, was collected in Mingrelia; another army of 8000 men and 24 pieces of artillery passed the Kuban; and a third force effected a landing on the coast at Ghelenjik. The whole ended in the construction of a fort at Pshat, and in marauding incursions. The latter were principally confined to the north, and executed during the night. Parties then entered the hamlets, swept away the women, children, and cattle, and mutilated the bodies of those who had fallen in resisting them. In their short march from Ghelenjik to Pshat, they sustained a loss of 500 men. In October, the emperor of Russia landed at Ghelenjik, where he remained for two days, and then proceeded by sea to Georgia. While he was at Ghelenjik, a fire broke out, which destroyed the whole of the biscuit and provender provided for the winter subsistence of the soldiers and cattle, and he himself was endangered by the flames spreading to the house in which he was lodged. Very soon after, the Russian armies retreated, and suffered considerably before they reached their own frontier. They were equally unfortunate by sea; ten of their transports being driven on the coast, and stranded, by a violent tempest.

Various causes had conspired, during the year, to frustrate the schemes of the invaders. The Georgians had manifested a determination not to fight against the Circassians, and had made this determination known to them; the Kabardans, and several other Circassian tribes, which yielded a nominal obedience to the autocrat, had refused to furnish a contingent to the war; numerous skirmishes had thinned the army, in which disease and dissatisfaction also prevailed; and Russia was also obliged to send troops against the Lesghees, Tshetshenses, and other warlike people of the eastern Caucasus. In the latter quarter the Russians met with a resistance not less vigorous than that which was opposed to them by the Circassians. A remarkable instance of this was afforded by the inhabitants of the small town of Aschilta. It was occupied by 2000 men, who had loopholed the walls of every house, and formed parapets on the roofs, barricaded the streets, erected two towers near the entrances, and sworn on the Koran to conquer or die. Three Russian columns, with artillery, attacked the place, and at last forced an entrance into it. A desperate fight, hand to hand, ensued in the streets, after which every house had to be taken by assault. The remnant of the defenders succeeded, however, in reaching the heights behind the village. Their courage was not yet shaken; animated by the exhortations of the priests, they made six successive and furious charges upon the Russian column, and did not retire from the field till there was no longer a hope of victory. Not a single individual surrendered, or prayed for mercy. In other parts of the eastern Caucasus many sanguinary engagements occurred, in which the Russians were often worsted; and the campaign ended without their having been able to reduce the hostile tribes to submission.

Early in the year 1838, the Russians began by assailing the tribes between the Kuban and the Caucasus. They succeeded in carrying off some cattle and unarmed persons, but were at length driven back with considerable slaughter. These inroads had also the effect of arousing against them some of the tribes which had hitherto preserved a neutrality. After this repulse, the greatest part of the troops was withdrawn from the Kuban, to assist in carrying on the plan of establishing a line of blockading forts along the coast of the Black Sea. Williamineff had been disgraced, and the command was now intrusted to General Rayevski. On the 24th of April five or six Russian men-of-war, and about twenty corvettes, gun-brigs, and transports, with 3000 men on board, anchored off Sudsuk, on the coast of the province of Abasa. Under cover of a hot fire and bombardment from the squadron, a disembarkation was effected, but not without a severe struggle; for a determined band of about 300 Circassians fell upon the invaders, killed 150 of them, and carried off several prisoners and three pieces of cannon. The Russians, however, who doubled the Cir-

cassians in numbers, finally maintained their ground, and set about constructing entrenchments. Their enemies retired no further than the neighbouring mountains, which looked down upon the Russian camp. In the course of a few days Rayevski called on the mountaineers to submit to slavery, and was answered in the same determined spirit as his predecessor had been. On this occasion, however, the tone of the Muscovite general was changed from menace to conciliation: it was on the English emissaries alone that he exhausted his vituperative powers. The tragedy of the battle, and the comedy of the summons, were succeeded by a broad farce. When some deputies from the mountaineers visited the camp of Rayevski, to demand the bodies of their slain comrades, the Russian officers benevolently endeavoured to persuade them to return the captured cannon, "as being things of more harm than use to them, seeing that they would burst them by not knowing the proper charges of powder!" Rayevski was not more fortunate in this proposal than in a dastardly offer which he made, of a reward of 2000 silver roubles to any one who would deliver Mr. Bell into his hands, or assassinate him.

While Rayevski was busy in erecting a fort upon one part of the coast, the Circassians were capturing one upon another part. They stormed a fort which had been constructed near Anapa, for the protection of a colony established there, and carried off the garrison, the ammunition, and three pieces of artillery. At the same period, the Muscovites were defeated in an attempted invasion of the province of Abazak. Sass, one of the most ferocious of the enemy's generals, crossed the Shagwashe with 2000 men, and was immediately assailed with such vigour, by an ambushed body of Abezaks, that most of his troops fell in the contest, or were drowned in endeavouring to recross the river.

Following up their plan, of girdling in the coast with forts, 35 sail of Russian vessels, of which 13 were mostly two-deckers, proceeded in a north-east direction to Toapse. On the 26th of May they landed the forces; the heavy cannonade from the ships, within 100 paces of the shore, rendering it impossible to prevent a disembarkation. Later in the year, the same operation was repeated at Shapsekwa, a few miles to the north-west of Toapse.

But the advantage of possessing three small and insulated spots of ground, was soon heavily counterbalanced by a disaster which befel the invaders. A large portion of the formidable Russian squadron had been left to cover the operations of the land forces. On the 11th of June, a violent storm arose from the south-west, and consequently blew right upon the dangerous shore. With the usual unseamanlike negligence of Russian sailors, no precaution had been taken against such an event; the ships, even the men-of-war, were anchored near the beach, some not further from it than ten fathoms. It was in this perilous situation that they were caught by a tempest more terrible than had been experienced in summer for many years; and the result was horrible. For miles along the coast the cries of the sufferers, struggling with the winds and waves, were distinctly heard; and the morning disclosed the beach strewed with the dead and the fragments of broken vessels. Between 20 and 30 sail, ships of the line, frigates, corvettes, brigs, steam-boats, and transports, were either buried under the billows, or lay stranded on the shore. Many of the crews perished wholly; many of those who escaped were made prisoners.

The spoil which fell into the hands of the Circassians, consisting of cannon, small arms, damaged powder, bales of goods, ship's stores, and other articles, was very great. The stranded wrecks they destroyed by fire. The garrison of the fort at Sashe twice sallied forth to hinder this from being done; but in both instances without success: of the second sallying party the majority were cut to pieces, not more than 100 returning to the fort, to the very gates of which they were hotly pursued. In gratitude to Providence, for this deliverance from the most annoying part of the enemy's force, the Circassians performed a great and solemn sacrifice; after which the bodies of the animals were distributed among the poorest of the people.

The constructing of a fort at Sújúk Kaleh, in continuation of the projected line of forts, was the last hostile operation of the Russian general. Having done this, he again called upon the Circassians to obey "the fortunate, the merciful, the great emperor." But his exhortations and threats were equally disregarded, and a contemptuous answer was returned. In November, the Circassians closed the campaign, on their side, by destroying a part of the garrison of the Shapsekwa fort, and inflicting a defeat on the Russian forces in the province of Shapsuk. At the eastern extremity of the Caucasus, the Russians were fully occupied throughout the year, in endeavouring to repress the Lesghees, Tshetshenses, and other mountain tribes.

Though their resources were much narrowed by the embargo which Russia had induced the Porte to lay upon the trade along the coast, the Circassians resolved to carry on the war with unabated vigour. Before it opened, they sent, as they had done in the preceding year, a memorial to the British sovereign, entreating her intervention in their favour. The Russians began hostilities on the 15th of May, by landing 12,000 men at Subesh, under the fire of a formidable squadron, consisting of 6 ships of the line, 4 frigates, 2 steamers, and 16 smaller vessels. The Circassians, though only one-sixth the number of their enemies, charged gallantly twice down the hill upon them, but were overwhelmed by the tremendous fire of cannon and musketry. Among the fifty bravest

nobles of the country who fell in this encounter, was Arslan-bi. Throwing away his rifle, and drawing his sabre, he exclaimed, "God! sooner or later, I must, I know, die—grant me that death now!" Then, accompanied by his brother, he rushed amidst the troops, and fell pierced by numerous bayonets. Another combatant, who displayed equal bravery, was more fortunate. After having deliberately stripped himself to his shirt and trowsers, he laid aside all his arms but his sabre, charged thrice with it, and cut his way through the soldiers without receiving a wound. So little were the Circassians daunted by this check, that, a few days afterwards, they invested the camp, and opened upon it a cannonade from a four-pounder on the top of an adjacent hill.

Towards the middle of June, the Russians effected a landing, by surprise, at Waïa, and constructed a fort there. In October they established another near Anapa, and ravaged the country in the line of the Abun. But these were their last offensive operations during the year. In no instance had they been able to penetrate into the interior, or to possess more ground than that which they stood upon. It was now the turn of the Circassians to assume the offensive. Mr. Bell had long impressed on them the feasibility and beneficial consequences of carrying some of the forts by a sudden assault, and they now resolved to make an experiment of his plan. At midnight, on the 9th of October, a band of Circassians gallantly scaled the walls of the fort of Sashe, put a part of the garrison to the sword, and for a while were masters of the place, the soldiers taking refuge in the barracks. The enterprise was, nevertheless, frustrated, partly by the confusion attendant on an assault in the dark, but still more by some of the assailants deviating from the plan which had been traced. The Circassians were consequently compelled to abandon the nearly-conquered fort.

In the eastern Caucasus, also, Russia had sufficient work upon her hands, and was not more successful in performing it. Shemil, a brave and active leader, had incited the Lesghees to take up arms again, and they made incursions into the neighbouring provinces. In September, General Grabbe marched against him with 6000 men, and found him in the town of Kashkul, which the chief had fortified. Shemil defended the place with great bravery; and it was not till after repeated efforts, seconded by a heavy cannonade, that the besiegers scaled the walls. The chief escaped, and was joined by several thousand partisans, with whom he maintained for some time a desultory warfare, which he crowned by completely defeating the Russians, under Colonel Wrangel, and thus compelling them to desist from hostilities, and retire into winter quarters.

The minor particulars of the campaigns subsequent to that of 1839 are wanting; but the *results* are not doubtful, and were highly *favourable* to the cause of the brave mountaineers. The Circassians were so far from being disheartened by the failure at Sashe, that they determined to follow up the system of attack in the campaign of 1840; their recent attempt had failed only through negligence, and it had taught them that the fortifications of their enemies were not inaccessible. They began by defeating a Russian column, which was marching along the coast. On the 19th of February, they advanced to the assault of the fort of Waïa. In the course of an hour, and with the loss of only twenty men, they were masters of it; and the remnant of the garrison, the women, guns, ammunition and stores, were all captured. Animated by this success, they, on the 11th of March, stormed the much more formidable fort of Toapse, situated to the northward of Waïa. This was a strongly-constructed work, with a block-house in the centre, serving as a citadel, and had a large garrison. The reduction of it was, of course, a difficult task to unscientific assailants; but it was gallantly accomplished. After a desperate combat of seven hours' and a half duration, the Circassians triumphed; all of the enemy that the sword and the rifle had spared were prisoners, and a rich booty, in arms and ammunition, became the prize of the victors. Only a week elapsed before another blow was struck against the Muscovites, by the capture of the fort of Abun, in the valley of the same name; a conquest the more valuable, as it covered the enemy's line of operations between the Kuban and the coast, and was intended to form the nucleus of a military colony. In the field, the invaders were not more fortunate: a considerable division of them being defeated in the neighbourhood of Gagra. Still following up their plan of reducing the forts, the Circassians subdued two or three others. Among the objects of their attack was Fort Michaeloff, which was garrisoned by 500 men. It was brought to the last extremity by the besiegers, when it was snatched from them by an act of heroism, which was worthy of a better cause than that for which it was performed. Abhorring the idea of a surrender, Ossipoff, a soldier of the Tengenski regiment, fired the powder magazine, and destroyed the fort. In memory of this act, the emperor ordered that his name should perpetually stand first on the roll of his regiment; and that, whenever the names were called over, the next soldier should reply, "Died for the glory of the Russian arms, at the fort of Michaeloff." Nothing of moment appears to have taken place during the remainder of the year.

Of the military operations since 1840, the accounts are very few and scanty. In Circassia they seem to have been confined to a guerilla warfare, and to predatory incursions. A Russian army of 45,000 men, with 80 pieces of cannon, is said to have been put in motion in the spring of 1840; but, as it had to repress Georgian discontent, and make head against the Tshetshenses, and other tribes of the

eastern Caucasus, no large portion of it could be spared for the war in Circassia. It was probably the weakness of the Russian army in that quarter, which gave rise to a project, (which, however, does not appear to have been carried into effect,) for transferring 1000 Montanegrin families to the Circassian frontier, in order to form a bulwark against the natives of a part of that country. One event occurred, in 1841, which deserves to be recorded, as showing the daring spirit of the free-born mountaineers. Tshuruk oku Tughuz, one of their chiefs, was returning from a voyage, in a small vessel, manned with about thirty sailors, when he was chased by a small Russian ship of war. Tshuruk allowed his pursuer to come within pistol-shot, and then poured in upon her, with his crew, a tremendous volley of rifle-shot. The Russian replied with his cannon; but, thanks to the skill of the Circassian crew, it produced comparatively little effect. The Russians dropped in numbers under the deadly fire; and the result of the contest was yet doubtful, when the coming up of a steamer, which was attracted by the cannonade, rendered impossible the further resistance of the chief and his companions.

Russia has now carried on hostilities for twelve years; and the annual waste of her army, by fatigue, disease, the sabre, and the musket, is estimated at from 15,000 to 20,000 men. But the loss has fallen most heavily on the officers, at whom the rifles of their enemies are perpetually and surely aimed. It is said, that there is not a single noble family in Russia, which has not to lament the fall of one or more of its members in this unrighteous contest.

The politician will rejoice that the exertions of the Circassians have hitherto thrown obstacles in the way of Russian aggrandizement and domination in Central Asia; and all who honour courage, and love liberty, will pray for the speedy triumph of a generous, brave, and high-minded people, who think

> "That 'tis much better, overthrown and broke
> In Freedom's cause, to sink into the grave,
> Than, in submission to a tyrant's yoke,
> Like the vile reed, to bow and be a slave."

THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN NORTHERN AND WESTERN ASIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION OF THE NORTHERN PART.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length,	4000	between	50. and 190. E. long.
Breadth,	1800		50. and 77. N. lat.

Containing 5,500,000 square miles. Georgia, and the other western Asiatic territories, are 600 miles in length, 480 in breadth, and contain 100,000 square miles.

Boundaries.—The Russian dominions in Asia are bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the seas of Kamtchatka and Okhotsk, or the Eastern Ocean; on the south by Chinese and Independent Tartary, Persia, and Turkey; and on the west by European Russia.

Divisions.—The following are the administrative divisions of Asiatic Russia:—*Kingdom of Kasan*, containing 5 governments: Kasan, divided into 12 circles; Wiatka, 10 circles; Perm, 12 circles; Simbirsk, 8 circles; Penza, 10 circles.—*Kingdom of Astrakhan*, 3 governments: Astrakhan, 4 circles; Saratow, 10 circles; Orenburg, 12 circles.—*Caucasian Provinces*, 8 governments: Georgia, including Ossetia; Caucasia; Daghestan: Immiretia; Mussulman provinces of Schirvan, Karabagh, Talischin, and Sichenkin; Armenia; Guriel; Mingrelia. Circassia is claimed as a ninth government; but it will be time enough to admit the Russian claim when Russia possesses the country.—*Kingdom of Siberia.* In 1822 the extensive territory of Siberia was divided into two general governments, called Eastern and Western Siberia. The Western includes the governments of Tobolsk, with 7 circles; Tomsk, 6 circles; and the province of Omsk, 2 circles. Eastern Siberia consists of the government of Yeneseisk, 4 circles; Iakutsk, 5 circles; and the provinces of Yakutsk, Okhotsk, and Kamtchatka. A small part of Siberia, to the east of the Ural mountains, is annexed to the government of Perm.

Mountains. The mountains of Asiatic Russia are the Uralian chain; and those of the Caucasus, Altai, Nershink, and Aldan.

Rivers.—Among the chief rivers of Northern Asiatic Russia, is the Obi, Oby, or Ob, the largest, though not the longest, of them all. It rises in the Altai mountains, and falls into the Arctic Ocean, after a course of nearly 2400 miles. It has numerous tributaries, the most important of which is the Irtish. The Yenesei, if we consider the Selenga as its principal branch, which it certainly is, has a longer course than any other Siberian river; the distance from the source of the Selenga to the Arctic Ocean being more than 2500 miles. The Lena, which rises in the Baikal mountains, and has several large affluents, falls into the Frozen Ocean, after having traversed an extent of about 2000 miles. Besides these, there are many rivers, which, having a length of from 500 to 700 miles, would, in other countries, be considered as important.

In the southern part of Siberia, near the confines of Chinese Tartary, is the lake or sea

of Baikal, 300 miles long, and about 35 broad. There are some lakes of less note, which we are not required to particularize.

METALS — MINERALS. — Siberia contains mines of gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, jasper, and lapis-lazuli; but those of gold and silver are not very productive. Asiatic Russia also affords sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre, and natron, in abundance.

CLIMATE — SOIL — PRODUCE. — The governments of the Caucasian region, and in general the southern parts, are exceedingly fertile, more from nature than industry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruit of almost all the kinds known in Europe, especially grapes, which are reckoned the largest and finest in the world. The summers are very dry, and, from the end of July to the beginning of October, the air is corrupted, and the soil sometimes ruined, by immense quantities of locusts. The climate of Siberia is extremely cold; but the air is so pure and wholesome, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to a very great age, if they were not so much addicted to an immoderate use of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almost to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radishes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; and currants and strawberries are said to grow here in as great perfection as in the English gardens; yet the great fruit-trees generally fail. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, with various edible roots, are found very generally here; but there are no bees in all Siberia.

ANIMALS. — These are camels, dromedaries, rein-deers, bears, bisons, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. The horses are of a good size for the saddle, and very hardy; but, as they run wild till they are five or six years old, they are generally headstrong. Near Astracan there is a bird, called by the Russians *baba*, of a grey colour, and larger than a swan: he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and, on seeing a shoal or fry of small fishes, spreads his wings and drives them to a shallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then, going ashore, eats them, or carries them to his young. This bird is probably a species of the pelican.

The forests of Siberia are well stocked with a variety of quadrupeds, some of which are not to be found in other countries. These supply the inhabitants with food and clothes, and, at the same time, furnish them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be considered as the native country of black foxes, sables, and ermines, the skins of which are here superior to those of any part of the world. Horses and cattle are in great plenty.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES. — Among these may be enumerated the extensive desert levels called *steppes*, which extend several hundred miles with scarcely a hill. They contain in many places salt lakes, and, in others, productive tracts capable of cultivation. The peninsula of Kamtchatka abounds in volcanoes; but their eruptions are very rare. The same country is likewise said to contain numerous springs of hot water.

POPULATION — INHABITANTS — MANNERS — CUSTOMS. — Considering the vast extent of Asiatic Russia, its population is extremely scanty. According to the latest census — which, however, is by no means strictly accurate — the kingdom of Kasan contains 6,408,800 inhabitants; the kingdom of Astrakhan, 3,594,(80); the Caucasian provinces, 1,649,000; Siberia, 2,649,160; and the islands, 17,000. The total population is, therefore, only 14,319,360.

In a survey of the inhabitants, the Georgians seem to claim our first notice. Their territory is bounded on the north by the highest ridge of Mount Caucasus; on the west, if we include Mingrelia, by the Euxine; on the south, by Armenia; and on the east, by Daghestan. The face of the country is mountainous, with an intermixture of extensive plains: it is watered by a considerable number of rivers; and the hills are covered with forests of pine, oak, ash, and beech, and are also enriched with the most valuable metals. The cotton plant, and the finest fruit trees, abound in the plains; and maize, rice, hemp, and flax, are raised with little culture: but wheat, rye, oats, and barley, do not thrive in this country; and, so indolent are the inhabitants, that they are frequently exposed, by their negligence and improvidence, to the danger of famine. Mr. Kinneir says, that it is perhaps the most beautiful and highly-favoured region in the world: and, though this eulogium seems too rapturous, other travellers praise the climate. An anonymous female writer says, that it resembles that of Naples; that the spring begins in the middle of January; that most of the fruit-trees are in blossom in the following month; and that vegetation in general is uncommonly vigorous and luxuriant.

The people, more particularly those of the higher class, resemble the Persians in their manners. They are as fond of imitating the customs, and speaking the language of that nation, as many of the Europeans are of copying the manners of the French. Some are now disposed to court the Russians by imitation; and it appears that they have borrowed from the latter the use of the cymbal and the flute, in addition to their own ancient instruments, the harp and the trumpet. They are courteous and hospitable to strangers, and display the appearance, if not the reality, of friendship. They formerly had an inclination for poetry and other branches of literature; but that taste appears to have declined among them. In arts and manufactures they are not very expert; for they make few articles,

carpets, in a skilful or workmanlike

g the Georgians the men are tall, easing features, and are well-propor- and the beauty and grace of the women erbial over the East. The latter are trictly watched, or guarded with such , as the females of Persia or Turkey; the other hand, do they enjoy that which is allowed to their sex in Eu- When they appear abroad, they wear s, and thus avoid the gaze of curiosity. marriages, it is not customary for the bridegroom to see the lady before the lay; but, though this custom precludes on which arises from the strong im- love, it is expected that a widow ament with the most outrageous grief n of her husband.

egard to religion, the Georgians follow ral system of the Greek church; but not so strict as to withhold toleration y particular sect. They boast that estors were Christians as early as the g of the fourth century, when they ler the government of an independent and they also boast of the number of urches, asserting that they have 3000 ; but many of these buildings are in hers are small and insignificant, and ts are in general very poor.

or Tiflis, the Georgian capital, is in a valley between the Kour and that n on which the citadel stands; and it siderable suburb on the other side of . On the south and west it is sur- by a ridge of barren rocks, and on the e snow-covered tops of the Caucasus n sight. The streets are very narrow gular; the houses, except those which n erected since the Russian conquest, om being well built, and only the best have glazed windows; and the greatest the town is usually in a most dirty d some of the warm baths are so foul ck the delicacy of all decent strangers. aths are eagerly frequented by both ot merely for the cure of rheuma- other disorders, but for pleasure and ion. There are some extensive bazaars wn, and several caravanserais; and a de occasionally enlivens the place, to en the commodities of India find their he population amounts to 20,000, of 0 are styled princes, while the minis- eligion are about the same number: leiate in a very ancient, spacious, and athedral, and in thirty-five other

e treaty which was concluded at i, in 1774, between the Russians and eorgia, over which the Porte had long remacy, as the Persians did before, lared independent, while Mingrelia, es considered as a part of that terri- left under the Turkish yoke. At the same time, the two Kabardas, on the north of the Caucasus, were placed under the control of Russia; but the people refused to submit to this arrangement; and it was not before the year 1779, that they were so humbled by the victories obtained over them in the field, as to give a nominal submission. Heraclius, the Georgian prince, dreading the hostilities of the Turks and Persians, solicited the protection of the empress Catharine, and became her vassal. Solomon, who ruled over Immiretia, a country lying to the west of Georgia Proper, left his principality, by his death, a prey to civil war, which furnished the emperor Paul with a pretence for farther encroachment; and Alexander confirmed and completed the acquisition. He pretended to govern the people by their own laws; but he took care that the native members of the administration should be overawed and influenced by Russian colleagues, and subjected to the penal code of their new masters.

The present capital of the province of Caucasia is Georgiewsk, which was founded in 1777. It was well fortified; but the houses are so slightly built, that they do not properly secure the inmates from the piercing winds of the neighbouring plain. The climate is apparently fine; but, though there are no morasses in the vicinity, malignant fevers and pestilential disorders frequently and destructively prevail.

The inhabitants of Asiatic Russia are composed of many different nations, principally Tartarian and Monghol tribes. Many of these communities now live in fixed houses and villages, and pay tribute like other subjects. Until lately, they were not admitted into the Russian armies, but now they make good soldiers. Many of the tribes retain their ancient habits, and live a wandering life.

The character of the Tartars of Kasan may serve for that of all the Mohammedan Tartars in their neighbourhood. Very few of them are tall; but they are generally straight and well made, have small faces, with fresh complexions, and a sprightly and agreeable air. They are haughty and jealous of their honour, but of very moderate capacity. They are sober and frugal, dexterous at mechanical trades, and fond of neatness. The Tartarian women are of a wholesome complexion rather than handsome, and of a good constitution: from their earliest infancy they are accustomed to labour, retirement, modesty, and submission. The men take great care of the education of their children, who are taught to read and write, and are instructed in the Arabic tongue, in the principles of their religion, and in sound morality. Even the smallest village has its chapel, school, priest, and schoolmaster. The best Tartarian academies in the Russian empire are those of Kasan, Tobolsk, and Astrakhan, which are under the direction of the gagouns, or high-priests. It is not uncommon to find small collections of historical anecdotes in manuscript, in the huts of the boors; and their

merchants, beside what those little libraries contain, are acquainted with the history of their own people, and that of the circumjacent states.

The Tartarian citizens of Kasan, Orenburg, and other governments, carry on commerce, exercise several trades, and have some manufactures. Their manner of dealing is chiefly by way of barter; coin is very rarely seen among them, and bills of exchange never. They are not in general very enterprising; but, as they extend their connexions by partners and clerks, many of them have extensive business, which their parsimonious way of life renders very lucrative. At Kasan they make a trade of preparing what is called, in England, morocco leather. The villages of these people comprehend from ten to one hundred farms. Most of them also contain tanners, shoemakers, tailors, dyers, smiths, and carpenters.

The habitations and manner of living of the Tartarian citizens and villagers of Astrakhan are perfectly similar to those of the Kasanians. In the city of Astrakhan they have a large magazine for goods, and carry on an important commerce with the Armenians, Persians, Indians, and Bokharans; and their manufactures of leather, cotton, camelots, and silks, are in a very thriving state.

The Chouwashes dwell in the governments of Kasan and Orenburg. They never live in towns, but assemble in small villages or huts, and choose the forests for their habitations. They are very fond of hunting, and procure for that purpose screw-barrel muskets, which they prefer to the bow. Among their marriage ceremonies one is mentioned, which seems intended to show the authority that a husband ought to have over his wife. On the wedding-night the bride is obliged to pull off the bridegroom's boots. The husband exercises a lordly authority over the wife, and she is obliged to obey all his commands without reply.

The Votiaks, who are a Finnish race, chiefly inhabit the government of Kasan. Some of them are Christians: but many are pagans, though even these believe the doctrine of a future state of rewards and punishments.

The Ostiaks, who are likewise a Finnish race, are one of the most numerous nations of Siberia. Before they were subject to Russia, they were regularly governed by princes of their own nation. They divide themselves into different stocks, or tribes, and choose their chiefs from the progeny of their ancient rulers. These maintain peace and good order, and superintend the payment of the taxes.

The Vogula are rather below the middle stature. Their principal occupation is the chase, in which they discover great eagerness and address; using indiscriminately fire-arms, the bow, and the spear. They are also skilful in contriving traps and snares for various kinds of game.

The Kalmucks are a branch of the Mogul, or *Monghol* nation, which originally inhabited the country to the north of China. They are in general raw-boned and stout. Their faces are so flat, that the skull of a Kalmuck may be easily known from others. They have thick lips, a small nose, and a short chin, with a complexion of a sallow brown. Their clothing is oriental, and their heads are exactly Chinese. Some of their women wear a large golden ring in their nostrils. Their principal food consists of animals, tame and wild: and even their chiefs will feed upon cattle that have died of distemper, or age, though the flesh may be putrid; so that, in every horde, the flesh-market has the appearance of a lay-stall of carrion: they eat likewise the roots and plants of their deserts. They eat freely, but can abstain for a long time. Both sexes smoke continually: during the summer they remain in the northern, and in the winter in the southern deserts. They sleep upon felt, or carpeting, and cover themselves with the same.

The Tongusians, who are of the race of the Mandshues, form a very numerous nation. They are under the middle stature, well made, and of a good mien. Their sight and hearing are remarkably acute and delicate; but their organs of smelling and feeling are considerably more blunt than ours. They are acquainted with almost every tree and stone within the circuit of their usual perambulation; and they can even describe a course of some hundred miles by the configuration of the trees and stones they meet with, and can enable others to take the same route by such descriptions. They are alert on horseback, good hunters, and very dexterous in the use of the bow, or the rifle. Captain Cochrane says, "They are characteristically honest and friendly, robbery being considered by them as unpardonable. They are thankful for kind treatment, but are exceedingly irascible, and will permit no one to abuse them. They bear fatigue, cold, and privations, to an extraordinary degree. The dress of each sex consists of a jacket and trowsers of the rein-deer skin, with the hair inside, and stockings and boots of the same material. They also wear caps and gloves of leather, and guards for the forehead, ears, nose, and chin; and their beds are made of the skin of a bear, or a deer, with a sort of blanket lined with fur, in the shape of a bag, in which their legs and feet are enclosed."

The Kamtchadals have a lively imagination, a strong memory, and a striking talent for imitation. Their chief employments are hunting and fishing. The chase furnishes them with sables, foxes, and other game. They are very expert at fishing, and are well acquainted with the proper seasons for it. They eat and drink great quantities; but, as what they eat is always cold, their teeth are very fine. Dogs are their only domestic animals: they put a high value upon them; and they travel in small carriages drawn by dogs. They believed the immortality of the soul, even before they were prevailed upon to embrace the Christian reli-

gion. They are superstitious to extravagance, and strangely capricious in the different enjoyments of life, particularly their convivial entertainments.

The manners of the Siberians were formerly so barbarous, that Peter the Great thought he could not inflict a greater punishment upon his capital enemies, the Swedes, than by banishing them to Siberia. The effect was, that the Swedish officers and soldiers introduced European usages and manufactures into the country, and thus contributed to the civilization of the inhabitants.

CHIEF TOWNS.—Astrakhan, situated on an island formed by the Volga, near its entrance into the Caspian Sea, is a large and populous city, containing about 46,000 inhabitants. It is about a league in circumference, and is surrounded by a wall. It is well supplied with churches, and is the seat of a Russian and an Armenian archbishop. Its principal exports are dry and salted fish and caviare. The sturgeon fishery alone has produced in a year more than £80,000, and above 30,000 barrels of caviare have been annually exported.

Kasan is occupied by about 60,000 persons. It is situated partly on a declivity, and partly on a swampy plain. Many parts of the town are well built, and it exhibits some handsome churches, one of which gave rise to the admired Kasan church at Petersburgh, though its architecture would rather seem to denote a theatre. It has lately been devastated by a terrible fire, which destroyed 2000 houses, and many public buildings.

Orenburg, formerly the capital of the government of the same name, was built in 1738, by order of the empress Anne, at the conflux of the Or and Ural: but, that situation being found inconvenient, the inhabitants were removed, and the town was built lower down on the Ural, in 1740. The population is 20,000. It is now a place of considerable trade. The capital, however, has been transferred to Ufa, or Oufa, which is situated on the river of the same name, and has only 6000 inhabitants.

Tobolsk, the capital of Western Siberia, stands at the confluence of the Irtish and the Tobol. It consists of two towns, the upper and lower, both of which are secured by walls, towers, and bastions. The population scarcely exceeds 20,000, and the trade declines in consequence of the rivalry of Irkutsk; but it is an agreeable abode, because the inhabitants are social and friendly, places of amusement common, and provisions abundant.

Irkutsk, the seat of government for Eastern Siberia, has wide streets and respectable public buildings; but most of the houses are constructed of wood. The population is about 20,000. It has a flourishing traffic, as the caravans which trade between Russia and China pass through it. Tomsk, on the Toura, is also a commercial town, containing about 10,000 inhabitants. Yakutsk, on the Lena, with 4000 inhabitants, is an ill-built town, but by no means destitute of trade, it being one of the best fur markets in Siberia. Okotsk has about 1600 inhabitants, whose maritime situation renders it convenient for many of them to become ship-builders, and finds employment for others in salt-works.

The towns in the peninsula of Kamtchatka are poor and insignificant, except New Kamtchatka and Bolcheretsk, which make a decent appearance.

The nearest town to the Chinese frontier is Kiakta, which is neatly and regularly built of wood, and contains 4000 inhabitants. At this spot a mere brook separates the two empires: the Chinese have a small unfortified town near it, and no marks of jealousy appear between the traders on each side.

MANUFACTURES — COMMERCE. — There are manufactures of silk, leather, and isinglass, at Astrakhan; and a considerable trade is carried on there in salt, produced in great quantities from the salt lakes and marshes in the vicinity of the Caspian Sea; as also in fish, procured from the same sea. To Persia, woollen cloth, linen, furs, iron, steel, and lead, are sent from the same city: and the imports are silk, cotton, tapestry, drugs, gold, pearls, and diamonds. The principal trade of Siberia is in sables and other furs, which are purchased with avidity by the Chinese, who in return bring tea, silk, and other commodities.

RELIGION.—Many of the Tartars, since the Russians have been settled in their country, have become converts to Christianity; but the majority are still attached to their old superstitions.

Tobolsk is an archbishopric; Irkutsk and Nershinsk are episcopal sees.

ANTIQUITIES.—In the environs of Astrakhan the ruins of the old city are very visible; and the rubbish and ramparts of another respectable town still exist near Tzaritzin, on the left shore of the Volga. Below the mouth of the Kama, which flows into that river, are many superb monuments of the ancient city Bulgari, consisting of towers, mosques, houses, and sepulchres, all built of stone or brick. The oldest epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries; and the most modern, at least four hundred years. Not far from this spot, on the Cheremcham, are found ruins more injured by the depredations of time; they are those of Boulmer, an ancient and considerable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the small town of Bilyairsk. In the fortress of Kasan is a monument of the Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are so broad, that they serve at present for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn stone. Ascending the river Kasanha, we meet with epitaphs, and the strong ramparts of the old city of Kasan. Near the Ufa are cemeteries and sepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are still seen near Tobolsk. The lofty walls of

Tontoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the Om; and near the mouth of the Ural are the ditches of the city Sarachik. In many parts of Siberia, particularly near the Yenisei, are stone tombs with rude sculptures of human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, &c. There are also immense tumuli in various places. One of them, near Koorgan, has a circumference of nearly 500 feet. In these tombs are found human bones, as also the bones of horses and oxen, fragments of earthenware, and various ornaments and trinkets.

History.—The Russians, though they had made some incursions into the interior parts of Asia, as early as the middle of the 15th century, had no regular establishments there before the middle of the 16th, when Strogonoff, a merchant of Archangel, having found means to open a trade for furs with Siberia, the czar then on the throne, Ivan Vasilievitch, to whom he disclosed the nature of his connexions, promised him protection, and in 1558 assumed the title of Lord of Sibir, or Siberia. Soon after, Yermak, a chief of the Don Cossacks, being compelled by the progress of the Russian conquests to submit, or seek some distant place of refuge, retired with a number of his followers into Siberia, where, having defeated the Tartar khan of Sibir, he seized his capital, and made it his residence; but, finding himself too weak to preserve his acquisitions, he applied to Russia for aid and protection, and sent a deputation to do homage to the czar as his sovereign. In the course of two or three years, almost all the Cossacks were killed in repeated battles, and Yermak was drowned in attempting to leap into a boat. The Russians, at length, after many conflicts, secured to themselves the possession of this extensive country, and by the middle of the 17th century had advanced to the Amur, where they built some forts, which occasioned hostilities between them and the Chinese, who destroyed the Russian forts. These disputes were terminated by the treaty of Nertshinsk, concluded in 1689, by which the Argoun was made the boundary of the Russian and Chinese territories. The limits of the former were enlarged in 1727. Kamtchatka was reduced under the power of the Russians about the year 1711.

ASIATIC ISLANDS BELONGING TO THE RUSSIANS.

The sea which separates the southern point of Kamtchatka from Japan, contains a number of islands in a position from N. E. to S. W., called the Kurile Islands. They are upwards of 20 in number, are all mountainous, and in several of them are volcanoes and hot springs. The principal islands are inhabited; but the small ones are unpeopled. They differ much from each other, both in situation and natural constitution. The forests in the northern isles are almost entirely composed of pines; those in the southern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In some of them are bears and foxes. Sea-otters appear on the coasts, as well as whales, sea-horses, seals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants have a great likeness to the Japanese, in their manners, language, and personal appearance; others much resemble the Kamtchadals. The northern islands acknowledge the sovereignty of Russia; those of the south that of Japan. The Kurilians display much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hospitable. They are chiefly employed in hunting, taking sea-animals and whales, and catching fowl. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern isles they sew with, and make cloth of, the thread of nettles. The southern islanders are more refined than the northern, and carry on a sort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they take Japanese utensils of metal and varnished wood, sabres, different stuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, and all sorts of trinkets and small ware.

Between the eastern coast of Kamtchatka, and the western coast of America, are various groups of islands, divided by Mr. Muller into four principal groups; the first two of which are called the Aleutian Islands. The first, which is called by some of the islanders Sasignam, comprehends—1. Behring's Island, which is 90 miles in length and 25 miles in breadth; 2. Copper Island; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The second is called Khao, and comprises Immak, and seven other islands. The third general name is Negbe, and comprehends the islands called by the Russians Andreanoffski Ostrova; sixteen of which are mentioned by geographers. The fourth is called Kavalang, and also includes sixteen islands; which are denominated Lysie Ostrova, or the Fox Islands.

Some of these are only inhabited occasionally for a few months, and others are very thinly peopled; but some have a great number of inhabitants constantly resident. Copper Island received its name from the copper which the sea throws upon its coasts. The inhabitants are in general short, with stout but supple limbs. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian isles live upon the roots which grow wild, and sea-animals; but they do not catch fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds and sea-otters.

The Fox Islands are so called from the black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The native dress consists of a cap, and a fur coat which reaches to the knees. Some wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore-part of their hunting and fishing-caps they place a small board like a

reen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea-ears, and ornamented with glass beads. At eir festivals and dancing parties they use a uch more showy sort of cap. They feed pon the flesh of all sorts of sea-animals, and enerally eat it raw. But, if at any time they hoose to dress it, they make use of a hollow tone: having placed their fish or flesh therein, ey cover it with another, and close the inter-tices with lime or clay. They then lay it orisontally upon two stones, and light a fire nder it. The provision for keeping is dried ithout salt in the open air. Their weapons onsist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for de-ence they use wooden shields. The most erfect equality reigns among them, and they ave neither laws nor punishments. They live ogether in families, and in societies of several amilies united, which form what they call a ace, who, in case of an attack or defence, aid nd support each other. The inhabitants of he same island always pretend to be of the ame race; and every person looks upon his sland as a possession, the property of which s common to all the individuals of the same ociety. Feasts are usual among them, parti-ularly when the inhabitants of one island are isited by those of the others. The men of the illage meet their guests beating drums, and receded by the women, who sing and dance. At he conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up heir best provisions, and invite their guests to artake. They feed their children, when very oung, with the coarsest flesh, and generally aw. If an infant cries, the mother carries it o the sea-side, and, whether it be summer or inter, holds it naked in the water until it is uiet. This custom hardens them against the old, so that they go barefooted through the winter without inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings: but when they wish to warm themselves, they light a bundle of hay and stand over it; or they set fire to train-oil, poured into a hollow stone. They have some share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but, if an injury, or even a suspicion only, should rouse them from this phlegmatic state, they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

In the Frozen Ocean, between the mouths of the Lena and the Indigerka, in latitude 75 degrees, there is a group of islands, which bears the name of the Liakhov Isles, or New Siberia. These islands are remarkable for the immense quantity of mammoth bones which they contain. "The whole soil of the first of the Liakhov islands appears to consist of them. For about 80 years the fur hunters have annually brought large cargoes from this island; but as yet there is no sensible diminution of the stock. The tusks on the islands are much more fresh and white than those of the continent. A sand-bank on the western side was the most productive of all; and the fur hunters maintain that, when the sea recedes after a long continuance of easterly winds, a fresh supply of mammoth bones is always found to have been washed upon this bank, proceeding apparently from some vast store at the bottom of the sea."

INDEPENDENT TARTARY, OR TURKESTAN.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length,	1050	between	35. and 52. N. lat.
Breadth,	1100		55. and 78. E. long.

Containing about 1,000,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.—On the east, he mountains of Belur separate this part of 'artary from Little Bokhara, which is now ubject to the Chinese; on the south, the ountains of Ghoor and the Hindoo Kosh ivide it from Persia and the provinces of Can-har and Cabul, in Affghanistan. Its boun-aries, on the west, are the Caspian Sea, the ver Ural or Yaik, and the Uralian mountains; nd, on the north, the Russian dominions in ia. It is divided into the khanates of Bok-ra, Khokand, Khiva, Koondooz, and some here of less importance, and the districts ccupied by the Karakalpaks, Kirghises, and Turkomans. Bokhara, which has eight provinces, is the most powerful of the khanates. The second place is held by Khokand. Khiva, or Ourjend, is the most extensive; but a great part of its territory is a desert.

MOUNTAINS—LAKES—RIVERS.—The principal mountains of this country are the Belur Tag, the ancient Imaus, and the mountains of Argoun and of Ghoor. The most considerable lakes are that of Aral, about 200 miles in length, and 70 in breadth; and that of Balcash, or Tenghiz, 140 miles long and 70 broad. The chief rivers are the Amu, Gihoun, or Oxus, and the Syrderia, or Sihoun. The former has its source in a lake in the mountains of Belur, and falls into the lake of Aral, after a course of above 1000 miles; the latter rises among the same mountains, and falls into the same lake, after a course of about 550 miles.

METALS — MINERALS. — Gold, silver, iron, copper, vitriol, and sal ammoniac, are among the products of this country. Rich quarries of lapis lazuli abound in Great Bokhara, and several kinds of valuable stones, particularly rubies, are found there.

CLIMATE — SOIL — PRODUCE.—The climate appears to be temperate and salubrious; and the soil, in the southern parts at least, very productive; for the grass, it is said, sometimes grows there above the height of a man. Rice, and other kinds of grain, as also exquisite melons, pears, and apples, are among the productions of Great Bokhara.

ANIMALS.—The animals here are nearly the same as in Thibet, the north of Persia, and other adjacent countries. The grunting ox, chamois, and wild ass, are found among the mountains.

INHABITANTS — MANNERS — CUSTOMS.—The Kirghises, who inhabit the northern part of this country, lead a wandering life. They consist of three great hordes, each of which has its khan. They dwell in portable huts, and remove to different places in search of pasturage, which constitutes their principal occupation. Many of them have horses, camels, cattle, sheep, and goats, in abundance, and those who have none commit depredations in strong parties upon the rest: this practice they do not deem criminal; but, when an individual robs, he is punished with death.

They have flat noses, small eyes, a sharp, but not a fierce look, and a frank and prepossessing air. The decoration of their horses employs them almost as much as that of their persons; they have generally elegant saddles, handsome housings, and ornamented bridles. They wear a vest, a short robe, and very long trowsers. They are addicted to gluttony, and they smoke tobacco to excess. Men, women, and children, all smoke and take snuff, which they usually keep in little horns fastened to their girdles. The great and wealthy pass their lives like the rest of the people, and are distinguished only by the numerous train that accompanies their cavalcades, and the number of huts which surround their quarters, inhabited by their wives, children, and slaves.

Their chief amusements are wrestling, racing, shooting at a mark, and hunting. Many, says Nazarof, go to the chase with dogs and large eagles: they take the latter before them on the saddle, with the head covered. As soon as they see a hare, a fox, or a wild goat, they take off the bird's hood, when it instantly pounces on its prey, seizes it in its talons, and holds it until its master comes up. They are so fond of these birds, that a hunter will sometimes give several horses, and even Kalmuck captives, for one of them. The women frequently join the men on these occasions, and also in the battle field.

The same author distinguishes the tribes of Turkestan from the Kirghises, and represents them as less bold and spirited, but more civilized and industrious, and, though crafty, more upright in their dealings.

The Usbecks, who inhabit the southern parts of this country, are addicted to predatory warfare, and frequently make sudden incursions into the Persian provinces. Many of these Tartars reside in tents in the summer, but take up their abode in the towns and villages during the winter. Those of Balkh are the most civilized, and carry on a considerable trade with Persia and Hindoostan. The Bokharans belong to this race; but the Taujicks seem to be of a different origin. They have fair complexions and well-formed countenances, and their women are praised for their beauty. They are more stationary than the Usbecks, and more attached to agriculture and mechanic occupations than to pasturage.

CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS.—Samarkand, situated on the southern bank of the river Kohuk, was anciently Timur's seat of empire. It then contained 150,000 inhabitants; it has now not more than 10,000. It is one of the cities of the khanate of Bokhara; and has some manufactures of paper, silk, and cotton.

Of Bokhara, which stands on the same river, and is the capital of the khanate, the houses are meanly built; but many of the mosques, caravanserais, and colleges, are handsome structures; and the town flourishes in population, as it is said to contain at least 100,000 inhabitants. Balkh, on the Dehash, is also large and populous, with houses of brick and stone, and a palace or castle built almost entirely of marble.

Tashkend, formerly the capital of an independent state, but now belonging to Khokand, is still a considerable town, situated in a fertile country, and containing within the walls many fine vineyards and very productive gardens. It is a place of great resort, both for traffic and for amusement.

Khokand is a large city, capital of the khanate of the same name, built in the midst of a well-cultivated territory, the soil of which is remarkably impregnated with salt. It abounds with mosques; and in its vicinity, as well as in many other parts of Tartary, are curious ruins of ancient buildings.

Khiva is the chief town of Khowaraem, which was a flourishing kingdom in the middle ages, and is still an independent state, under the government of a khan. It is a place of some trade; and we are sorry to observe, that slaves are among the articles of traffic. The male inhabitants are prone to sensual indulgence, and are in general rude and uncivilized; and the women, though handsome in their persons, are not very elegant in their manners.

TRADE.—The Kirghises trade with the Russians: their traffic is entirely carried on by barter, and they exchange their horses, cattle, and sheep, for manufactures, principally clothing and furniture. Arms of every kind are refused to them by the Russians; but they procure them by the same kind of barter, from the southern parts of the country.

The Bokharans are a very commercial people:

ir caravans travel through a great part of ia, and traffic with Persia, Thibet, China, d Russia. Their lamb-skins are in great quest; they also dispose of wool, cotton stuffs their own manufacture, vests, and the silken ticles of Hindoostan, beside salt-petre and ied fruit.

GOVERNMENT—RELIGION.—This is, for the ost part, despotic. The religion of almost all e Tartarian tribes is that of Mohammed, acrding to the tenets of the sect of Omar.

LEARNING.—The reader may be surprised to nd this article in an account of the Tartars; t, nothing is more certain than that, under enghiz and Timur, and their early descendnts, Western Tartary was the seat of learning nd politeness, as well as of empire and magificence. Modern luxury, be it ever so splendid, falls short of that of those princes. The ncouragement of learning was the first care of the prince, and it was generally cultivated by his own relatives and the grandees. They wrote in the Persian and Arabic tongues. The name of Ulug Beg, the grandson of Timur, is well known to astronomers; and Abulgazi, the khan of Khowarasm, wrote the history of his country. Samarkand was a celebrated university for eastern science, and, even in the last century, was a flourishing school for Mohammedan literature.

ANTIQUITIES.—These consist of the ruins of edifices erected by Genghiz, Timur, and their successors. Remains of ditches and ramparts are frequently found, which either surrounded small towns, now demolished, or were intended for the defence of military positions. Many of them are still in tolerable preservation. In the uncultivated tracts occupied by the Kirghises, are many relics of opulent cities. Some gold and silver coins have likewise been found, with several manuscripts, neatly written, some of which are in the language of Thibet, while others are of a doubtful nature.

HISTORY.—In our account of Chinese Tartary, we shall take some notice of the history of this country.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

THIS empire includes China Proper, Chinese Tartary, and Thibet; the Chinese emperors of the Tartarian race having, within the last century, greatly extended their authority and influence over the wandering hordes inhabiting the countries to the north and the west of China. We shall treat separately of these divisions.

CHINA PROPER.

The Chinese call their country *Chong Qua*, or the kingdom of the centre, because they consider China not only as situated in the middle of the world, but as its most distinguished region. The name of China (in the East Chin, or Tsin) is derived, by some, from one of their ancient monarchs of that name, who reigned, it is said, about two centuries before the Christian era; and, by others, from the word *chin*, signifying silk.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1400	} between	{	22. and 41. N. lat.
Breadth, 1100	}	{	100. and 121. E. long.

Containing 1,200,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES.—China is bounded by Chinese Tartary and a long wall on the north; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the east; by the Chinese Sea, on the south; and by the Tartarian countries and Thibet, on the west.

DIVISION AND POPULATION.—The empire is divided into 16, or, more correctly speaking, the 18 provinces, each of which might, for its extent, fertility, populousness, and opulence, rank as a distinct kingdom. *Northern Provinces.*—Pe-che-lee, Shan-tung, and Shan-see. *Central.*—Kiang-nan, (divided into Kiang-su and Gan-hwuy,) Tche-kiang, Kiang-see, Ho-nan, and Hou-quang, (divided into Hou-pe and Hou-nan.) *Southern.*—Quang-tung, (or Canton,) Fo-kien, and Quang-see. *Western.*—Shen-see, Kan-see, Se-tchuen, Koei-tcheou, and Yun-nan.

The population of China has been variously calculated; Staunton estimates it at 333,000,000, the younger Mr. Morrison raises it to 367,659,897, while Allerstain reduces it to 198,214,624. There are circumstances which authorize a belief, that the real number may be found about midway between the estimates of Allerstain and Staunton.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY—MOUNTAINS.—The appearance of the country in China is very diversified, as every extensive region may be expected to be. The provinces of Yun-nan, Koei-tcheou, Se-tchuen, and Fo-kien, are so mountainous as greatly to obstruct cultivation; and that of Tche-kiang has lofty and precipitous mountains on the west. In the province of Kiang-nan there is a district full of high mountains, which are also numerous in the provinces of Shen-see and Shan-see. The greater part of the country, however, is level, and most assiduously cultivated.

FORESTS.—Such is the industry of the Chinese, that they are not encumbered with forests or woods, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They suffer, indeed, none to grow but for ornament and use, or on the sides of mountains, whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

LAKES.—China contains several extensive

lakes, as that of Tong-ting, in the province of Hou-quang, which is about eighty leagues in circumference, and that of Po-yang, in the province of Kiang-see, thirty leagues in circuit. The lakes of Weechan-hoo and Tai-hoo are also remarkable for their picturesque scenery. On some of these lakes a singular method of fishing is practised. Thousands of small boats and rafts are employed, and in each boat about ten or a dozen birds, which, at a signal from the owner, plunge into the water, and bring out in their bills fish of an enormous size. They are so well trained, that it does not require either ring or cord round their throats to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master is pleased to return them for encouragement and food. The boat is of a very light construction, and is often carried to the lake, with the birds, by the fishermen.

Rivers.—The two principal rivers of China are the Hoang-ho and the Kian-ku, or Yang-tse-kiang; the former, called the Yellow River, from its discolourment by the mud which its waters bring down, has its source among the mountains of Thibet, and falls into the Yellow Sea, after a course of 1850 miles. The Kian-ku, or Yang-tse-kiang, rises near the source of the Hoang-ho, and, after passing the city of Nankin, falls into the sea about one hundred miles to the south of the mouth of the Hoang-ho, having traversed a course of 2000 miles. There are many rivers of inferior note, though of great magnitude, in China; but the water of this country is in general very indifferent, and, in some places, must be boiled to make it fit for use.

Canals.—These are sufficient to entitle the ancient Chinese to the character of a most wise and industrious people. The commodiousness and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn stones; and they are so deep, that they carry large vessels; the Great Canal extends above 700 miles in length. Those vessels are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by some—though it is evidently a gross error—that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. The canals are furnished with stone quays, and sometimes with bridges of an amazing construction. The navigation is slow, and the vessels are sometimes drawn by men. No precautions are neglected that can be formed by art or perseverance, for the safety of the passengers, if a canal be crossed by a rapid river, or exposed to torrents from the mountains. These canals, and the variety that is seen upon their borders, render China delightful in a high degree, as well as fertile, in places which are not so by nature.

Metals—Minerals.—China, if we are to believe some naturalists, produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper, called by the Chinese pe-tong, is peculiar to that country; it has a beautiful colour, takes a high polish, and can scarcely be *distinguished* from silver. Tutenague is another peculiar metal, a mine of which, in the province of Hou-quang, yielded many hundredweight in the course of a few days. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chinese government is that of not introducing a superabundance of gold and silver, for fear of diminishing industry. Their gold-mines, therefore, are partially and slightly worked; and the currency of that metal is supplied by the grains which the people find in the sand of rivers and mountains. The silver specie is furnished from the mines of Ho-nan.

Mines of iron, lead, and tin, must be very common, since these metals are sold at a low rate in all parts of China; and it appears, from authentic documents, that the use of iron in particular was very ancient in that country. Mercury, in the form of cinnabar, is abundant, especially in Shan-see. Quarries and coal-mines also abound in almost every province. Coals are found in great plenty in the mountains of the provinces of Shen-see, Shan-see, and Pechee-lee; they are used by workmen in their furnaces, in all kitchens, and in the stoves with which the Chinese warm their apartments during the winter.

Climate—Soil—Agriculture.—The climate of China varies according to the situation of the places. Towards the north it is cold, in the middle mild, and in the south hot. The soil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of everything that can minister to the necessities, conveniences, or luxuries of life; and agriculture is carried to a high degree of excellence.

Vegetables.—Many of the rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in China, and some are peculiar to that country.

The tallow-tree, which grows on the hills of Tche-kiang and Kiang-nan, has a short trunk, a smooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, shaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit which it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and, when manufactured with oil, answers the purpose of a candle; but it has a strong smell, and is rather soft. Of the other trees peculiar to China, some yield a kind of flour; some partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of some is poisonous, but affords fine varnish. After all that can be said of these, and other beautiful and useful trees, the Chinese, notwithstanding their industry, are so wedded to their ancient customs, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The same may be said of their richest fruits, which, in general, are far from being so delicious as those of Europe, or indeed of America. This is because the Chinese never practise grafting or inoculation of trees. In ornamental gardening, however, and in the cultivation of esculent vegetables, they display considerable skill, and they have an art of dwarfing or stunting forest trees which is peculiar to the country.

The tea-plant deserves more particular no-

unted in rows, and pruned to pre-
cy. "Vast tracts of hilly land,"
ge Staunton, "are planted with
' in the province of Fo-kien. Its
growth is impeded for the con-
llecting its leaves, which is done
;, and twice afterwards in the
summer. Its long and tender
ig up almost from the root, with-
ening naked trunk. It is bushy
e, and the expanded petals of the
ine resemblance to that of the
nformation received concerning
concurred in affirming that its
ided both upon the soil in which
ie age at which the leaves were
e tree, as well as upon the ma-
them afterwards. The largest
es, which are the least esteemed,
or the use of the lowest classes
are often exposed to sale with
manipulation, still retaining that
able taste which is common to
ants, but which vanishes in a
ilst the more essential flavour,
of each particular vegetable, re-
ithout diminution. The young
o no inconsiderable preparation
re delivered to the purchaser.
sses through the fingers of a
olls it up almost to the form it
efore it became expanded in the
growth. It is afterwards placed
es of earthenware, or iron, made
than can be executed by artists

It is confidently said, in the
no plates of copper are ever em-
purpose. Indeed, scarcely any
China is of that metal, the chief
which is for coin. The earthen
are placed over a charcoal fire,
ll remaining moisture from the
ng them dry and crisp. The
ingency of green tea are thought
from the early period at which
plucked, and which, like unripe
ally green and acrid."

ese had the use of tea long be-
h; but it was introduced among
e the Restoration, as mention is
the first act of parliament that
ise on the king for life, in 1660.
isbon, wife to Charles II., ren-
f it common at his court. The
ious among the Chinese, as the
dy, and monopolized even by
, is now found to be merely a
and is abundant in North Ame-
ought to Europe, it is little dis-
its healing qualities.

The lion is not found in China;
at, tiger, lynx, leopard, rhinoce-
lo, antelope, and wild boar, are
ountry. Camels of a very small
f which are not higher than
nd there, beside several species
of deer, among which is the musk-deer. The horses are smaller than those of England, coarse, and ill-shaped, and are not very strong or active; but the asses are large and well-shaped, and the mules in general are fine animals.

CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.—Few natural curiosities present themselves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanoes, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found in different parts of the empire. The volcano of Linesung is said sometimes to make so furious a discharge of fire and ashes, as to occasion a tempest in the air; and some of the lakes are asserted to petrify fishes when put into them.

The artificial mountains present, on their tops, temples, monasteries, and other edifices. The Chinese bridges cannot be sufficiently admired; they are built sometimes upon barges strongly chained together, yet so as to be parted, and to let the vessels pass that sail up and down the river. Some of them are carried across lakes, and others connect mountains. The masonry of many of these structures is well executed. The pâi-loo, or triumphal arches of this country, as they are erroneously called by Europeans, form the next species of artificial curiosities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman style of architecture, yet they are superb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vast labour and expense. They are said in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. The sepulchral monuments make likewise a great figure. The ta, or towers, the models of which are now so common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are striking embellishments to the face of the country. They seem to be constructed in regular order, and all of them are finished with exquisite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nan-king, which consists of 9 stories, and is 200 feet high, and 40 feet in diameter, is the most admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, because it is lined with Chinese tiles. The temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taste in which they are built, for their capaciousness, their whimsical ornaments, and the ugliness of the idols which they contain. The Chinese are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal festivals. A bell at Pekin weighs 120,000 pounds: but its sound is said to be disagreeable. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and susceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleasing elegance, not destitute of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and present a diversity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

NATIONAL CHARACTER — MANNERS — CUSTOMS.—The Chinese, in their persons, are middle-sized, their faces broad, their eyes black

and small, their noses blunt and turned upwards; they have high cheek-bones, and large lips. They have particular ideas of beauty; they pluck up the hairs from the lower part of the face, by the roots, with tweezers, leaving a few straggling ones to serve for a beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of the head, and, like Mohammedans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, toward the north, is fair, but in the south, swarthy: corpulence is esteemed a beauty in a man, but considered as a blemish in the fair sex, who aim at preserving a slimness and delicacy of shape. Men of quality and learning, who are not much exposed to the sun, are delicately complexioned; and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to show that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump rosy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate, though florid complexion. The smallness of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no swathing is omitted when they are young, to give them that accomplishment; so that, when they grow up, they may be said to totter rather than to walk.

"Of most of the women we saw," says Sir George Staunton, "even in the middle and inferior classes, the feet were unnaturally small, or rather truncated. They appeared as if the fore-part of the foot had been accidentally cut off, leaving the remainder of the usual size, and bandaged like the stump of an amputated limb. They undergo, indeed, much torment, and cripple themselves in a great measure, in imitation of ladies of a higher rank, among whom it is the custom to stop by pressure the growth of the ancle as well as foot, from the earliest infancy, and, leaving the great toe in its natural position, forcibly to bend the others, and retain them under the foot, till at length they adhere to, as if buried in the sole, and can no more be separated. It is said, indeed, that this practice is now less frequent than formerly, at least among the lower sort in the northern provinces."

The exterior demeanour of the Chinese is very ceremonious. It consists of various evolutions of the body, and inclinations of the head; in bending or stiffening the knees, and in joining or disengaging the hands; all which are considered as the perfection of good breeding and deportment; while the nations who are not expert in such discipline are thought to be little better than barbarians. When, however, these ceremonies are once shown off, the performers of them relapse into ease and familiarity. In their address to strangers they are not restrained by any bashfulness, but present themselves with an easy, confident air, as if they deemed themselves the superiors, and as if nothing in their manners or appearance could be deficient or objectionable.

By some speakers and writers, the Chinese have been represented as the most dishonest people in the world, employing quickness only to improve the ar the nations with which they d the Europeans, whom they ch ease, particularly the Englis observe that none but a Chines Chinese. Duplicity and deceit, notoriously prevalent among th diality of friendship is very rare lence is far from being the ge and exterior and mechanical fe attended to than the actual pra This picture is perhaps somewh in its colouring; but the repres a great measure, founded on tr eating the Chinese are the least on earth. Nothing comes an Animals that have died of ag horses, dogs, cats, mice, rats, an —all is devoured.

Dress.—This varies accordi tinctions of rank, and is enti regulation of the law, which has colours that distinguish the di tions. The emperor, and prince have alone a right to wear y mandarins are entitled to wear ground, but only upon days of general they are clothed in b violet. White is only worn for cannot be too much soiled for th avoid every appearance of pers ornament. The hue to which people are restricted is blue their dress is always composed cloth. The men wear caps on the fashion of a bell; those of per are ornamented with jewels. T dress is easy and loose, consis and sash, a coat or gown thro silk boots quilted with cotton, drawers. Dress is seldom alt from fancy or fashion. Even in the ladies there is little variet haps, in the disposition of the fi ornaments of the head. They over a silk netting, which is in l waistcoat and drawers of silk, tri in cold weather with furs. Abo a long satin robe, which is grace round the waist, and confined The various parts of their appa each of a different colour. Th nails to grow, but reduce their e arched line.

Marriages.—The parties m other before the matrimonial b cluded by the parents, and tha when they are children. When are celebrated, the lady is carri seen by the bridegroom) in a g chair, hung round with festoon flowers, and followed by relative and servants, bearing the paraph the only portion given with a marriage. Next to being barre

to bring females into the world: woman of a poor family have three or successively, it is not uncommon for pose them on a road, or throw them ver; for, in China, parents who cannot their female children are allowed to em into the river; but they fasten a to the child, that it may float on the ; and there are often compassionate s of fortune, who are moved by the cries children to save them.

RIALS.—The Chinese are particularly ulous about the time and place of burying dead. The delay occasioned by these ult points has often long detained the s of the rich from their last repository; are seen in houses and gardens, under orary roofs, to preserve them in the mean from the weather; but necessity forces oor to overcome their scruples, and to at once, and with little ceremony, the ns of their relatives.

following is the description of a Chinese l procession, observed by Sir George ton, passing out at one of the gates of : it "was preceded by several performers ema music; then followed a variety of ia, some of silken colours, and painted with devices and characters, displaying ak and office of him who was no more. liately before the corpse the male rela- walk, each supported by friends, occupied renting them from giving way to the s and extravagance of grief, to which earance of their countenances implied ey were prone. Over the mourners arried umbrellas with deep curtains g from the edges. Several persons were ed to burn circular pieces of paper, chiefly with tin-foil, as they passed by -grounds and temples. These pieces, opular opinion, like the coin given to for being conveyed to the Elysian e understood to be convertible, in the ge of existence, into the means of pro- ne necessaries of life."

ublic burying-grounds are extremely e, in consequence of the respect paid ead, which prevents a new grave from ened in any spot where the traces of a ne remain.

Chinese keeps in his house a table, ch are written the names of his father, ner, and great-grandfather; before frequently burns incense, and pros- nself; and, when the father of a family ame of the great-grandfather is taken l that of the deceased is added.

ITIES—EDIFICES.—Pe-king, (Pekin) al of the whole empire of China, and ary residence of the emperor, is situ- very fertile plain, twenty leagues om the great wall. It is of an oblong l is divided into two towns; that tains the emperor's palace is called city, because the houses were given to the Tartars when the present family came to the throne; and they, refusing to suffer the Chinese to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a short time built a new city; which, by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, between five and six leagues in compass. The walls are, in fact, a mound of earth or rubbish, faced with brick. They are about 30 feet high, and 20 feet thick at the bottom, which diminishes to 12 feet at the top. The summit is deeply embattled, and has loop-holes between the battlements. At every sixty yards there is a tower, of the same height, which projects 30 feet from the curtain. Over the gates are towers of several stories, and before each of them is a semicircular enclosure, as an advanced work. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the rest of large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Most of the streets are built in a direct line; the largest are about 120 feet broad, and above two miles in length; but the houses are poorly built in front, and very low; most of them having only a ground floor, and few more than one story.

The most remarkable building is the imperial palace; the grandeur of which does not consist so much in its architecture, as in the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens; for the walls not only enclose the emperor's house, but also a little town, inhabited by the court-officers, and a multitude of artificers employed by the sovereign; but the houses are low and ill contrived. The front of the palace, it is said, shines with gilding, paint, and varnish, while the inside is furnished with everything that is most beautiful and precious in Asia and Europe. The gardens are large tracts, in which are raised artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of small valleys, watered by canals; which, uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful barks sail on these pieces of water; and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are said to resemble each other. Every valley has its house of pleasure, large enough to lodge one of our greatest nobles, with all his retinue: many of these houses are built with cedar. In the middle of a lake is a rocky island, on which is a palace, containing more than 100 apartments. It has four fronts, and is a magnificent structure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly such as produce beautiful and aromatic flowers; and the canals are edged with rustic pieces of rock, disposed with such art as exactly to resemble the wildness of nature.

The population of Pekin is supposed to be about 2,000,000; some have estimated it higher. The low houses of the town seem scarcely sufficient for so vast a population; but very little room is occupied by a family, at least in the middling and lower classes of life. A Chinese dwelling is generally surrounded by a wall six or seven feet high. Within this often lives a whole family of three generations, with

all their respective wives and children. One small room is made to serve for the individuals of each branch of the family, sleeping in different beds, divided only by mats hanging from the ceiling. One common room is used for eating.

Nan-king (Nankin) was the royal residence till the 15th century—its name signifying the southern court, as Pekin does the northern: its Chinese name is now Kiang-ning-fou. It is still an important city, though a large space within its circuit is uninhabited. It is regularly built, and is a neat if not handsome town. Near the entrance are two temples, one of which is rendered interesting by the skilful execution of the figures of about twenty Chinese philosophers and saints, surrounding a great hall. This city has obtained celebrity by the porcelain tower already mentioned, and by the manufacture of nankin, silk, paper, and ink. Balbi estimates the population at only 500,000, which is manifestly much too low.

Canton (in Chinese, Quang-tcheou-fou,) is the largest port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleasant walks around it. From the tops of some adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine prospect of the country. It is beautifully interspersed with mountains, little hills, and valleys, all green; and these are pleasantly diversified with small towns, villages, high towers, temples, and the seats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered by delightful lakes, canals, and small branches from the river Ta; on which are numberless boats and junks, sailing different ways through the most fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by several iron gates, and within each there is a guard-house. The streets of Canton are very straight, though generally narrow, and are paved with flag-stones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well stocked with images. The streets are so crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them. There are many private walks about the skirts of the town, where those of the better sort have their houses; which are very little frequented by Europeans, whose business lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only shops and warehouses. It is computed that there are in this city and its suburbs 1,100,000 persons, and there are often 5000 trading vessels lying before the city.

The cities of China are divided into three classes. Those of the first rank are called *fou*, of the second, *tcheou*, and of the third, *hien*. China contains 173 cities of the first class, 335 of the second, and 1173 of the third. Many of the first class cities are not much inferior in magnitude to Pekin and Nan-king.

Public Roads.—The security of travellers, and an easy mode of conveyance for passengers and merchandise, are objects to which particular attention seems to have been paid by the rulers of China. The manner in which the public roads are managed, greatly contributes to the former. These roads are paved in all the southern provinces, and in some of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and passages cut through rocks and mountains, in order to made commodious highways, and to preserve them on a level. They are generally bordered with lofty trees, and sometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent intrusion into the fields. Openings are left at certain intervals, which give a passage into cross roads. On all the great roads covered seats are erected, where the traveller may shelter himself from the storms of winter, or the heat of summer. There is no deficiency of inns on the principal highways, and even on the cross roads. The former are spacious, but badly supplied with provisions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to sleep on a mat. Government requires of those who inhabit them, to give lodging only to those who ask and pay for it. Many turrets, called post-houses, are erected, at certain distances, with a flag-staff, on which is hoisted the imperial pendant. These places are guarded by soldiers, who run rapidly from one post to another, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are so situated, that intelligence can be communicated from their tops by signals; and thus the court is speedily informed of whatever disturbance may happen in the most remote provinces.

Manufactures—Commerce.—China is so happily situated, and produces such a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be said to be the native land of industry; but it is an industry without taste or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatness. They make paper of the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the use of drawing is well known in England, and is said to be made of oil and lamp-black. The manufacture of that earthenware called china was long a secret in Europe, but it is now well known that the principal material is a prepared pulverized earth; and we may add, that several European nations far exceed the Chinese in manufacturing this commodity. The Chinese silks are generally plain or flowered gauze; and they are said to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing the silk-worm was first discovered. They manufacture silks likewise of a more durable kind; and their cotton and other cloths are famous for furnishing a light warm wear.

The Chinese princes have not been disposed to encourage foreign trade. They considered their country as so highly favoured by nature and the genius of the people, that they are not in want of the produce or manufactures of other regions: yet they have condescended to admit trading vessels, but not without arbi-

ons. Canton is the only port at ean ships have hitherto been re- the nature and extent of each ade was cautiously settled by the The recent success of the Bri- s, however, effected a wonderful h the Indian islands the Chinese e in their own junks, and import nests (a curious kind of luxury,) rks, spice, and tin.

ION AND GOVERNMENT. — The of the Chinese government was almost in the strictest sense of mplete obedience to the father y was rigorously enforced; but, ime, the emperor was considered of the whole. His great officers looked upon as his substitutes; ees of submission, due from the to the superior, were settled and a the most scrupulous precision, ner that to us seems highly ridi- people were taught to believe ces partook of divinity; so that dom seen, and more seldom ap- In the great palace of Pekin," ge Staunton, "all the mandarins ne capital assembled about noon, rial majesty's birth-day, and, eir robes of ceremony, made the ions before the throne—incense rose-woods burning upon it at e, and offerings being made of quors, as if, though absent, he of enjoying them." Mr. Barrow while the same ceremonies were uen-min-yuen; and he was in- hey likewise took place on that art of the empire, the prostrators ere attentive to turn their faces apital. On all the days of new , similar incense is burned, and made before the throne by the household in all the imperial

ors of the provinces have unli- ity; and of those officers, who led mandarins, or commanders, uese, but, in the language of the , there are nine classes, from the llage to the prime minister. But judges and magistrates are cor- Chinese government, like most re specious in theory than com- ractice.

laws are ancient and numerous; rding property are insufficient to y: hence, the talent of invention reised beyond suggesting the viding for the first necessities pressing wants. A man, indeed, considered as rich, well knowing he rapacious officers of the state al means of extorting his riches

—The public revenues of China Proper, says Staunton, are said to be little less than 200,000,000 ounces of silver, which may be equal to about £66,000,000 sterling. From the produce of the taxes, all the civil and military expenses, and the incidental and extraordinary charges, are first paid upon the spot, out of the treasuries of the respective provinces where such expenses are incurred; and the remainder is remitted to the imperial treasury at Pekin. This surplus amounted, in 1792, according to an official statement, to 36,614,328 ounces of silver, or £12,204,776. A land-tax has been substituted for the poll-tax, as better proportioned to the faculties of individuals. Most imports, and all luxuries, are likewise taxed; but the duty, being added to the original price of the article, is seldom distinguished from it by the consumer. A transit duty is laid likewise on goods passing from one province to another. Each province in China is noted chiefly for the production of some particular article; the conveyance of which, to supply the demand for it in the others, raises this duty to a considerable sum, and forms the great internal commerce of the empire. Presents from the tributaries and subjects of the emperor, and the confiscations of opulent criminals, are not overlooked in enumerating the public revenues. Some taxes, such as that upon rice, are received in kind; but several species of grain, on which many of the poorer classes of the people principally subsist, are exempted from taxation.

From the latest account that we have been able to procure, the imperial revenues are greatly inferior to the amount above stated, not being more than £40,000,000 sterling in money and produce.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.—China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conquest by the Eastern Tartars. This is the effect of the policy of Chun-chi, the first Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary subjects to conform themselves to the Chinese manners and policy, and the Chinese to wear the Tartar dress and arms. The two nations were thus incorporated. The Chinese were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Pekin the seat of his government; and the Tartars quietly submitted to a change of their country and condition, which was so much in their favour.

It has been affirmed, that the total of the infantry in the imperial service is 1,000,000, and that 800,000 cavalry are also upon the establishment; but we learn, from a more correct statement, that the force of the first species amounts to 822,000, and the second to 410,000, while 31,000 men compose the marine force. The Chinese are not deficient in bravery, but their utter ignorance of discipline and tactics renders them contemptible antagonists in the field.

ROYAL TITLE.—The emperor is styled "Holy

Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People."

RELIGION.—There is in China no state religion. No priests are paid, preferred, or encouraged by the government. The Chinese have no day peculiarly set apart for divine service, nor have they even such a division as a week; the temples are, however, open every day for the visits of devotees. Persons of that description have, from time to time, made grants, though to no great amount, for the maintenance of their clergy; but no lands are subject to tithes. The emperor is of one faith; many of the mandarins are of another; and the majority of the common people of a third, which is that of Fo. No people are, in fact, more superstitious than the common Chinese. Besides the habitual offices of devotion on the part of the priests and females, the temples are particularly frequented by the disciples of Fo, previously to any undertaking of importance: if they wish to marry, to go upon a journey, or conclude a bargain, or change situation, or have any other material event in view, it is necessary first to consult the superintendent deity. This is performed by various methods. Some place a parcel of consecrated sticks, differently marked and numbered, which the consultant, kneeling before the altar, shakes in a hollow bamboo, until one falls on the ground; its mark is examined, and referred to a correspondent mark in a book which the priest holds open; and sometimes even it is written upon a piece of paper pasted upon the inside of the temple. Polygonal pieces of wood are by others thrown into the air. Each side has its particular mark: the side that is upmost, when on the floor, is in like manner referred to its correspondent mark in the book or sheet of fate. If the first throw be favourable, the person who made it prostrates himself in gratitude, and undertakes afterwards, with confidence, the business in agitation. If the throw should be adverse, he tries a second time; and the third throw determines, at any rate, the question. In other respects, the people seem to pay little attention to their priests.

The temples of Fo abound with more images than are found in most Christian churches; some of which exhibit so strong a likeness to those in churches of the Romish faith, that a Chinese, conveyed into one of the latter, might imagine the votaries he saw were adoring the deities of his own country. On the altar of a Chinese temple, behind a screen, is frequently a representation which might answer for that of the Virgin Mary, in the person of Shin-moo, or the sacred mother, sitting in an alcove, with a child in her arms, and rays round her head, with tapers burning constantly before her. There are some images, however, in these temples, which bear a greater analogy to the ancient worship of the Romans than to modern catholicism. A figure, representing a female, seems to resemble Lucina, and is particularly addressed by unmarried women wanting husbands, and married women wanting children. The doctrine of Fo, admitting a subordinate deity particularly propitious to every wish which can be formed in the human mind, could scarcely fail to spread among those who are not satisfied with their prospects, as resulting from the natural causes of events. Its progress is not obstructed by any measures of the magistrates, who do not interfere with speculative opinions.

The temples of Pekin are not very sumptuous. The higher classes venerate rather than adore Confucius, and meet to honour and celebrate his memory in halls of a simple but neat construction. The lower classes are less able than inclined to contribute much toward the erection of large and costly edifices for public worship; and their religious attention is much engaged, beside, with their household gods. Every house has its altar and its deities. The books of their mythology contain representations of those who preside over their persons and property, as well as over external objects likely to affect them. Few of the Chinese, however, carry the objects to be obtained by their devotion, beyond the benefits of this life. Yet the religion of Fo professes the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, and promises happiness to the people, on conditions which were, no doubt, originally intended to consist in the performance of moral duties, but, in lieu of which, are too frequently substituted those of contribution toward the erection or repair of temples, the maintenance of priests, and a strict attention to particular observances. If these should be neglected, the defaulters are threatened with the transmigration of their souls into the bodies of the meanest animals, in which the sufferings are to be proportioned to the transgression committed in the human form.

According to Du Halde, the ancient Chinese adored a Supreme Being, under the name of Chan-Zi, or Tien; which, according to some, signifies the spirit presiding over the heavens, but has been supposed by others to mean only the visible firmament. They also worshipped subaltern spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces, cities, rivers, and mountains. Since the 15th century, many of the Chinese literati have embraced a new system, which acknowledges a universal principle called Taki—resembling the doctrine of the soul of the world, as maintained by some ancient philosophers: but this opinion has not been very widely propagated.

Many attempts have been made by Christian missionaries, for the conversion of the Chinese; but, even when they were apparently favoured by the government, they did not make any great progress in their pious task; and, at various times, they were cruelly persecuted. At present they are tolerated, but are strictly watched by the government. There are two Christian establishments at Pekin, one

nch, the other the Russian mo-
natter flourishes more than the
ıe effects of both are more nuga-
ificial.

ARNING, AND ARTS.—The Chi-
l are not men of vigorous intel-
ehensive minds: a man of genius
mong them; and few have any
ns of what is beautiful in writ-
ın architecture, or natural in
fore their country was visited
, they were ignorant of mathe-
ng and all its depending arts:
oper apparatus for astronomical
and all the metaphysical learn-
tion was only known to their

Even the arts introduced by
re of very short duration among
ted very little longer than the
-hi, who was contemporary with
I. It appears, however, that
ıd printing for ages before it was
ıe Europeans; that is, they used
process, by cutting their cha-
icks of wood; for the fusile and
s were undoubtedly of Dutch or
tion.

ty of mastering and retaining
r of arbitrary marks and charac-
are in what may be called the
n language, greatly retards the
ieir erudition. But there is no
obe where learning is attended
ours and rewards, and where
powerful inducements to culti-
e it. The literati are reverenced
pecies, and are the only nobility
ıa. Even if their birth be very
, they become mandarins of the
in proportion to the extent of
. On the other hand, persons
hose studies which raised their
tinction, however exalted their
quickly sink into poverty and

range all their works of litera-
asses. The first is the class of
ıcred books, which contain the
the Chinese religion, morality,
nt, and several curious and ob-
relative to these important sub-
r forms a separate class; yet, in
there are placed some historical
ın account of their relation to
overnment; and, among others,
ı work of Confucius, which con-
ds of twelve kings of Low, the
r of that illustrious sage. The
s that of the *Su*, or *Che*; that is,
the historians. The third class,
mprehends philosophy and the
ınd contains all the works of the
roductions also of foreign sects
which the Chinese consider only
philosophical opinions; and all
to mathematics, astronomy,
physic, and the arts and sciences in general. The fourth is called *Tcie*, or *Miscellanies*, and contains poetical books, effusions of eloquence, songs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. Some of these have very considerable merit. The Chinese, in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themselves less to the studies of nature, and to the researches of natural philosophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical science of life, and internal polity and manners. It is said that it was not before the dynasty of the Song, in the 10th and 11th centuries after Christ, that the Chinese philosophers formed hypotheses concerning the system of the universe, and entered into discussions of a scholastic kind; in consequence, perhaps, of the intercourse they had long maintained with the Arabians, who studied with ardour the works of Aristotle: and, since they have begun to pay some attention to natural philosophy, their progress in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder appears to be justly claimed by the Chinese, who made use of it before it was known in Europe; but, for a long period after the discovery, they seem to have known nothing of small fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their industry in their manufactures of stuffs, porcelain, japanning, and the like sedentary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raising gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

LANGUAGE.—The Chinese language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one syllable; but every word is pronounced with such various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be easily imagined. The missionaries, who adapt the European characters as well as they can to the expression of Chinese words, have devised eleven different, and some of them very compounded, marks and aspirations, to signify the various modulations, elevations, and depressions of the voice, which distinguish the several meanings of the same monosyllable. The Chinese oral language, being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and therefore their learning is all comprised in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about 80,000.

The Chinese characters, Mr. Astle observes, which are by length of time become symbolic, were originally imitative; they still retain so much of their original hieroglyphic nature, that they do not combine into words, like letters or marks for sounds; but we find one mark for a man, another for a horse, a third for a dog, and, in short, a separate and distinct mark for each thing which has a corporeal form. The Chinese use a great number of marks entirely of a symbolic nature, to impress on the eye the conceptions of the mind which

have no corporeal forms: yet they do not combine these last marks into words, like marks for sounds or letters; but a separate mark is made to represent each idea, and they use them as they do their abridged picture-characters, which were originally imitative or hieroglyphic.

The Chinese books begin from the right hand; their characters are placed in perpendicular columns, of which there are generally ten in a page. They are read downwards, beginning from the right-hand side of the paper; sometimes a title is placed horizontally, and this is likewise read from the right hand.

ANTIQUITIES.—The most remarkable remain of antiquity in the Chinese empire, is the great wall separating China from Tartary. It is carried over mountains and valleys, and reaches from the province of Shen-see to the Whang-Hai, or Yellow Sea. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of stone raised in the sea, in the province of Pe-che-lee, to the east of Pekin, and almost in the same latitude. The body of the wall consists of an earthen mound, terraced and cased with bricks. At the bottom it is 25 feet thick, and 15 feet at the top; it is from 20 to 25 feet high, and is flanked with towers, 37 feet high and 40 feet square, which are not distant above a hundred yards from each other. One-third of the men capable of labour in China, were, it is said, employed in constructing this wall, which was begun and completely finished in the short space of five years. Its length is 1500 miles.

The other antiquities found in this country, are coins of the ancient monarchs, which are collected and arranged in cabinets by the curious among the natives; several pagodas, or ornamented towers, erected in commemoration of great events; and numerous old temples and triumphal arches.

HISTORY.—The Chinese pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity which scarcely the most credulous can believe; and their annals are carried immeasurably beyond the period to which the Scripture chronology assigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is said by them to have been the first man; and the interval betwixt him and the death of Confucius, which was in the year before Christ 479, has been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. Upon an accurate investigation of this subject, it appears, however, that all the Chinese historical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived about 2057 years before Christ, are entirely fabulous, composed in modern times, unsupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears also, that the origin of the Chinese empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao; and the records of even this comparatively recent period are of doubtful authority.

The annals of the empire of China are comprehended in six hundred and sixty-eight volumes, and consist of the pieces that have been composed by the tribunal or department of history, established in China for transmitting to posterity the public events of the empire lives, characters, and transactions of sovereigns. It is said, that all the fa concern the monarchy, since its fo have been deposited in this departm from age to age have been arranged to the order of time, under the insp the rulers of the state, and with all th tions against delusion or partiality t be suggested. These precautions h carried so far, that the history of th each imperial family has only been after the extinction of that family, kept a profound secret during the that neither fear nor flattery might the truth. It is asserted, that ma Chinese historians exposed themselv and even to death, rather than dis defects and vices of the sovereign. emperor Chi-hoan-ti, at whose com great wall was built, in the 213th y the Christian era, ordered all the books and records which contained t mental laws and principles of th government to be burned, that they be employed by the learned to o authority, or to condemn the chan he intended to introduce into the Four hundred literati were committ flames, with their books: yet this edict had not its full effect; several h concealed, and escaped the general r this period, strict search was mad ancient works and records that yet but, though much industry was emp this purpose, it appears that the auth torical sources of the Chinese, for anterior to the 200th year before C very few, and that they are still i numbers for more remote periods.

The limits to which our work is con not permit us to enlarge upon so copi ject as that of the Chinese history, deed, would be very uninteresting to rality of European readers. A succ excellent princes, and a duration of tranquillity, united legislation with pl and produced their Fo-hi, whose enveloped in mystery; their Li-Laob above all, their Kon-foo-tse, or Con once the Solon and the Socrates After all, the internal revolutions of t though rare, produced the most dread in proportion as its constitution w and they were attended with the m exterminations in some provinces; though the Chinese empire is here imperial succession has been more broken into, and altered. Twenty-th ties, or different tribes and families sion, are enumerated in their annals.

The bold attempt of Genghis for the of China could not subdue the empir people were at length obliged to sub disgrace of subjugation. They eng war with the Mantchou Tartars, whi

emperor, Sonchin, was upon the
meanwhile, a bold rebel, named
: province of Se-chuen, dethroned
ho hanged himself, as did most
a and women. Ou-sanquey, the
l on the frontier of Tartary, re-
nise the usurper, and made a
n-chi, the Mantchou prince, who
:per from the throne, and took
it himself, about the year 1644.
ntained himself in his authority,
:n already mentioned, wisely in-
hereditary subjects with the Chi-
in effect, Tartary became an ac-
hina. He was succeeded by a
t natural and acquired abilities,
atron of the Jesuits, but knew
hem when he found them med-
government.

Kien-Lung, a prince of the Mant-
was long and generally pacific,
not destitute of wars, in one of
dued the Eluts. He reigned
1736 to 1796, and governed with
ity, and moderation. It was to
anced age, that a British ambas-
to propose a more liberal com-
urse than he or his predecessors
Never, perhaps, was there a cha-
ualified for the management of
such delicacy and importance
cartney; but, notwithstanding
itness, he found it impossible to
ion for the residence of an Eng-
capital of China, as ambassador,
ıy other character; or any exclu-
for the English within the Chi-
s, even on a temporary grant,
he purposes of trade. According
al principle in Chinese politics,
whatever kind, is deemed preg-
; and, on this principle, the soli-
were peremptorily refused. In
olication was made through the
ncy of Lord Amherst, not to the
ut to his successor, Ka-Hin, or
e ambassador, however, from his
is own dignity, and of the honour
refused to pay the compliment
which he did not think due to
:entate, and which Lord Macart-
.e measure evaded by a compro-
lismissed with little ceremony,
res or proposals terminated in
t.

riod of the failure of Lord Am-
y, up to 1834, the trade with
d to be carried on without any
rel between the two parties,
ithout considerable annoyance
lence of the Chinese. When
hed against profit, by a trading
apt to be found light in the ba-
cordingly, the East India Com-
niently blind to much that would
s wrath of statesmen or warriors.

But the trade with China was at last thrown open, and it became necessary that new arrangements should be made. It was no longer with the agents of a commercial body, but with the representative of the British sovereign, that the Chinese government, and its delegates at Canton, were to hold intercourse for the future. In 1834, Lord Napier was appointed to act as special superintendent at Canton, and he arrived at Macao in July. It must be owned, that sufficient care does not appear to have been taken to apprise the Chinese authorities of the important nature of this change; but, even admitting this, their insolent and brutal conduct was indefensible. Orders were issued by the governor of Canton, forbidding his visit to that place; but his lordship had landed while the messengers were on their way to Macao. On his arrival he sent a letter to the viceroy: it was contemptuously rejected, because it was not in the form of a petition. Lord Napier and his coadjutors were next described as "four English devils," and this was followed by a bombastic proclamation, offering forgiveness to his lordship, on condition of his instantly going back to Macao, and returning no more, without special permission. "Even England," says this decorous and veracious piece of Asiatic eloquence, "has its laws; how much more the Celestial Empire? How flaming bright are its great laws and ordinances! more terrible than the awful thunderbolt! Under the whole bright heaven none dares to disobey them! Under its shelter are the four seas! Subject to its soothing care are the ten thousand kingdoms!" This was succeeded by the suspension of the trade, and a prohibition to supply provisions; so that Lord Napier and his suite were compelled to subsist on salt meat from the men-of-war. His lordship now ordered up the Imogene and Andromache from the mouth of the river; and they forced their passage, in spite of the fire from the forts. By this time, fatigue and anxiety had brought severe illness upon his lordship. Importuned to quit Canton by the merchants, who were apprehensive for their own safety, he at length consented to depart. He was obliged to embark in a Chinese vessel, was contumeliously treated, and his passage was purposely protracted in such a manner that he was a week in reaching Macao, where he expired on the 11th of October. "The Chinese authorities, according to custom, transmitted to court a boastful account of this transaction; representing Lord Napier as having been admitted to mercy only after the most humble submission, and then driven ignominiously out of Canton!" The trade was subsequently opened, and the insulting conduct of the Chinese was therefore passed over in silence.

Before three years had elapsed, a still more serious cause of quarrel arose. It originated in the importation of opium into China. The transmission of opium from Bengal to China began in 1773, and the quantity at first sent was inconsiderable; in 1776 it amounted only to 1000 chests, but in 1837 it had increased to 40,000.

the terrible effects of a poisonous drug. The true motive of its conduct was a wish to put a stop to the drain of specie which was yearly occasioned by the immense consumption of opium—the balance of trade against the Chinese being very large, and paid entirely in silver. It appears that, in fact, nothing would have been said, had goods been accepted in payment of the balance; it was "the leaking out of the silver" that was the real grievance. So far was "morality" from having anything to do with the question, that it was actually debated, among the Chinese ministers, whether opium should not be admitted on a duty, and the cultivation of the poppy encouraged in China; and the negative seems to have been carried only through the influence of a single individual. The emperor having resolved to put a stop to the trade, a mandarin, named Lin, was sent to Canton as imperial commissioner, to carry the resolution into effect. He reached the place of his destination on the 10th of March, 1839, and immediately issued an edict, commanding foreigners to deliver up all the opium in their possession, and to sign a bond binding them to bring no more. His next step was to render all foreign merchants prisoners in their factories, by forbidding them to go down to Macao. This measure, and others of a grossly insulting kind, were strongly remonstrated against by Captain Elliot, who then held the office of chief superintendent. Lin replied, by ordering all the native servants to leave their English masters, prohibiting provisions of any kind from being supplied, and closely investing the British with an armed force, by land and water. The superwith some English and Ameri
Chinese was unfortunately ki
Kong. It was ascertained tha
were the aggressors; and, after
gation, no evidence could be pr
minate any one of the British s
imperiously demanded that the c
be given up to be punished by
This demand was refused by C
who, however, declared that if t
could be discovered, he should b
ing to the laws of his own count
of the Chinese officers. Irritat
fusal, Lin marched troops on
out the English; but the latter
expose their Portuguese hosts
the high commissioner, quitt
established themselves at the is
Kong. In November, the Ch
junks, made an attempt to bu
ships by means of fire-rafts;
completely defeated by the Vo
cinth sloops of war, and suffere
the following February (1840)
were made to burn the merch
Toong-Koo, but with no better
discouraged by these failures,
their efforts in June, on a more
and were again foiled.

At length the moment arri
Chinese government was to be
British nation was not to be ins
punity. In the latter end of Ju
able naval and military force a
coast of China, from England ar
port and river of Canton wer

N. latitude, opposite the bay ou, near which is the southern he imperial canal. The city of capital. On his way thither, the aptain Bourchier, in the Blonde e port of Amoy, with a letter for inisters. The messengers with ce were insulted, and at last fired e forts and junks opened their e frigate. This wanton act of aptain Bourchier chastised, by nks, and beating the forts about eir defenders. The expedition g-hae on the 4th of August, and ring morning the troops were e night, the garrison and most ants silently evacuated the city; ht, it was entered by the British. the arrangements for securing uest were completed, a part of with Captain Elliot on board, Yellow Sea, with a dispatch from ton to the court of Pekin, insist- logy and compensation for the juries which the local authorities l inflicted upon British subjects. was received by Keshen, the province, who affected to be well rds the English, and requested n days, that the imperial court r the matter, and return an an- e artifice was now put in practice te, and thus gain time for taking sures. It was announced that had appointed Keshen, as his , to treat. An interview accord- ce between Keshen and Captain the former pleaded that he was d to conclude a definitive treaty, l twelve days more, to receive rom his government. The delay At the expiration of the term, agreed to the Chinese proposal, hould proceed to Canton, as high , to redress the wrongs of the he British plenipotentiary should re for a final arrangement; and e negotiation was in progress, be a suspension of hostilities. ese thus succeeded in removing ger from the immediate neigh- their capital, in obtaining time ns, and in removing the theatre to a distant part of the empire. lso another advantage from their diness to negotiate; the British ies having subsequently agreed Chusan; and that, too, at the the emperor had issued a pro- laring his resolution to carry on ever might be the risk incurred. for this concession, it was alleged was unhealthy, and that the ffered greatly from sickness. It ver, that the sickness was owing being encamped in *improper* situations, their want of fresh provisions, and the inordinate use of shamsoo, a poisonous Chinese spirit, and not to the malignant nature of the climate of Chusan.

While a part of the British force was employed at Chusan and in the Yellow Sea, the part which remained in the Canton river was not wholly unoccupied. The authorities at Canton were busy raising recruits, throwing up works, and issuing proclamations offering rewards to whoever would kill an Englishman. "Hasten to stop, attack, burn, and destroy them," said these official incitements to murder. "Fishermen and boatmen, soldiers and people, whoever of you can cut off and destroy one foreigner, will become a just man. Valiant heroes! possessed of an excellent name and rich rewards, let not the heads of the base foreigners long be wanting to establish your characters; act like men." These proclamations failed to produce their intended effect; they did, indeed, occasion some acts of barbarity to be committed upon a few stray individuals, but the Chinese, in general, were too prudent to adopt this mode of "establishing their character," and enrolling themselves in the catalogue of "just men." The forbearance of the natives may, no doubt, be attributed to the solicitude which the invaders displayed, to avoid injuring unarmed individuals and private property. During the absence of the squadron on the expedition to the north, only one conflict took place between the British and Chinese. The English having returned to Macao, Lin dispatched a large force to expel them. The enemy was, however, attacked by a small naval and military force, his batteries silenced, his troops scattered in all directions, and his tents and barracks consumed.

By the end of November, the whole of the fleet was reunited in the Canton river, under the command of Sir Gordon Bremer, illness having compelled Admiral Elliot to return to England. Keshen was now at Canton, and a correspondence had been opened with the British plenipotentiary, but without effect. It was, in fact, obvious that the only object of the artful mandarin was to gain time, in order to render Canton unapproachable. Already he had covered the shore and islands of the river, above Macao, with forts, entrenched camps, and batteries, at Chuenpee, Anunghoy, North Wangtong, Tycocktow, and other positions, and shut up the channel by booms and massy rafts, formed of fir-trees lashed together, and moored with numerous cables. Above 300 cannon, many of large caliber, were mounted on these works; which, however, formed only the first line, the series of batteries extending all the way to Canton. As it was manifest that Keshen was only trifling with and endeavouring to delude his opponents, the British plenipotentiary at length gave orders to recommence hostilities. On the 9th of January, 1841, the attack took place. The force which was landed amounted to only 1300 men; but

official intercourse, on an equal footing, be established between the two countries, and the trade with Canton opened in the course of ten days.

So convinced was the British plenipotentiary of the Chinese good faith, that he occupied himself in making arrangements to form the settlement of Hong-Kong, and sent back to India the Bengal corps of volunteers. In less than a month, however, he was taught how misplaced his confidence had been. Keshen had recovered his courage, repaired his forts, added many others to them, received reinforcements, and was ready to give battle. He now positively refused to ratify the treaty; and, that no doubt might exist as to their hostile spirit, the Chinese fired upon a British flag of truce.

Such being the situation of affairs, there was no alternative but to renew the war. The contest was begun on the 23rd of February, by the Nemesis steamer, which, in two hours, carried a masked battery below Anunghoy, and destroyed it, with the whole of the military materials, among which were eighty pieces of cannon. There being little wind, it was not till the evening of the 25th, that, with the aid of the steamers, the squadron was able to reach the Chinese line of defence, which was found to have been strengthened greatly since the last attack. All the neighbouring heights were also covered with troops. The enemy had, however, neglected to occupy the island of South Wantong, and the British commanders availed themselves of this error; they constructed a howitzer battery upon it, which proved to be of great service. On the following morning, the action commenced by a heavy cannonade from the squadron, which, for some time, was returned with much spirit by the Chinese. The troops were then landed, and

The month of April passed
the authorities of Canton affecti
mated by the most pacific feelin
professions were all false and holl
were secretly being erected, troo
arriving, till the number at last
50,000 men; and the emperor h
edict, in which he "swore that
should not stand; one or another
or die." The plenipotentiary, at
convinced that treachery was i
accordingly determined to res
Three attempts which the enen
first at midnight, to burn the
means of fire-rafts—now comple
of their sinister intentions. It w
that such perfidy should meet v
ment. The nearest batteries w
attacked and destroyed, while
steamer and the boats of the flee
war-junks and flotilla, to the num
which, with the exception of a fe
into shallow creeks, were all su
stranded.

As, however, the success alre
could be productive of no ben
quence, unless it were followed
ing a more decisive blow, it was
an effort should be made to ga
of Canton itself. It was arran
land-force, under General Sir
who had now assumed the com
fall upon the positions and forts
city was defended to the landw
Le Fleming Senhouse, with the
co-operate by assailing the Chine
the river. The whole number of B
was not 2800; that of the Chines
at all, short of 50,000. On the lan
was also protected by four steam

'. The final catastrophe was averted by the
nese imploring for mercy. After having in
1 tried to procrastinate, they agreed to a
ity, by which they were bound to make
ir troops quit Canton, and retire to a dis-
ce of sixty miles; to pay 6,000,000 dollars
ansom; to make good all the losses occa-
ed by the destruction of the factories; and
ave all the forts in their present state till
rs between the two nations were defini-
y arranged.

ie ransom having been paid, the fleet and
r departed for Hong-Kong. It was in-
ed to proceed to the northward; but, while
army was encamped at Hong-Kong, so
y of the soldiers and sailors were swept off
isease, that it became necessary to post-
the intended expedition. Among those
lied was the gallant Sir Le Fleming Sen-
. On the 7th of June, Captain Elliot
d a proclamation, declaring Hong-Kong
port: the building of a town was also
ienced. This island, which is situated
the mouth of the Canton river, about 35
N. E. of Macao, is about 8 miles long and
s broad, and at that period did not con-
ore than 3000 inhabitants: since then its
ation has been increased six fold.

ing the temporary cessation of arms,
oned by the sickly state of the troops,
inese imperial commissioners issued a
mation, offering a reward of 100,000
, and high promotion, to whoever would
nd deliver up Captain Elliot; and half
m for each of his five principal officers.
lar scale of remuneration, for burning
h vessels, and seizing alive any "head
," as the captains, &c. were called, was
n this curious state paper; a live Eng-
n was valued at 200 dollars, a dead one
a live Indian was not worth more than
rs, and his head was rated at 30.

ne 8th of August, Sir Henry Pottinger
ar-Admiral Sir William Parker arrived
'anton river; the former, with the title
plenipotentiary, to supersede Captain
the latter, to take the command of the
n. Immediately on his arrival, Sir
issued a proclamation, which gave
of the vigour with which he intended

The troops had now recovered their
and been reinforced, and he lost no
eading them to the northward. Leaving
nt force behind to secure Hong-Kong,
bent his course to Amoy. On his
1 to the harbour he was met by a flag
demanding to know what he wanted,
arning to begone immediately, "ere
stial wrath should be kindled against
The answer was a summons to sur-
/hich was disregarded by the enemy.
nese had, indeed, some reason for
onfidence in their means of resistance,
ries and forts on the islands of Amoy
ong-soo being of enormous strength,
nted with between 500 and 600 pieces
of heavy artillery. On the 26th of August, the British attack, by sea and land, was nevertheless made; and, before night, the assailants were masters of every position. The Chinese availed themselves of the darkness to abandon the city.

Having dilapidated the defences, spiked the cannon, destroyed or removed the naval stores, and left a garrison of 500 men in Ko-long-soo, which is the key of Amoy, the expedition continued its voyage to Chusan; and, on the 1st of October, its capital, Ting-hae, again opened its gates to the British, after the complete discomfiture of its 5000 defenders, great numbers of whom, among whom were nine or ten mandarins, were slain. Hurrying on to fresh victories, the British, on the 1st of October, defeated a large Chinese force, and made themselves masters of Chin-hai. Ning-po, a city said to contain 600,000 inhabitants, was their next object: it was abandoned by its garrison, without an attempt at resistance. A two years' supply of grain, and a considerable sum of money, fell into the power of the captors. The driving of the enemy from the cities of Yuyaun and Tsekee closed the achievements of the year 1841.

In the spring of 1842, the Chinese mustered courage enough to think of undertaking offensive operations. To drive the British from Chin-hai and Ning-po, and to burn the ships by means of fire-rafts, were the objects which they purposed to accomplish. Their attack was made on the night of the 10th of March, and terminated fatally for them. About 10,000 or 12,000 men did indeed penetrate, by the southern and western gates, into Ning-po; but they had not gone far before such a tremendous fire of grape and canister shot, and musketry, was opened upon them, that they fell by hundreds. They were followed out of the town for some miles, and the slaughter was terrible. At Chin-hai their onset was feeble, and was easily repulsed. The fire-rafts were towed ashore, without having effected any damage.

Learning that a Chinese army was encamped in the neighbourhood of Tsekee, Sir Hugh Gough resolved to disperse it. Accordingly, on the 15th of March he landed, at the head of not more than 1200 men, within four miles of Tsekee. Having taken the city by assault, he assailed the position which the Chinese, 8000 strong, occupied upon the steep eminences in the vicinity of the place. Every post was carried, and not less than 1000 of their defenders were slain. In April, the Chinese made a formidable but abortive effort to destroy the shipping at Chusan. On this occasion they employed between 50 and 60 fire-rafts, each of which consisted of from 3 to 5 junks chained together; 40 more were afterwards discovered and destroyed. In May, another victory was gained by the British arms. On this occasion the storm of war fell upon Cha-poo, about 55 miles to the north-west of Ching-hai. Ten thousand men, one-third of whom were Tartars, were routed there, on the

18th, though they were strongly posted on hills, and covered by batteries containing nearly 50 cannon.

The crowning success was now at hand. Sir Henry Pottinger resolved to strike a blow at Nankin, the second capital of the empire, and to make himself master of the entrance of the Grand Canal, which is the great connecting link between the northern and southern parts of China. Sailing up the river Yang-tse-Kiang, the British forced their way to Chin-kiang-foo, of which city they gained possession, after a battle which cost the vanquished 40 mandarins, and 1000 men killed and wounded. Pursuing their victorious course, the British troops arrived under the walls of Nankin, and were preparing to storm the city, when the pride of the Chinese government gave way, and it consented to negotiate. A treaty was concluded, on the 21st of August, 1842, by which the emperor agreed to pay 21,000,000 of dollars, in the course of the present and three succeeding years; to cede the island of Hong-Kong in perpetuity; to open to the British trade the ports of Canton, Foo-tchoo, Ning-po, Amoy, and Shan-gai, and permit consular officers to reside at them; to release all prisoners, and grant an amnesty to all Chinese subjects who had held intercourse with the English; to carry on, upon a footing of perfect equality, all future correspondence between the governments; and to leave the islands of Chusan and Ko-long-soo in the hands of the British till the money payments, and the opening of the five ports, were fully carried into effect. Thus was the war with China brought to a conclusion, which was at once beneficial and honourable.

CHINESE TARTARY.

The origin of the name of Tartary, or, more correctly, Tatary, is uncertain; but it is supposed to be derived from the Chinese, who call all their neighbours, without any distinction, *Tata* or *Ta-tse*. The name was formerly given vaguely to all the countries to the north of Persia, Hindoostan, and China, quite to the Northern Ocean, and from the Black Sea and the limits of European Russia to the Eastern Ocean.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 2600	between	72. and 140. E. long.
Breadth, 1000		37. and 53. N. lat.

Containing 2,000,000 square miles.

Boundaries—Divisions.—Chinese Tartary is bounded on the north by Siberia, or Asiatic Russia; on the east by the sea of Japan, and the channel of Tartary; on the south by China Proper, and Thibet; and on the west by Independent Tartary.

The only division of this country, in general, arises from the different tribes by which it is inhabited: of these the principal are the Mandshurs, in the east; the Mongols, or Moguls, in the middle; and the Eluts, or Calmucks, in the west. The country of the first, who are more immediately under the authority of China, has been divided into three great governments—Moukden or Chin-yang, Kirin, and Tsitsicar, which take their names from the chief towns. The Russians call this whole division Daouria, from a particular tribe dispersed over it. It is usually denominated Mandshuria; and the name of Mongolia is given to Western Chinese Tartary. They are divided from each other by the low range of the Inchin or Khingan mountains.

Some geographers have added to the Chinese empire the territory of Corea; but it appears that, though the ruler of this peninsula sends an annual deputation to Pekin with a certain tribute, he is in other respects entirely independent. The dimensions usually assigned to Corea are now found to be erroneous, as what was thought to be the western coast consists, according to the accounts of Captains Hall and Maxwell, of a great number of small islands. The peninsula is, as far as they could judge, 500 miles in length, and its average breadth about 150. It is traversed, from north to south, by a chain of mountains. In the northern division the air is cold, and the soil infertile: but the southern parts are fruitful in the various products of China. The people are tall; and they have more pleasing countenances than the Chinese, as well as more courteous manners; but they seem to be equally jealous of strangers. The king has a numerous army; and it is said that his troops have more courage than the Chinese, to whom, therefore, they are in some degree formidable. Kingleitoo, an inland town, is the capital.

Face of the Country—Mountains.—A great part of this extensive country is a vast elevated plain, supported like a table by the mountains of Thibet on the south, and the Altain chain on the north. This prodigious plain, the most elevated level land on the face of the globe, is intersected by several chains of mountains, and by the vast desert of Kobi, which is called Shamo by the Chinese.

Rivers.—The principal is the Amur; called by the Tartars Saghalian Oula, probably because it falls into the Eastern Ocean opposite to the island Saghalian. It is also called, near its source, the Kerlon, Kerulen, and Lukkir: it is a very long river, the extent of its course being above 1900 miles. The other rivers are the Soungari, Djabkan, Yarkiang, and Ili, which last falls into the lake of Balkash.

IL—PRODUCE.—The great ele- untry renders the climate much thers under the same parallel: it occasionally freezes so as to nsiderable thickness; which is by the north-east wind blowing r this vast plain, little sheltered by the prodigious quantities of impregnate the earth at the five feet; and it is not uncom- lods of frozen turf and heaps of ees are neither numerous nor e are some forests. Here are of pasturage; and the soil, if it cultivated, would be found suf- tive of most kinds of grain. eed, is not entirely neglected Mandshurs, who raise some

nong the various animals of e most remarkable are the wild es, which are very numerous rses and cattle are in great at low prices. The grunting f uncommon beauty, full and ssy and silky texture. These at article of exportation from dians fasten small bundles of andle, which they use for fly- se dye tufts of it with a beau- decorate their caps; and the as ornaments to their stand- horse-tails.

—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—The their persons generally short broad faces, flat noses, small all eye-brows scarcely arched, scanty beards, as they pluck by the roots. Their ears are rominent, their hair is black, is are of a reddish or yellowish se of the women are fair, and ldiness. They are extremely d apprehension, are naturally l, and scarcely ever experience lancholy. They are very hos- other, and likewise to stran- emselves under their protec- ess consists of a flat yellow le head being shaven except ir; wide trowsers; a vest of narrow sleeves; and a girdle the sabre, knife, and imple- ng tobacco: the outer garment h wide sleeves, and linen is e feet, over which are drawn r, generally black or yellow: wn. The women dress nearly ner as the men; but, instead rment, they wear gowns with- ey have generally long hair, in tresses.

tribes in general form wan- nd live in tents which they ce to place, as the seasons or ir flocks require. When pas- turage begins to fail, the tribes strike their tents, generally about ten times in the year, proceeding in summer to the northern, and in winter to the southern wilds; the latter season they generally pass at the bottom of some hill, which shelters them from the sharp and cut- ting north wind. Each tribe has its limits, and it would be an act of hostility toward the neighbours to go beyond them; but they are at liberty to encamp wherever they choose, within the assigned circumference. They live in their tents amidst every kind of dirt and the dung of their flocks, which, when dried, they burn on their hearths instead of wood. They are naturally enemies to labour, and will not take the trouble of cultivating the earth; it even appears that they neglect agriculture from pride. When the missionaries asked them why they did not cultivate at least some gardens, they answered that "the grass was for beasts, and beasts for men." During the sum- mer, they live almost wholly on milk, using indiscriminately that of the cow, mare, ewe, goat, and camel. Their ordinary drink is warm water, in which coarse tea has been infused; with it they mix cream, milk, or butter: they have also a method of making a kind of spirituous liquor of sour milk, espe- cially of that of the mare, which they ferment and distil. Tartars of better condition, before they distil this sour milk, mix with it some of the flesh of their sheep, which has been also left to ferment. This liquor is strong and nourishing, and one of their greatest pleasures is to get intoxicated with it.

The Mongols are extremely dexterous in hand- ling the bow and arrow, managing their horses, and hunting wild beasts. Polygamy is permitted among them, but they generally have only one wife. They burn the bodies of their princes and chief priests, with many solemnities, and bury the ashes on eminences, where the tombs are sometimes walled round, and ornamented with small standards. Their whole nation may be divided into four principal tribes—the Mon- gols properly so called, the Kalkas, Ortous, and Eluts, of which branch are the Tartars of Kokonor.

The Mandshurs are not very different in their habits and manners from the Mongols. They have, however, towns and villages, and appear to be more civilized, especially since their con- quest of China; though the Chinese retain a great antipathy to their conquerors, whom they despise as barbarians.

CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS.—The capital of the whole Mantchou country is Kin-yan, or, as it is called by the Tartars, Moukden. It contains a palace for the emperor, several public edifices, magazines of arms, and storehouses. Kirin, the chief town of the department of that name, is the residence of a Mandshur general, who is invested with all the powers of a viceroy: he has the inspection of the troops, and authority over all the mandarins. Ningoota, which is considered as the cradle of the imperial family,

is surrounded by a wooden wall, composed of stakes driven into the earth, which touch each other, and are 20 feet high. Beyond this is a similar palisade, which is a league in circumference, and has four gates corresponding to the four cardinal points.

The Mongols, properly so called, have no towns; but, in the Elut country of Little Bokhara is the city of Kashgar, formerly the capital of a kingdom, which still retains some trade. Yarkand stands more to the southward, on a river of that name; and Tourfan is the capital of a detached principality.

Trade.—The Mandshur traders chiefly dispose of ginseng, and pearls found in several rivers which fall into the Amur. This fishery belongs to the emperor; but the pearls are in general small, and not of a fine water: many, of a species much more beautiful, are found in other rivers of Tartary, which flow into the eastern sea. The companies and merchants who engage in this fishery must every year give to the emperor, for permission to fish, 1140 pearls; and they must be pure and without blemish, or others are required in their stead.

The sable-skins of this country are highly valued, because they are reckoned to be very durable. The most beautiful are set apart for the emperor, who buys a certain number at a stated price: the rest are sold at a high rate even in the country, where they are eagerly bought up by the mandarins and merchants.

The wandering tribes of Mongols know little of trade: they, however, exchange their cattle for cloth, silk, stuffs, and other apparel and ornaments for themselves and their women.

Government—Laws.—The departments of the country of the Mandshurs are governed by viceroys appointed by the emperor of China. The Mongols are governed by khans, or particular princes, who are independent of each other, but all subject to the authority of the Chinese potentate. The Chinese sway is, however, little more than nominal. When the Mandshurs subdued China, they conferred certain titles on the most powerful of the Mongol chiefs, and assigned revenues to them, but far inferior to those of the Mandshur lords at Pekin. The emperor settled the limits of their respective territories, and gave them laws according to which they are at present governed.

Religion.—Many of the Tartar tribes profess the religion of the lamas, or that of Thibet, of which we shall give an account in the description of that country. They often make pilgrimages in great numbers, from the distance sometimes of 1000 miles, to Putala and Teeshoo Loomboo, to pay homage and bring offerings to the lama.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Shamanism. The professors of this religious sect believe in one supreme God, the creator of all things; that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows everything, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do anything that can be meritorious in his sight. They also maintain that he has divided the government of the world, and the destiny of men, among a number of subaltern divinities under his control, but who, nevertheless, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot dispense with using all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewise suppose, that, for the most part, these inferior deities abominate and punish premeditated villany, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly persuaded of a future existence; but they have many superstitious notions and practices. Among all the Shamanes, women are considered as being greatly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their sensual pleasure, to people the world, and to look after domestic affairs; and, in consequence of these principles, they are treated with much severity and contempt.

Language.—The Mandshur language is very copious, these Tartars being particularly nice with respect to the too frequent recurrence of the same sounds: two consonants must never come together. It is also very expressive, having names not only for the different species of dogs, but such as signify the age, colour, good or bad qualities, of a dog, whether he has long hair or short hair, large ears or hanging lips, &c.; in all which cases he has a distinct and very different name. In like manner a horse has a variety of names, signifying in a single word, whether he be a restive, timid, or runaway horse, with what pace he goes, &c. This language is written in characters which represent sounds, and not things, like those of the Chinese. The late Orientalist, M. Langlès, compiled a dictionary of the Mandshur language, which he pronounced to be the most learned and perfect of the Tartar tongues, though not committed to writing before the 17th century, when the emperor appointed some literati to design letters after those of the Mongols; whose language, however, is said to be radically different from that of the Mandshurs.

History.—In early times, the extensive country comprehended under the name of Tartary was divided among a great number of tribes, some of which, being united, formed powerful nations. About 200 years before the Christian era, the Huns, by their activity and courage, had acquired a commanding pre-eminence, and their great khan domineered over many inferior princes. Their empire at length declined, and two branches arose from it, called the Mongols and the Tartars. The Turks seem to have had a kindred origin but, from successive intermixture with other races, they now exhibit features not altogether Tartaric. Temujin, better known by the name

ghis Khan, an enterprising chieftain, a Mongol khan, who had brought many under his sway, formed one great em- his address, the vigour of his arms, a terrific cruelty. Encouraged by his in his own country, he led his fero- ribes into Persia, and subdued that He also conquered a part of Hindoo- f China, and of Russia. Timur, who descendant of that great warrior by the line, was equally successful, extending nguinary and victorious course from n the east, to the western extremity of By those who only know him from the f Rowe, who typified King William III. Tamerlane, he may be considered as a nimous prince; but his cruelties were of the most diabolical complexion. The power which he had acquired gradually declined after his death: yet, by acting on the basis which he had raised, Baber, one of his grandsons, procured the splendid throne of Hindoostan. On the failure of the line of Genghis in Great Bokhara, the Usbeck sovereignty was seized by Rahim, and subsequently by the emir Daniel, whose son Beggee Jan established his authority by mingling with policy an affectation of religious purity, and left his usurped power to his son Hyder. We believe that a descendant of Timur still claims the title of grand khan of Independent Tartary: but his power is rather nominal than real; and the country appears to be divided among the rulers of particular districts.

THIBET.

ountry of Thibet," says Captain Turner, led, by the inhabitants, Pue, or Puckoa- hich is derived, as they told me, from nifying northern, and *koachim*, snow; the snowy region of the north." The s call it Tsang.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
th, 1350	between	75. and 101. E. long.
ith, 480		27. and 34. N. lat.

Containing 400,000 square miles.

NDARIES.—Thibet is bounded, on the nd north-west, by the Great Desert of n Tartary; on the east, by China; on th, by Assam and Birmah; on the south- nd west, by Hindoostan.

SIONS.—This country is divided into Middle, and Lower Thibet. The Upper called Ngari, and forms the provinces gkar, Pourang, and Tamo. The pro- of the middle division are Shang, Ou, ang; those of the lower, Congbo, Ko- nd Takbo, Tangustan, or Boutan. The an extensive country, considered as dis- om Thibet Proper.

E OF THE COUNTRY — MOUNTAINS— ES.—Thibet, at first view, appears to be the least favoured countries under hea- d in a great measure incapable of cul- It exhibits only low rocky hills without ible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, the most stern and stubborn aspect, ng as little as they produce. Boutan, r, or the most southern part, though it s only the most misshapen irregulari- s its mountains covered with verdure, with forests of large and lofty trees.

S.—The most considerable lake, with to dimensions, is that of Terkiri, which 80 miles in length and 25 miles broad; most remarkable is that of Jamdro or Palté, which is represented as a wide trench, about two leagues broad, surrounding an island of about twelve leagues in diameter. Of the other lakes, the most important are the Rhawan Rad, the Mansorawara, and the Koko Nor.

RIVERS.—The principal river of Thibet is the Sanpoo, or Burrampooter, which is also a river of Hindoostan. The Ganges likewise has its source among the mountains of Thibet, as also the Chinese rivers Hoangho and Kiangku, the great river May-kaoung of Laos and Cambodia, the Sutlege, and the Sarjoo or Gagra, which, after a course of about 550 miles, falls into the Ganges, near Chupra.

METALS—MINERALS.—Boutan is not known to contain any metal except iron, and a little copper; but in Thibet Proper gold is found in great quantities, and very pure—sometimes in the form of gold dust, in the beds of rivers, and sometimes in large masses and irregular veins. There is a lead-mine about two days' journey from Teeshoo Loomboo, which probably contains silver. Cinnabar, abounding in quicksilver, rock-salt, and tincal, or crude borax, are likewise among the mineral productions of this country: the last is found in inexhaustible quantities.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—The climate of Thibet is extremely cold and bleak, from the effects of which the inhabitants are obliged to seek refuge in sheltered valleys and hollows, or amidst the warmest aspects of the rocks. In the temperature of the seasons, however, a remarkable uniformity prevails, as well as in their duration and return. In Boutan, almost every mountainous part which is coated with the smallest quantity of soil, is cleared and adapted to cultivation; but, in Thibet Proper, the nature of the soil checks the progress of agriculture. Wheat, barley, and rice, are raised in Boutan.

ANIMALS.—The variety and quantity of beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds of wild-fowl and game, in Thibet, according to Mr. Turner, are astonishing: but, in Boutan, he met with no wild animals, except monkeys. The horses, cattle, and sheep of Thibet are of diminutive size, as are most of the beasts of prey. The mutton, however, is excellent. The musk-deer is a native of this country. This animal is about the height of a moderate-sized hog; he has in the upper jaw two long tusks, directed downwards, which seem intended to dig roots, his usual food: the musk, which is only found in the male, is of a black colour, and formed in a little bag near the navel. These deer are the property of the state, and hunted only by permission of the government. In Thibet there is also a beautiful species of goat, with straight horns, having, under the coarse outer coat, very fine hair, from which shawls are manufactured. But the most singular animal is the yak, an animal of the buffalo tribe, yet with some resemblance of a horse. It yields a rich milk, and is used as a beast of burden. Its tail, which consists of long, flowing, glossy hair, is a considerable article of trade, under the name of chowrie, and is used by great men in India, as an ornament and a fly-flap.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—To the north of Tassisudou, Mr. Sanders, who accompanied Captain Turner into Thibet, observed a singular rock projecting over a considerable fall of water, and forming in front 600 or 700 angular semi-pillars of a great circumference, and some hundred feet high. Among the mountains of Boutan is a water-fall called Minzapeezo, which issues in a mass, but descends from so great a height, that, before it reaches the bottom, it is nearly dissipated, and appears like steam.

INHABITANTS—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—The people of Boutan and Thibet are much more robust and less swarthy than their neighbours of Bengal. Humanity, and an artless gentleness of disposition, says Mr. Turner, are the constant inheritance of a Thibetian. Without being servilely officious, they are always obliging: the higher ranks are unassuming, the inferior respectful; nor are they deficient in attention to the female sex: but, as they are moderate in their passions, so in this respect their conduct is equally remote from rudeness and adulation. A remarkable custom prevails, (contrary to the usual customs of the east,) by which a woman is permitted to marry all the brothers of a family, without any restriction. The ceremonies of marriage are simple. The lover makes his proposal to the parents; and, if it be accepted, they repair with their daughter to the suitor's house, where the male and female acquaintance of both parties carouse for three days, with music, dancing, and every kind of festivity. At the end of this time the marriage is complete. The priests have no share in these ceremonies. Mutual consent is the only bond of union, and the parties present are witnesses to the contract, which lasts till death.

The Thibetians expose their dead bodies within walled areas, which are left open at the top, and have passages at the bottom to admit birds, dogs, and beasts of prey. No funeral rites are performed but such as tend to facilitate the destruction of the body by the voracious animals, which are, as it were, invited to devour it. Some bodies are conveyed to the summit of a neighbouring hill, where they are disjointed and mangled, that they may be a more easy prey to carnivorous birds. The bodies of the sovereign lamas are, however, deposited in shrines, which are ever after considered as sacred, and visited with religious awe: those of the inferior priests are burned, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. An annual festival is observed in Thibet, as in Bengal, in honour of the dead; which is celebrated by a general illumination of the houses and other buildings.

CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—Lassa, or Lahassa, is considered as the capital of Thibet, and is situated in a spacious plain: the houses are built of stone, and are large and lofty. The temple is a magnificent building, and the bazaar is of immense extent. The population is said to be 80,000. The celebrated mountain of Putala, on which stands the palace of the grand lama, is about seven miles to the east of the city. The temple there is the finest in Thibet.

Teeshoo Loomboo, or Lubrong, the seat of Teeshoo Lama, and the capital of that part of Thibet which is immediately subject to his authority, is, in fact, a large monastery, consisting of 300 or 400 houses, inhabited by gylongs, (a kind of monks or priests,) besides temples, mausoleums, and the palace of the pontiff, with the residences of the various subordinate officers, both ecclesiastical and civil, belonging to the court. It is included within the hollow face of a high rock; and its buildings are all of stone, none less than two stories high, flat-roofed, and crowned with a parapet.

The castle or palace of Tassisudon, in Boutan, stands near the centre of the valley of the same name. It is a stone building of a quadrangular form. The outer walls are lofty, being above 30 feet high, and enclose a central square building, which is the habitation of the chief lama of the district. There is no town near the palace; but a few clusters of houses are distributed in different parts among the fields.

"A Thibet village," says Mr. Turner, "by no means makes a handsome figure. The peasant's house is of a mean construction, and resembles a brick-kiln in shape and size, more exactly than anything to which I can compare it. It is built of rough stones, heaped upon each other without cement; and, on account of the strong winds that perpetually prevail here, it has never more than three or four small apertures to admit light. The roof is a

rrounded with a parapet wall
t high: on this are commonly
loose stones, intended to sup-
g, or the branch of a tree; or
ng for a long line with scraps
te rag, strung upon it, like the
his, being stretched from one
r, is a charm against evil genii,
ts efficacy as horse-shoes nailed
d, or as straws thrown across
puted witch."

ES—COMMERCE.—The manu-
et are principally shawls and
The exports, which go chiefly
ngal, consist of gold-dust, dia-
oral, musk, rock-salt, woollen
-skins, the latter of which are
hair on, and are in great re-
s, to keep out the cold; in
h, silk, satin, gold and silver
acco, and furs of various kinds,
m China; and, from Bengal,
of that country, and a variety
odities and manufactures.

—RELIGION.—The government
is intimately connected with
h the civil and spiritual au-
the hands of the lamas, or
m the chief, called the Dalai
aly adored by the Thibetians,
eat object of veneration among
s of Tartars who roam through
hich stretches from the banks
Corea. Every year they go to
te rich offerings at his shrine;
or of China does not fail in
ts to him in his religious ca-
the lama is tributary to him,
in Pekin, at a great expense,
deputed as his nuncio. The
ost orthodox is, that when the
as to die, his soul in fact only
itation to look for one that is
er; and it is discovered again
ome child, by certain tokens
he lamas, in which order he

In 1774, the grand lama was
a had been discovered some
the Teeshoo lama, who, in
unctity, is next to the grand
g his minority, acts as chief.
. Turner went on his embassy
Teeshoo lama was in like
, under the guardianship of a
at gentleman has given an
on of a visit which he made
oo Lama," he tells us, "was
hteen months old. He was
form, upon his musnud. On
d his father and mother, and
officer particularly appointed
s person. The musnud is a
ions, piled one upon another,
elevated to the height of four
r; a piece of embroidered silk
and the sides also were deco-
rated with pieces of silk of various colours, suspended from the upper edge, and hanging down. Though the little creature was unable to speak a word, he made the most expressive signs, and conducted himself with astonishing dignity and decorum. His complexion was of that hue which in England we should term rather brown. His features were good; he had small black eyes, and an animated expression of countenance."

The religious votaries of the lamas are divided into two sects, the gylookpa and the shammar, at the head of each of which are three lamas. Over the gylookpa sect three personages preside; namely, the Dalai lama, whose residence is at Putala, near Lassa; the Teeshoo lama, who dwells at Teeshoo Loomboo; and the Taranaut lama, who resides at Kharka in Kilmank. This sect prevails over the greatest part of the country. The three lamas who preside over the shammar sect, have their residence in Boutan, in separate monasteries, but at no great distance from each other. These sects are distinguished by the colour of the dress of their priests. Those of the gylookpa wear long robes of yellow cloth, with a conic cap of the same colour, having flaps to cover the ears. The dress of the other sect is red, and the tribes are known as belonging to the red or the yellow cap. The former, it is said, differ principally from the others in admitting the marriage of their priests; but the latter are considered as the most orthodox, and possess the greatest influence, since the emperor of China is decidedly a votary of this sect, and has sanctioned his preference of the yellow colour, by a sumptuary law which limits it to the service of religion and the imperial use. These sects formerly engaged in violent religious wars, each destroying, when successful, the monasteries of the other, and establishing its own in their stead; but these animosities are now nearly extinct.

There are numerous monasteries containing a great number of gylongs, or monks, who are required to be strictly sober, to forego the society of women, and confine themselves to the austere practices of the cloister. On the establishment of the monastery of Teeshoo Loomboo, 3700 of these gylongs were reckoned. There are also a number of convents, containing annees, or nuns; and the strictest laws exist to prevent any woman from even accidentally passing a night within the limits of a monastery, or a man within those of a nunnery.

"The religion of Thibet," says Mr. Turner, "seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos, deriving its origin from one of the followers of that faith, a disciple of Boudh, who first broached the doctrine which now prevails over the wide extent of Tartary. It is reported to have received its earliest admission into that part of Thibet bordering upon India, (which hence became the seat of the sovereign lama,) to have traversed over Mantchou Tartary,

and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. Though it differs from the Hindoo in many of its outward forms, it still bears a very close affinity to the religion of Brahma, in some important particulars. The principal idol, in the temples of Thibet, is Mahamoonie, (a name which in Sanscrit literally signifies great saint,) the Budha or Boudha of Bengal, who is worshipped under these and various other epithets throughout Tartary, and among all the nations to the eastward of the Burrampooter. In the wide-extended space over which this faith prevails, the same object of veneration is acknowledged under numerous titles: among others, he is styled Godama or Gowtama, in Assam and Ava; Samana in Siam; Amida Buth in Japan; Fohi in China; Budha or Boudh in Bengal and Hindoostan; Dherma Rajah and Mahamoonie in Boutan and Thibet. Durga and Kali; Ganeish, the emblem of wisdom; and Cartikeah, with his numerous heads and arms, as well as many other deities of the Hindoo mythology, have also a place in their assemblage of gods.

"The same places of popular esteem, or religious resort, as I have already hinted, are equally respected in Thibet and in Bengal. Praag, Cashi, Durgeedin, Saugor, and Jagarnaut, are objects of devout pilgrimage; and I have seen loads of the sacred water taken from the Ganges, travelling over those mountains, (which, by-the-by, contribute largely to its increase,) upon the shoulders of men, whom enthusiasts have deemed it worth their while to hire at a considerable expense for so pious a purpose.

"As far as I am able to judge respecting their ritual or ceremonial, it differs materially from the Hindoo. The Thibetians assemble in chapels, and unite in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they chant in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments; so that, whenever I heard these congregations, they forcibly recalled to my recollection both the solemnity and sound of a Roman Catholic mass."

LANGUAGE.—The language of Thibet is said to be radically different both from those of the Mandshurs and the Mongols. According to Mr. Turner, it consists almost entirely of nasal and guttural sounds. The alphabetic characters are of two kinds, the uchem and umin. The former is the character in which the sacred writings are preserved, and considerably resembles the Sanscrit; the other is the alphabet used for business and common correspondence. The vowels are indicated by marks or points, and the order of writing, contrary to the usual practice in the east, is from the left to the right. Printing with blocks of wood, in the manner of the Chinese, is said to have been known in Thibet in a very remote age.

HISTORY.—It is said that the succession of kings and lamas of Thibet began many ages before the birth of Christ; but, if this be true, we know nothing of the successive reigns. It appears that, about the beginning of the 17th century, the Chinese emperor arbitrarily interfered in the government, by giving to a distinguished lama the regal power; but, after an interval of several ages, we learn from Father Andrada, who was in Thibet in 1624, that the country was governed by a secular sovereign, named Tsan-pa-han, who was a zealous protector of the Christian religion, and seemed greatly inclined to embrace it. The Tartar history of the same period corroborates this circumstance; for it relates that this prince despised the lamas, abandoned the law of the god Fo, and sought every opportunity of destroying it. The Dalai lama, being highly incensed at not receiving the homage of Tsan-pa-han, formed a league with the Tartars of Kokonor, who, under their prince Kouchi, entered Thibet, attacked Tsan-pa-han, defeated him, and caused him to be put to death. To this Tartar prince the lama was indebted for his sovereignty over all Thibet: for, instead of appropriating to himself the fruits of his victory, Kouchi declared himself a vassal of the supreme chief of his religion, satisfied with receiving from him the title of khan. The lama continued to be an independent sovereign till late in the 18th century, when Thibet was invaded by the Nepaulese, who, after an obstinate struggle, succeeded in compelling the lama to purchase peace by the payment of a heavy tribute. In this emergency, he applied to the Chinese emperor for assistance. In 1791, an army of 70,000 Chinese marched into Thibet, and was strenuously resisted by the Nepaulese: the latter were, however, finally compelled to retire within their own limits. The Chinese emperor repaid himself for his exertions, by assuming the paramount civil authority over Thibet, which, since then, has been reckoned among the dependencies on China. No change was made in the internal administration.

INDIA ON THIS SIDE OF THE GANGES; OR, HINDOOSTAN.

THE name of India is derived from the river Indus, and is extended to all countries to the south of Tartary, between that river and China. It is denominated Hindoostan by the Persians; *but the Hindoos call it Bharata.*

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles		Degrees.
Length,	1900	between	8. and 35. N. lat.
Breadth,	1200		67. and 92. E. long.

Containing 1,200,000 square miles.

ITS AND DIVISIONS.—It is bounded, th, by Usbeck Tartary and Thibet; , by Assam, Aracan, and the bay of Bengal; on the south, by the Indian Ocean; and by the same ocean and the Indus, on the west.

ınd Divisions.	*Provinces.*	*Chief Towns.*
ɔstan Proper— nces to the and N. of the es.	Bengal	Calcutta.
	Bahar	Patna.
	Allahabad	Allahabad.
	Oude	Lucknow.
	Agra	Agra.
	Delhi	Delhi.
ıstan Proper— nces to the .	Lahore	Lahore.
	Cashmir	Cashmir.
	Moultan	Moultan.
	Sinde	Hyderabad.
	Ajmir	Ajmir.
	Gujerat	Ahmedabad.
	Malwa	Gwalior.
ccan, or south- rovinces of the l empire.	Khandeish	Berhanpoor.
	Berar	Nagpoor.
	Orissa	Cuttack.
	Dowlatabad or Ahmednugur	Aurungabad.
	Visiapoor or Bejapoor	Visiapoor.
	Golconda or Hyderabad	Hyderabad.
	The northern Circars	Ganjam.
rn Hindoostan, ɔperly called Peninsula of ɔostan.	South-east coast, usually called the coast of Coromandel. — Carnada, or the Carnatic.	Madras.
		Mysore — Seringapatam.
		Tanjore — Tanjore.
		Madura — Madura.
	South-west coast, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Travancore — Travancore.
		Calicut — Calicut.
		Canara — Bednore.
		The Concan — Bombay.

inces of the Mogul empire were circars and pergunnahs, the former ıy be compared to counties, and the ndreds. The provinces were called d the governors or viceroys soubah- ıvaubs or nabobs.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—The invaloostan by Nadir Shah so weakened y of the emperor, that the viceroys ent provinces either threw off their or acknowledged a very precarious ; and, engaging in wars with each d in as allies the India Companies ınd England, who had been origitted, as traders, to form establishe coasts. These, profiting by the iority of European discipline, beıort time principals in an obstinate ch at length terminated in the ruin ch influence in Hindoostan; and any of British merchants acquired, essions from the native powers, by conquest, territories equal in superior in wealth and population, ıe kingdoms of Europe.

i, a soldier of fortune, who had art of war from the Europeans, d that part of the ancient Carnatic called the kingdom of Mysore, within a few years acquired, by gradual conquest, a great portion of the southern part of Hindoostan. This able and active prince, dying in 1782, left his possessions to his son Tippoo Saheb, who engaged in two wars with the English, in the former of which he lost a considerable part of his territories, and in the latter his life, and the remainder of his dominions. Part of the conquered territory was divided between the British and the Nizam; the rest was formed into a state, at the head of which was placed a descendant of the ancient royal family.

In consequence of these revolutions, the present Mogul, a descendant of the Great Timur, (such is the instability of human greatness,) is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Hindoostan: he is permitted to reside at Delhi, which, with a small adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of the vast empire of his ancestors.

The sovereignty of this great country is, therefore, now divided among the British, some nabobs or governors tributary to and dependent on them, the nizam or soubahdar of the Deccan, the Mahrattas, some independent rajahs or Hindoo princes, and, in the north, the Seiks.

The British territory in India was originally circumscribed within the island of Bombay, and the settlements of Madras and Calcutta. It was not till just after the middle of the 18th century that the career of aggrandizement was commenced. It proceeded in the following order:—1757, the twenty-four Pergunnahs; 1759, Masulipatam, &c.; 1760, Burdwan, Midnapore, and Chittagong; 1765, Bengal, Bahar, and Company's Jaghire, near Madras; 1766, Northern Circars; 1775, Zemindary of Benares; 1776, Island of Salsette; 1778, Nagore, Guntoor Circar; 1786, Pulo Penang; 1792, Malabar, Dindigul, Salem, Barramahl, &c.; 1799, Coimbatore, Canara, Wynand, Seringapatam, Tanjore, &c.; 1800, the districts acquired by the Nizam, in 1792 and 1799, from the sultan of Mysore; 1802, the Carnatic, Gurruckpore, Lower Doab, Bareilly, districts in Bundelcund; 1804, Cuttack, Balasore, upper part of Doab, Delhi, &c.; 1805, districts of Gujerat; 1815, Kumaion, and part of the Terraie; 1817, Saugur, Huttah Durwah, and Ahmedabad Farm; 1818, Khandeish, Ajmeer, Poonah, Concan, Southern Mahratta country, &c.; 1820, lands in Southern Concan; 1822, districts in Bejapoor and Ahmednuggur; 1824, Sincapore; 1825, Malacca; 1826, Assam, Aracan, Tavoy, &c., districts on the Nerbudda, Patna, Sumbulpore, &c.

The British government has also, under its protection and influence, the king of Oude, the Guicowar, the Rajpoots, the territories of Cutch, Mewar, Marwar, Sirohee, Harraoutree, the hill states of Ghurwal, the Seik states south of the Sutleje, the Rajahs of Travancore, Cochin, Mysore, Kolapoor, Sawuntwarree, Satara, Kolaba, Berar, Rewah, Sikim and Bhopal, and the Ameers of Sinde.

The original countries of the MAHRATTAS were the province of Khandeish and the district of Baglana, or the north-western part of Dowlatabad. They extended their territory to the west and south along the coast from Surat to Canara, through that narrow tract of land called the Concan, of which, in 1818, the British government took possession. The founder of their state was Sevaji, a descendant of the rajah of Oudepoor; who, revolting from Aurungzebe, was imprisoned at Delhi, but found the means of escape, and erected his standard at Satara. He was pardoned by the aged emperor, and permitted to govern the principality which he had founded. After his death, in 1682, his son Sahoo inconsiderately granted a very extensive power to Bissonauth Balaji, a Brahmin, under the title of peishwa, or leader of the Mahratta chieftains, and official ruler of the state. This ambitious minister transmitted his power to his family; and the rajah gradually became a state prisoner at Satara, while the peishwa governed the principality without control.

The Mahrattas were once the chief possessors of Central India, which extends from *Chittoor* in the north to the Tapty river in the south, and from the district of Bundelcund to the province of Gujerat. Their principal state is that of Malwa, which they wrested in 1732 from the Great Mogul, to whom, however, they pretended to be still subservient. Bajerow was their leader in this expedition; but he was less successful in his invasion of the Deccan. He died in 1740, and was succeeded in the administration by his son Balaji, in whose time Holkar, Scindia, and other chieftains, shook off the yoke of the peishwa. In 1761, the heads of most of the great families formed a confederacy against Ahmed the Affghan, whose ambition menaced all his Hindoo neighbours with subjugation; but they suffered a very sanguinary defeat at Panipat. Their warlike spirit was not depressed by the disaster: they engaged occasionally in other wars, which will be noticed in our sketch of the history of India.

The Pindarees have been compared with the first Mahrattas, whom, indeed, they resemble in character and habits, though they had not the same ties of religious or of national feeling. From being obscure freebooters, they rose into sufficient importance to be deemed useful auxiliaries by the Mahratta chieftains, and at length assumed an air of independence. By their predatory incursions they became such a scourge to the natives of India, that the British government resolved to suppress them. The important object was accomplished in 1818, under the administration of the Marquis of Hastings, by a series of masterly manœuvres and marches, the plan of which was formed by his lordship.

The only Mohammedan prince of any consequence in Central India, says Sir John Malcolm, is the nabob of Bhopal, who is of Affghan origin; and this officer has given a curious account of a memorable siege sustained in the capital of that territory, which, though it had a high and strong wall, had no other works that could deserve to be called fortifications. The nabob defended the place, however, for six months, against a numerous army of Mahrattas, and compelled the enemy, in 1808, to relinquish the siege. In 1817 he became an ally of the India Company, and received, for his services against the Pindarees, a small province which had been taken from a Mahratta chieftain.

The possessions of the Nizam, or ruler of the DECCAN, comprise the province of Golconda, that is, the ancient province of Tellingana, (situated between the Kistna and Godevery rivers,) and the principal part of Dowlatabad, with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a fourth part of its net revenue to the rajah. His capital is Hyderabad, on the Musah river.

The descendant of the rajah, who was dispossessed by the usurper Hyder Ali, was, on the fall of Tippoo, restored to the sovereignty of a great part of Mysore, under British protection. Most of the other rajahs are dependant

me of the great powers, but chiefly on Britain.

province of Cashmir chiefly consists of ious valley, sheltered by mountains from ld winds: the climate is delightful, and oil, being well-watered, is abundantly . The inhabitants are industrious, and y themselves in various branches of factures and trade. Their shawls, made the hair of the Thibet goats, are well n in Europe, and have not yet been ex- or even equalled by the similar fabrica y other country. Both sexes have been d for personal beauty: the men, indeed, out and well-formed; but their features en coarse and broad, and the women in al are not very handsome. The dress of rmer consists of a shirt, trowsers, a loose n coat, a shawl girdle, and a large turban; f the latter, of a crimson cap or bonnet, l scarf, and a long cotton robe, beside ers. The chief town of the province is Cashmir and Serinagur, and extends en two and three miles on each side of lum, and is, in some parts, almost two in breadth. Many of the houses have stories, and are built principally of wood, by brick walls; the roofs are of wood, loping direction, and are covered with which exhibits, in the proper season, a ion of flowers. The streets are narrow, e suffered, by the gross negligence of abitants, to be generally in a very dirty

No fine buildings appear within the ut the remains of handsome palaces are the neighbourhood. The lake, which the town, is celebrated for its pic- e beauty.

territories of the SEIKS border upon istan, and consist of great portions of vince of Lahore, the Panjab, Moultan, r, and Peshawur, of which the last two ken from the Affghans by the late ah, Runjeet Sing, the ruler of the Seiks. fferent states are under the arbitrary chieftains, who do not, however, so the people as to prevent them from the fruits of their industry; a quality notwithstanding their predatory and habits, they possess in a high degree. gion of the Seiks is described, by Mal- "a creed of pure deism, grounded on sublime general truths; blended with f of all the absurdities of Hindu my- and the fables of Mohammedism." s, however, differ greatly from the in rejecting all the sacred books of le, eating all kinds of flesh, except ws, admitting proselytes from every l considering the profession of arms ious duty. The founder of their sect d Naneck, and lived in the beginning h century. They are the descendants ciples, the word seiks bearing that on in the Sanscrit language.

AINS.—The chief mountains are those which separate Hindoostan from Thibet, and are called by the natives Himalaya, or the abode of snow, with which they are constantly covered.

This stupendous chain, it is said, exhibits a continued well-defined line of white cliffs, extending through two points of the compass, and is seen at the distance of 150 miles. Lieutenant Webb, who examined many of the peaks of this chain, declares that nineteen are higher than Chimboraço, the loftiest summit of the Andes. The highest point, by his account, is 25,669 feet above the level of the sea; whereas, according to Mr. Reddell, the South American mountain is only 20,900 feet in height. In Southern Hindoostan, the mountains called the Ghauts (though this word properly signifies a pass in a mountain) extend from the river of Surat to Cape Comorin. They are called the Ballaghaut and the Payenghaut, or the Upper and Lower Ghauts. They are in many places a mile and a quarter in height, overgrown with forests, and have their summits frequently enveloped in snow. At their termination near Cape Comorin, they may be seen eight or nine leagues out at sea. Many parts of the interior of India are also intersected by chains of mountains.

RIVERS—LAKES.—The Ganges (*ganga* or river, by way of eminence) is not only the principal river of Hindoostan, but one of the noblest in the world. It issues from two sources in the Himalaya, the one called Baghirettee, the other Alakananda; and, after a long course, enters Hindoostan, near Hurdwar. After emerging from the mountains, this great river, which the Hindoos hold in religious veneration, believing that its waters have a virtue which will purify them from every mortal transgression, flows through delightful plains, with a smooth navigable stream from one to three miles wide, toward the Bay of Bengal, into which it falls by two large, and a multitude of smaller channels, that form and intersect a large triangular island, the base of which, at the sea, is near 200 miles in extent. The whole navigable course of this river, from its entrance into the plains of Hindoostan to the sea, extending with its windings nearly 1500 miles, is now possessed by the British, their allies and tributaries. The western branch, called the Little Ganges, or river of Hoogly, is navigable for large ships. The Ganges receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none inferior to the Thames.

The Burrampooter, Brahmapooter, or Brahmapootra, (that is, the son of Brahma,) is superior to the Ganges, both in length of course and in width. It rises near the head of the latter river, in the mountains of Thibet, on the opposite side of the same ridge, and takes its course in a contrary direction, till it is 1100 miles distant from it, having proceeded to within about 200 miles of Yunnan, the most western province of China, when it returns, and joins the Ganges near the sea. During the last sixty miles, it

forms a stream which is regularly from four to five miles wide. In Thibet it is called the Sanpoo, and, when it joins the Ganges, the Megna.

Another considerable river in this part of Hindoostan, is the Jumna. It rises in the mountains of Serinagur, and, pursuing a course nearly parallel to that of the Ganges, for 500 miles, falls into this river at Allahabad.

The Indus, called by the natives Sindeh, is the western boundary of India. It is supposed to derive its origin from various streams springing at a distance from each other, out of the Tartarian mountains, one of which originates in Cashmir. In its course to the Indian sea, it receives the Behut or the ancient Hydaspes, and four other streams, among which is the Sutlege, which form the Panjab, or the country of the five rivers. The Indus is also called the Nilab, or the Blue River, and the Attock. Its whole course is about 1700 miles.

In southern Hindoostan, the principal rivers are the Nerbudda, which falls into the Indian sea after a course of about 750 miles, and is considered as forming the northern boundary of the Deccan; the Godavery, which falls into the Bay of Bengal, after a course of nearly 850 miles; the Kistna or Krishna, which is the boundary of the Deccan to the south; and the Cavery, which surrounds the city of Seringapatam. The two last rivers fall into the Bay of Bengal, after a course of about 450 miles each.

Metals—Minerals.—The principal mineral production of Hindoostan is that most valuable of gems, the diamond, which is found chiefly in the provinces of Golconda and Visiapoor, and also in that of Bengal. Raolconda, in Visiapoor, and Gandicotta, are famed for their mines, as is Coloor in Golconda. The diamond is generally found in the narrow crevices of the rocks, loose, and never adherent to the strong stratum. The miners, with long iron rods, which have hooks at the ends, pick out the contents of the fissures, and wash them in tubs in order to discover the diamonds. In Coloor, they dig in a large plain to the depth of 10 or 14 feet; 40,000 persons are employed, the men to dig, and the women and children to carry the earth to the places in which it is to be deposited before the search is made. Diamonds are also found in the gravel or sand of rivers, washed out of their beds, and carried down with the stream. The river Gonel, near Sumbhulpoor, is the most noted for them. Many other precious stones are found in this country; but there seem to be no mines, either of gold or silver, though particles of gold are found in some of the rivers in the northern parts of Bengal.

Climate—Soil—Agriculture.—The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six months from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and, in some dry seasons, the hurricanes, which tear up the sands, and let them fall in dry showers, are extremely disagreeable. Europeans in general, who arrive in Hindoostan are commonly seized with some illness, such as flux, or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, especially if the patients are abstemious, they recover, and afterward prove healthy. Hepatic complaints are not uncommon among those who have resided long in the country; and, some years ago, the cholera, in particular, was very prevalent, not only among the troops serving against the Mahrattas and Pindarees, but also in many of the towns. It has been less fatal, however, to the Europeans than to the natives.

In the south of Hindoostan, the mountains, running from N. to S., render it winter on one side, while it is summer on the other. About the end of June a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea, on the coast of Malabar, which, with continual rain, lasts four months, during which time all is serene upon the coast of Coromandel. Near the end of October, the rainy season and change of the monsoons begin on the latter coast; and, as it is destitute of secure harbours, ships are then obliged to leave it. The air is naturally hot in this division of India; but it is refreshed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is, from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is intolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the sea, which proves a great refreshment to the inhabitants of the coast.

The soil of this country is in many parts so excellent as to consist of black vegetable mould to the depth of six feet. In Bengal the Ganges annually overflows the country to the extent of more than 100 miles in width, which inundation greatly fertilizes the land; and the periodical rains and intense heat produce an extraordinary luxuriance of vegetation. The lands are tilled with very simple instruments, and the harvest gathered in, by the ryots or peasants, who live in the utmost penury and wretchedness, and have scarcely any other share of the produce of the soil than some coarse rice and a few pepper-pods.

Vegetable Productions.—Large forests are found in various parts of this extensive country, and on the coast of Malabar they consist of trees of a prodigious size. The teak-tree affords a strong and durable timber, which is well calculated for ship-building, as teak ships that have been in service for thirty years are not uncommon in the Indian seas, while a European-built ship is ruined there in five years. The cocoa-tree is remarkable for its extensive utility: of the body or trunk the natives make boats, and frames for their houses, and rafters they thatch their houses with the leaves, and, by slitting them lengthwise, make mats and baskets. The nut affords food, drink, and a valuable oil. From the branches, when cut, exudes a liquor called toddy, from which is distilled an excellent arrack. The Indian fig, likewise called the banyan and the wonder-tree, is sometimes of an amazing size, as it is

ually increasing—every branch throwing
ng fibres, which take root, and shoot out
anches, which continue in this state of
ession as long as they find soil to nourish

Of fruit-bearing trees the number is
reat, and the fruit delicious, especially
ranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, dates,
ds, mangoes, pines, melons, and, in the
rn parts, pears and apples.

doostan produces almost every kind of
especially rice. Among other vegetables
ucumbers, radishes, carrots, and yams.
ugar-cane nowhere grows with greater
, or is more productive, or more capable
ag manufactured into fine sugar, than in
l. Tobacco, which was introduced into
ountry about the year 1617, is now pro-
here in great quantities.

MALS.—Of the wild animals of Hindoo-
he tiger, for his size and strength, may
the first place; for lions, if there be any,
y rare. The royal tiger, as he is called,
igal, grows, it is said, to the height of
six feet, with a proportional length, and
ach strength, that he can carry off a
k or a buffalo with ease. Elephants are
ery numerous and large. Here are also
ds, panthers, lynxes, hyenas, wolves,
, and foxes, with various species of apes
onkeys, and many beautiful antelopes,
ularly that large kind called the nil-ghau.
buffaloes are frequent here, which are
erce, and have horns of extraordinary
. With respect to domestic animals, the
are generally of a large size, well-formed
ong, and the sheep are covered with hair
l of wool, except in the northern parts.
ng the birds are peacocks, and various
of parrots. Poultry in a wild state are
n great numbers in most of the jungles
kets. The natives are extravagantly
cock-fighting, and pay greater attention
raining and feeding of these birds, than
did, even when that diversion was at its

erpents of Hindoostan are very nume-
d some species are venomous in an
linary degree. At Bombay, and near
a small snake is found, which the Por-
call *cobra de morte;* it is only from
ne inches long, but from its bite death
nstantaneously ensues.

IAL CURIOSITIES.—Among these may
erated the northern mountains, which
e most majestic appearance, even at
nce of 100 miles; the ice rises often
r spires on a very grand scale, and the
s appear stained in the most elegant
with a roseate colour. At the Gangou-
ll of the Ganges, sometimes called the
outh, that river, after having flowed
subterraneous passage, again emerges.
s to the west of Gocauk, the Gutpurba
ich is 169 yards broad, falls perpendi-
own 174 feet; a fall exceeding that of
s cataract of Niagara in North Ame-
rica. The fall of Gutpurba is, however, but trifling in comparison with others. In Bundelcund there are numerous falls: there are four, in particular, which have a perpendicular descent of 200, 272, 362, and 400 feet. The Cavery has several, one of which has 100 feet, and the other 200. But these are all surpassed by the fall of Garsipa, on the river Sherrutty, which plunges at once down a descent of 1000 feet.

POPULATION.—The Mohammedans were computed by Mr. Orme to be about 10,000,000; and the Hindoos about 100,000,000. The whole population is now estimated at 140,000,000; of which 90,000,000 are British subjects, and 40,000,000 are tributaries.

INHABITANTS—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—The Hindoos, or, as they are likewise called, Gentoos, have from time immemorial been divided into four great tribes, or castes; which classification is attributed to Menu, the son or grandson of Brahma. To the first and most noble tribe belong the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the priesthood, like the Levites among the Jews. The second in order is the Kshatriyas tribe, who, according to their original institution, ought to be all soldiers; but they frequently follow other professions. The third is the tribe of Vaisyas, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, husbandmen, and shopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudra, who ought to be artisans, labourers, or menial servants. If any of them should be excommunicated from one of the four tribes, he and his posterity are for ever shut out from the society of every person in the nation, except that of the Pariah, who are holden in detestation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meanest and vilest offices.

Beside this grand classification, the Hindoos are subdivided into castes and smaller tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of these castes. The order of pre-eminence of all the castes, in a particular city or province, is in general indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior caste would think himself highly honoured by adopting the customs of a superior; but the latter would give battle sooner than not vindicate its prerogatives. The man of an inferior caste receives the victuals prepared by a superior caste with respect; but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caste. Their marriages are circumscribed by the same barriers as the rest of their intercourse; and hence, beside the national physiognomy, the members of each caste preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. There are some castes remarkable for their beauty, and others for their ugliness.

The members of each caste generally adhere to the professions of their forefathers. From one generation to another, the same families have followed one uniform line of life. But though the rule which confines each caste within its own sphere is inflexible in theory, it

a Sudra; and a Sudra, not finding employment by waiting on men of the higher classes, may subsist by handicrafts, principally following those mechanical operations, as joinery and masonry; and practical arts, as painting and writing, by following which he may serve men of superior classes; and although a man of a lower class is, in general, restricted from the acts of a higher class, the Sudra is expressly permitted to become a trader or a husbandman. Besides the particular occupations assigned to each of the mixed classes, they have the alternative of following that profession which regularly belongs to the class from which they derive their origin, on the mother's side; those at least have such an option, who are born in the direct order of the classes, as the Mûrdhâbhishicta, Ambasht'ha, and others. The mixed classes are also permitted to subsist by any of the duties of a Sudra; that is, by menial service, by handicrafts, by commerce, or by agriculture. Hence it appears, that almost every occupation, though regularly it be the profession of a particular class, is open to most other classes, and that the limitations, far from being rigorous, do in fact reserve only one profession, that of the Brahmin, which consists in teaching the Veda, and officiating at religious ceremonies."

To this early division of the people into castes, we may likewise ascribe a striking peculiarity in the state of India—the permanence of its institutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, was always there, and is still likely to continue, at least for some considerable time to come; neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticism of its Mohammedan conquerors, nor the power of its European masters, have effected any considerable altera-

man, who does not entirely s
from the world from a princi
Their religion also permits the
wives; but they seldom have
and it has been affirmed that
distinguished by a decency c
regard for their families, and s
vows, which might do honour t
in the most civilized countr
accounts attribute gross and f
ality to both sexes.

The soldiers, commonly cal
descendants of rajahs, abound
and middle provinces, and are
fair-complexioned than the in
southern parts. They are s
faithful people, and enter int
those who will pay them;
leader falls in battle, they t
engagements to him are fin
quit the field without any s
reputation. Some of the n
fraternity have raised themse
of princes, more particularly
The majority still retain their
tion; but, since they have
spread over the country, man
have seceded from the profess
pursue a variety of civil occu
the tricking and knavish spi
many of the Hindoos are noto

The complexion of the Hi
their hair is long, their pers
and elegant, their limbs fine
their fingers long and taper, th
open and pleasant, and their
the most delicate lines of beaut
and in the males a kind of
Their walk, manner, and wh
are graceful in the highest de

und, and have spacious galleries; but ments are small, and the furniture is legant, if we except the rich Persian The grandeur of a palace consists in nd its senana. The latter, which is ence of the women, is removed from of the house, and receives the light a square space in the centre of the ilding. The apparel of the women is rly rich: they have jewels on their nd about the neck, and also in the nostrils, with bracelets, and even ts for their ancles.

e of the lower classes are frequently in India. Not only children but this sex are openly sold by those who thority over them. Even the Brah- ourage this practice, and take slaves houses. The dancing-girls are all in aded state, and are condemned to a il and vice for the profit of others. ard to the amusements of the Hindoos, bserve, that they are chiefly gratified ious shows and festivals. Speaking atives of the central territories, Sir colm says, "Though it is principally festivals that they enjoy themselves, ake fully of the games and amuse- mmon to other parts of India. In s, gambling with dice is a prevalent It is little known in the villages. sons of the military profession, who ses, pass a great part of their time g and exercising them, and in learn- se of the spear; and both these and r warriors study the use of the sword npetent teachers, and practise with ks till they come to great perfection: improve their activity and strength astic exercises. Dancing-girls are y of large towns, while the villages hed to them (living in huts or tents) women of the lower tribes, who are rope-dancers, jugglers, or minstrels. ges are also frequently visited by strolling players: many of the latter lever. The subjects of the plays, or ces, which they represent, are as often hological fables, as the measures of hly rulers. The peasants appear to rkably cheerful race. They are par- fond of singing: the men, after the the day is over, will sit for hours in ging in chorus, or listening to some subject of which is generally reli- ed with tales of their former princes, eds of their forefathers. The women nd it is usual to see them returning from a well or river, with water for their families, chanting in chorus rite song. At the village marriages join in dances, and in every other nocent merriment, with a liberty exceeded by the usages of the same y part of the world."

ammedans of India are the mingled descendants of Arabs, Persians, Turks, and Tartars. They are at present in a state of humiliation, in consequence of the wonderful progress of the British power, and have therefore suffered their former arrogance to subside. They have, however, few good qualities, and are faithless, unprincipled, and immoral. Persons of rank among them delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train leopards to the sports of the field. All classes encourage tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers: they are fond of rude music, both of wind and stringed instruments, and play at cards in their private parties. They live on friendly terms with the Hindoos, forgetful of religious distinctions.

The Parsees, whose name indicates their origin, are a most industrious people, particularly in weaving and in architecture. They worship the sun and the element of fire, as emblems of the divinity.

PROVINCES—CITIES—CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is the most interesting to an English reader. In this part of Hindoostan, not indeed our trade, but our Indian empire, may be said to have commenced. It is about 400 miles in length, and 300 miles in breadth; and Bahar, which adjoins it, is less extensive only by a third part. In both provinces the soil is said to be more prolific than that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile; and the produce consists of rice, sugar-canes, corn, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, mulberry and other trees. The calico, muslin, and silk, here manufactured, are well known and admired, but the muslin manufacture has been nearly destroyed by the improvements in British fabrics, occasioned by machinery, which enables us to export the article to India cheaper than it can be made there: salt-petre, opium, wax, indigo, (an article of comparatively recent attention,) various drugs, and many other articles, are exported in large quantities; and provisions of all kinds are in great plenty. The country is intersected by canals cut from the Ganges, for the benefit of commerce, and abounds with towns, forts, and villages.

An ancient kingdom existed in Bengal; but of its origin and progressive history we have no certain intelligence. Early in the 13th century, it was so far subdued, that the people were reduced to tributary submission, under the Affghan sovereign of Delhi. This disgrace was endured till the year 1340, when Fakro'ddin, an officer of the government, seized the chief power, and founded an independent kingdom. This state of affairs continued for two centuries; after which, the country became an appendage of the Mogul empire. On the decline of the imperial power, the subjection of this province was little more than nominal; and, in 1765, the rising fame and powerful influence of the English, who had previously obtained the privilege of collecting the revenue, secured the effective sovereignty.

Bengal, which forms one of the three Indian presidencies, contains five military stations, besides Fort-William; and it is divided into three circuits, in each of which is a court of judicature. In civil causes, regard is paid to the Hindoo and Mobammedan laws; but, in criminal cases, the natives are amenable to the laws of Great Britain. They enjoy a full religious toleration, and are not oppressed by their European rulers.

The metropolis of Bengal, and also of British India, is Calcutta. This city is about 100 miles from the sea, situated on the western branch of the Ganges, which is navigable up to the town, but not for the largest ships. It extends from the western point of Fort-William, along the banks of the river, almost to the village of Cossipoor; that is, above four miles, while the breadth is in many parts inconsiderable.

It exhibits a striking mixture of European and Asiatic manners. The differences of countenance and figure, of dress and equipage; the passing ceremonies of the Hindoos of various casts; the amicable collision of Armenians, Jews, Arabs, Persians, Chinese, and people of the Indian islands, with the English and the Anglicised citizens; and a variety of other circumstances, excite in a high degree the attention of strangers. "As you approach Chandpal-Ghaut," says an officer, "and see a large, regular, and handsome fortress, a palace-like government-house, a wide and grand esplanade, many magnificent houses on one side of it, and a range of stately edifices beyond it, an anchorage crowded with shipping, and a close-built city containing not less than 80,000 houses; whatever your expectations may have been, they are surpassed." The population of the city and suburbs is said to amount to 700,000, of whom, comparatively few are Europeans. The houses occupied by the Hindoos are meanly and incommodiously built, many being composed of bamboos covered with matting, and not a few of mud surmounted by thatch.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The Indian nabob or viceroy, Seraj-ud-Dowlah, having a dispute with the Company, invested Calcutta with a considerable force. The governor and some of the principal persons of the place threw themselves, with their chief effects, on board of the ships in the river: they who remained, for some hours bravely defended the place; but, when they had expended their ammunition, they surrendered upon terms. The tyrant, instead of observing the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwell, the governor's chief servant, and 145 British subjects, into a prison, called the Black Hole, a place about 18 feet square, and shut up from almost all communication of free air. Their miseries during the night were inexpressible, and in the morning no more than 23 were found alive, the rest dying of suffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible frenzy. Among those who were saved was Mr. Holwell himself, who has written a most affecting account of the catastrophe.

Moorshedabad was the capital of Bengal before the establishment of the English power in India. A few domes and minarets, and a number of houses built of brick, with terraces, small verandahs, flat roofs, and painted doors and windows, give to this city, in spite of the mean huts crowded behind them, a very pleasing appearance. It is ostensibly under the government of a nabob, who is subject to British influence. The population is 150,000.

Hoogly, which lies 50 miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a great commercial town. The Dutch had here a well-formed factory.

Dacca is said to be the largest city in Bengal, but is certainly not the most populous: it having only 180,000 inhabitants. The weaving business, the great trade of India, is carried on in this town to a perfection unknown in other parts; and the muslin here manufactured is exquisitely fine.

Patna is the chief emporium of the province of Bahar, and is consequently populous and flourishing. It has a population of about 320,000.

Benares stands on the northern bank of the Ganges, about 450 miles from Calcutta. It is more celebrated as the ancient seat of Brahminical learning, for which it is a kind of university, than on any other account. It contains many Hindoo temples, and in the middle of the city is a large mosque, built by Aurengzebe, who destroyed a magnificent pagoda to erect it on its site. It is four miles in length and two in breadth, and has an extraordinary population, amounting, it is believed, to more than 630,000. It has been subject to Great Britain from the year 1775.

Allahabad, capital of the province of the same name, has about 20,000 inhabitants, and is situated at the conflux of the Ganges and the Jumna, where the waters of the former river, which are in all parts of India deemed holy, are thought to be peculiarly sanctified; whence the city has received the name of Allahabad, that is, the city of God. It contains a spacious fort and several magnificent structures. At a short distance, to the north-west are the diamond mines of Penna, in the province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow, which is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad, is a large town, but meanly built, and is supposed to contain nearly 300,000 persons. The houses are on a level with the worst houses in Calcutta; but the palaces of the nabob (now styled king) are very large and stately, if not elegant or tasteful structures. Fyzabad is of great extent, and appears to contain a great number of people, but they are chiefly of the lowest class; for the court, being removed to Lucknow, drew after it the great men, and the most eminent of the merchants, bankers, and shroffs, or money-changers. Near this town

the remains of the ancient city of Oude, ch is said to have been the first imperial of Hindoostan, and the capital of a great ire 1200 years before the Christian era; whatever was its former magnificence, traces of it now remain. It is considered holy place, and the Hindoos resort thither ilgrimage from all parts of the country.

ra, situated on the south side of the Jum- was made the capital of the Mogul empire he emperor Acbar. It was then a small fied town, but soon became one of the est and most celebrated cities of Hindoo- , being twelve miles in circumference, larly fortified in the Indian manner, with e citadel, and displaying many magnificent ces; but, after the removal of the court to i, it rapidly declined, though, in 1813, it contained 60,000 inhabitants. It is now soned by British troops, being taken from Mahrattas in 1803. To the south-east of is a beautiful mausoleum, erected by the Jehan for his beloved wife, and called Mahal, or the Crown of Edifices. When building, which is said to have cost 000, is viewed from the opposite side of iver, it exhibits, from the elegance of the , and the excellence of the materials and nanship, a degree of beauty, which is only ssed by its grandeur, extent, and general ificence.

hi is the nominal capital of Hindoostan, as the real one from 1647, when the shah made it his residence, to avoid the heat n, till the dissolution of the empire. It it seven miles in circumference, and has ee sides, a wall of grey granite, with ates built of free-stone. Though this city atly declined from its pristine splendour, ains a number of mosques, some of which y magnificent, and the remains of many , with marble baths. The gardens limar, laid out by order of the shah, not more than a mile in circumference, t to have cost £1,000,000 sterling in rich fuse decorations, and to have been nine s completing. When the British troops ssession of this city, the environs ap- little more than a shapeless heap of nd the surrounding country seemed desolate and forlorn; but it now wears aspect, and is estimated to contain nhabitants.

province of Sinde, which consists of a of the Indus, and a portion of the above it, the ancient capital was large city, formerly distinguished for and cotton manufactures. A plague, appened in 1669, carried off above the inhabitants employed in them, have since greatly declined; but it is ous for its manufacture of palanquins, canopied couches, on which the great over India, Europeans as well as na- ose when they appear abroad. They ed by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, forty miles in a day; ten being usually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. The present capital of Sinde is Hyderabad, which is situated about three miles from the Indus, has a tolerably strong fort, and contains numerous and skilful artificers, especially armourers and embroiderers on leather. The country is governed by three Mahommedan brothers, who bear the title of Ameers, and exercise a despotic authority.

Considerable portions of the provinces of Ajmir, Khandeish, and Malwa, are possessed by the Mahratta chief, Scindia, whose usual residence was for many years at Ougein, an ancient and spacious city, surrounded by a strong wall, with round towers. He has lately made Gwalior the seat of government, probably because it is one of the strongest places in India. Holkar has also extensive territories in the two last-mentioned provinces. Another potent Mahratta prince is the rajah of Berar, whose territories are situated to the eastward of Khandeish and Dowlatabad.

Gujerat, or Guzerat, is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of the finest in India. It is inhabited by a fierce, rapacious community, which is now controlled by British influence. Its capital is Ahmedabad, which is said to vie in wealth with the richest towns in Europe. About 110 miles to the south stands Surat, on the Tapty, which is one of the most flourishing commercial towns in Hindoostan, and contains about 150,000 inhabitants, though the harbour is small and incommodious.

Among the islands situated on the same coast is that of Bombay, belonging to the India Company, which gives name to one of the three Indian presidencies. Its harbour can conveniently contain 1000 ships at anchor. The island itself is about seven miles in length, and eighteen in circumference; but its situation and harbour are its chief recommendations, as it is destitute of almost all the conveniences of life. The town contains about 470,000 inhabitants. The climate was fatal to English constitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them to guard against its insalubrity. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of stone. This island was part of the portion paid with the infanta of Portugal to King Charles II., who gave it to the India Company; and it is still divided into three Roman Catholic parishes, inhabited by Portuguese, and those who are called Mestizos and Canarines; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portuguese, and the other the aborigines of the country. The English have found methods to render this spot, under all its disadvantages, a safe, if not an agreeable residence. The troops on the island are commanded by English officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and disciplined, are here, and all over the East Indies, called Sepoys.

had the title of rajah; but the country was conquered by Hyder Ali, and, since the death of Tippoo, has been in possession of the English. The principal ports of this province are Mangalore and Onore.

To the east of Canara, on the other side of the Ghauts, is the country of Mysore, the capital of which, Seringapatam, is now possessed by the English. This celebrated city, the conquest of which shed such lustre on the British arms, is situated on an island of the river Cavery, 4 miles long, and about 1½ mile broad. On the western side is a fortress with regular outworks; and the city contains several magnificent palaces and stately mosques. The mausoleum of Hyder, erected by his son, is a sumptuous edifice: in the environs are noble gardens.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole south-west coast of the peninsula, the appellation is sometimes restricted to the country lying on the north-west of Cape Comorin. The principal places on this coast are Tellichery, an English settlement, in a beautiful situation, remarkable for its salubrity, whence it is the great resort of invalids; Calicut, memorable for having been the first Indian port visited by the Portuguese under Vasco de Gama, and as the seat of the Samorins, the sovereigns of the country, who at that period appear to have possessed the whole Malabar coast from Goa to Cochin; and Cranganore, formerly a Dutch settlement.

The Carnatic is well known to the English. It extends from north to south about 350 miles, and 150 in breadth from east to west. It has

To the north of the Carnatic city of Golconda, once the cap dom, now principally belonging The whole of the Deccan, exter Nerbudda to the Kistna, was g progenitors of this prince; but tions were made from it at diff the Mahrattas, that the present the south-eastern division, of wh is Hyderabad, a large and popul fine city.

In the south-western part of Poonah, formerly the capital of state; a city which is neither strength nor for beauty. It wa Arthur Wellesley in 1803; and, i it has also fallen into the pos Company.

The province of Visiapoor, or B its conquest by the great Mog kingdom, the rajah of which, it revenue of £6,000,000 sterling, a into the field 150,000 soldiers: it subdued, in the sequel, by the M capital is of the same name, a very fruitful. The province of B joins to Visiapoor on the north Aurungabad, one of the most po Hindoostan, built by Aurengzeb capital, which has a very strong on a lofty mountain.

The territory of Orissa lies t Golconda, extending from east to miles, and from north to south a capital and the port of Balasore the English by the treaty which

ees, while others spontaneously fall proste in the way, and entitle themselves, as they ıfidently hope, to future happiness, by being ıshed to death beneath the wheels.

'o the southward of Orissa, the five circars n a tract of 60 or 70 miles in breadth, and 300 ength. Four of these governments were ceded the Company by the mogul, Shah Aalum, 765: but the other was not added to the ıber of our acquisitions before the year). Beside the usual agricultural products India, this country affords very fine timber ship-building; and it is inhabited by an ious and industrious race, whose cotton ufactures are particularly valuable; but, rtunately, the whole coast has not a har- fit for the reception of large vessels.

ıe territory of Nepaul, bordering upon Bri- India, may here be mentioned, though it been considered as a part of Thibet. It is ıted within the Himalaya range, has an ge length of 450 miles, and breadth of 100, s bounded, on the north, by Thibet; on the by the British province of Kumaoon; on outh, by the Gangetic plain; and on the by Sikim and Boutan. Before the war the English it was considerably more exre. With the exception of a portion of the , it is a mountainous country. It bears le of a kingdom, and abounds with popuowns and villages. The capital is Khatu, in which are about 4000 houses, con- g nearly 50,000 inhabitants; but Lalita , situated to the south-west, is a more lerable town in point of magnitude, havout 24,000 houses. Not far from this is a magnificent temple, which excites miration of strangers. Another large said to have 12,000 houses, is called Bhatn which are some stately religious struc-

It is the Oxford of Nepaul, and its es are large, and contain many works Sanscrit and other languages, relative ldhist literature. Two sects divide the : one, that of the Newars, or Newari, s a schism from the religion of Thibet; er, that which is called Parbatya, leans Hindoo system. The people are of a hue than their Indian neighbours; and tre is not an uncommon blemish among They are a brave and spirited race, as nglish, who fought against them, are o allow.

UFACTURES — COMMERCE.—The manus of Hindoostan consist principally of and silk. The inhabitants, in all handi- ades that they understand, are more ious and skilful than most of the Euro- and in weaving, sewing, embroidering, ne other manufactures, it is said that as much work with their feet as their Their painting, though they are ignothe art of drawing, is amazingly vivid olours. The fineness of their linen, ir filagree work in gold and silver, are anything of those kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in short, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been so from the earliest ages: it was not unknown even in Solomon's time; and the Greeks and Romans thence drew their principal materials of luxury. The greatest share of it is centered in England, the trade of the French with this country being nearly annihilated; nor is that of the Portuguese, Danes, and Dutch, of much importance. Among the exports from Hindoostan are diamonds, raw and wrought silk, rice, sugar, spice, and drugs.

The Mohammedan merchants carry on a trade with Mecca, from the western parts of this country, up the Red Sea. This trade is prosecuted in vessels called junks, the largest of which, we are told, beside the cargo, will carry above 1000 Moslem pilgrims to visit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyssinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they dispose of their cargoes for gold and silver; so that a junk, returning from this voyage, is often worth £150,000.

GOVERNMENT—LAWS.—The government of the Mogul emperor was despotic, and such is that of the different native sovereigns who rule a part of the country at present. The empire was hereditary, and the sovereign was heir to his own officers. All lands devolved in the hereditary line, and continued in that state even down to the subtenants, while the lord could pay his taxes, and the latter their rent; both which were regularly fixed in the public books of each district. The imperial demesne lands were those of great rajahs, which fell to Timur and his successors. Certain portions of them were called jaghires, and were bestowed by the crown on the great lords, and, upon their death, reverted to the emperor; but the rights of the subtenants, even of those lands, were indefeasible.

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long subsisted, almost without the resemblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was shaken, however, by Kouli Khan's invasion, which was attended by so great a diminution of the imperial authority, that the soubahdars and nabobs became absolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and support their power; so that many, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and tax-masters, were left to perish through want. To sum up the misery of the inhabitants, the Moslem governors employed the Gentoos themselves, and some even of the Brahmins, as the ministers of their rapacity and cruelty. Hindoostan thus became a scene of mere anarchy or stratocracy; every great man protected himself in his tyranny by his soldiers, whose pay far exceeded the natural riches of his government. To these circumstances the English were principally

indebted for their success in India: and, whatever may be said of the occasional misconduct of the Company and its civil and military servants, it is certain that, wherever their power extends, the natives are less oppressed, and enjoy, with less restriction and greater comfort, the fruits of their industry. With regard to the Hindoo governments, Sir John Malcolm observes, that, "the head of a principality is a hereditary and absolute prince:" but, when he affirms that this "head is the chief of his clan, which extends his power in some respects, but checks it in others," he in a great measure contradicts his former assertion. The fact is, that these princes endeavour to govern absolutely, but cannot do it so effectually as they wish. They have no representative government to control them, but are checked by the interference and remonstrances of the chieftains and other persons of distinction: yet this check does not effectually conduce to the purposes of good government; for the people are scarcely more regarded and relieved than they are under the tyrannical Moslems.

Religion.—The theological system of India is so ancient, that no time can with any degree of probability be assigned for its origin. Brahma is the supposed prophet and legislator of the Hindoos. It is pretended that he was an angel; that he was permitted to assume the human form, commissioned to act as the sovereign of India, and ordered to impart the divine will to a pagan nation. He represented the Deity as a self-existent being, all-seeing, omnipotent, wise beyond human conception, benevolent, mingling mercy with justice, and determined to save all who are not incorrigibly sinful and wicked; and even the worst sinners, he declared, would not suffer eternal but only temporary punishment. The transmigration of the soul from one body into another, in the way of trial and probation, was a part of his creed; and that abstinence from the consumption of flesh, which was afterwards recommended by Pythagoras, was enjoined as a proof of moral purity and humanity. This religion, in the progress of time, degenerated into a system of gross idolatry, ceremonial absurdity, and shocking cruelty. Other representatives of the Deity, other incarnate angels, or, as some say, human beings deified, are supposed to have followed Brahma at different periods. Vishnu was one of these, and another was Boudh, whose doctrines have been diffused over a great part of Southern Asia. These personages, and other objects of reverence, are represented by uncouth figures, to which worship is paid with little meaning and with no true piety.

The spiritual institutions of the Hindoos are, in some respects, the most remarkable instances of the degradation of the human mind. Religion, or rather superstition, forms the most prominent feature in the aspect of Hindoo society; and, therefore, the Brahmins or *priests* are the most distinguished persons in the community, and exercise an arbitrary and imposing influence. They are regarded by the ordinary natives as scarcely inferior to the gods. Sometimes they are even objects of adoration; and this circumstance will not excite our astonishment, when we consider that the cow, the monkey, and many other animals, receive from the deluded people a species of worship, and that the principal rivers of the country are deemed sacred.

There is, perhaps, no part of Hindoostan, says Sir John Malcolm, where "the tribes of Brahmins are so various and their numbers so great, as in Central India; and, at the same time, there is no province or district where so few of them are either wealthy or learned, or where less attention is paid to the religious rites of the Hindoo faith, or to its priests, by the rest of the population." He also states, that a great number of Brahmins arrived in Central India, after it had been wrested by the Mahrattas from the Moslems; and those who were more worldly-minded than the rest were employed in civil and military offices. Their amount, he says, "may be computed at about 2000 families; and, if we suppose two males to have arrived at mature age in every family, and add 4000 men of this tribe who have no settled homes, but are in the service of Mahratta princes and chiefs, we shall not have less than 8000 educated men, a very small portion of whom are devoted to religious duties—at the utmost not more than 1000—while the remaining 7000 constitute that active body of men of business, who carry on all the duties of the Mahratta government, and are the most industrious and intelligent, both of the higher and lower classes of merchants and clerks. We may assume, that there is not one of this class who has not been instructed to read and write; that they are, from the habits of their order, exempt from sobriety and idleness; and that, though very subtile, and often unprincipled, they are almost all of decent demeanour, and have remarkable industry and perseverance. The consequence is, they are, generally speaking, the real masters, though only nominal servants, of the rulers by whom they are employed, and the wealth they obtain adds to their influence, both as individuals and as a community."

The ceremonies prescribed by this religion are more numerous and complicated than those of any other system with which we are acquainted. A detail of these ritual observances would be tedious and uninteresting. They deform the purity of religion, and rather obstruct than promote the influence of true piety, with which they have no real connexion; but they may be termed innocent, when compared with the cruel practices which form a part of the same system. A long continuance in the most irksome and harassing postures may be deemed sufficiently absurd; but the devotees are not content without the infliction of positive torture. They

elves with knives in various parts ies, swing upon hooks thrust muscles of their backs, recline f iron, walk on fire, and fall from a sharp instruments; and some ves to be crushed by the moving ol Jagarnaut. Murder is also a horrible system. Children are he Ganges, as offerings to that : sometimes a child is hung upon iket, and totally deserted: others re; and the aged and infirm are t to perish on the banks of a or thrown into the stream. The nsigning widows to the flames deemed, in one sense, an act of e part of the Brahmins, when, ly the case, they influence the ale to this unnatural practice. government discountenances it, on the decline.

s, or pagodas, of the Gentoos are one buildings, erected in every roportion to the progress of the tries of India in opulence and e structure of their temples gra- ed. From plain buildings they y ornamented fabrics, and, both it and magnificence, are monu- power and taste of the people by ere erected. In this highly- there are pagodas of great anti- nt parts of Hindoostan, particu- southern provinces, which have osed to the destructive violence lan zeal. In order to assist our ing a proper idea of these build- briefly describe two, of which we accurate accounts. The entry a of Chillambrum, near Porto oromandel coast, holden in high account of its antiquity, is by a ider a pyramid 122 feet in height, e stones above 40 feet long, and feet square, and covered with er, adorned with an immense es neatly executed. The whole nds 1332 feet in one direction, another; and some of the orna- re finished with great elegance. f Seringham, superior in sanctity lambrum, surpasses it as much It is composed of seven square within the other, the walls of et high, and 4 feet thick. These 350 feet distant from one ano- a has four large gates with a which are placed, one in the side, and opposite to the four . The outward wall is nearly rcumference, and its gateway to amented with pillars, several of stones 33 feet long, and nearly 5 , while those which form the roof in the interior are the chapels. dus are masters of any uncom- mon art or science, they frequently turn it to the purposes of profit from their ignorant votaries. They know how to calculate eclipses; and judicial astrology is so prevalent among them, that half of the year is taken up with unlucky days, the chief astrologer being always consulted in their councils. The Mohammedans likewise encourage those superstitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo industry as belonging to themselves. Though the Gentoos are entirely passive under all oppressions, and, by their state of existence, the practice of their religion, and the scantiness of their food, have nothing of that refinement in their nature which animates the rest of mankind, yet they are susceptible of avarice, and sometimes bury their money, and, rather than discover it, put themselves to death by poison or otherwise.

The reasons above mentioned account likewise for their being less under the influence of their passions than the inhabitants of other countries. Rice, their chief food, gives them little nourishment; and their marrying early, the males before 14, and the women at 10 or 11 years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their persons. A man is in the decline of life at 30, and the beauty of the women is on the decay at 18; at 25 they have all the marks of old age. We ought not, therefore, to wonder at their being soon strangers to all personal exertion and vigour of mind. It is with them a frequent saying, that it is better to sit than to walk, to lie down than to sit, to sleep than to wake, and death is the best of all.

Learning.—The Brahmins descend from the Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and, although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, the doctrines which they maintain as priests are still implicitly followed by the whole nation; and, as preceptors, they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Hindoostan; but that knowledge is very scanty and imperfect. Of mathematics they know little: they have a good idea of logic, but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric: their ideas of music, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and, in medicine, they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, since dissections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Asiatics is too turgid and full of conceits, and the diction of their historians very diffuse and verbose; but, though the manner of Eastern composition differs from the correct taste of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Asiatic authors, that deserve the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow observes, that in the Sanscrit, or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repository of the religion, philosophy, and history of the Hindoos, there are many hundred volumes in prose, which treat of the ancient Indians and their history. The

adds, that the Sanscrit records contain accounts of the affairs of Western Asia, very different from what any of the Arabian writers have transmitted to posterity; and thinks it more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter.

COLLEGES — SCHOOLS.—The great seat of Brahminical learning is Benares; beside which there is an academy of the same kind at Tricur, on the Malabar coast, that is in great repute. There is also a celebrated Brahmin school at Cangiburam, in the Carnatic, which appears, from the testimony of Ptolemy, to have existed in the first century of the Christian era, and the members of which are equal in celebrity to the Brahmins of Benares. While these pagan establishments are tolerated by the British government, antidotes to their influence have been provided by the zeal of Christian piety. A college was founded at Calcutta, in the year 1800, with a view of keeping up a regular supply of ministers for the conversion of the Hindoos; and many schools for the instruction of the natives have been organized by the missionaries who are dispersed over the country.

LANGUAGE.—The Sanscrit is an original and extremely artificial language; it is written with fifty-two characters, and abounds in compound words. The languages in common use, within the wide extent of this great country, are various; the Persian was generally spoken at the court of Delhi; the Devanagari, or Hindoostan, is spoken at Benares, and its mode of writing has been introduced into all the northern part of India. The Bengalese is a very corrupt dialect, used at Calcutta. The Guzeratic is spoken in the provinces of Gujerat and Sinde. The Marashda is prevalent through all the country of the Mahrattas. The Telinga, a harmonious and nervous language, is spoken on the coast of Orissa, on the river Kistna, and as far as the mountains of Balagaut. The Tamul is used in the Deccan, Mysore, Madura, and some parts of the Malabar coast, though there the Malabaric principally prevails. The Canarese, or language of Canara, extends to Goa. To these may be added the Nepaulese tongue, which has a great similarity to the Devanagari.

ANTIQUITIES. — Near Bombay are several other islands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the most inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural size, cut coarsely in stone, presents itself on the landing-place, near the bottom of a mountain. An easy slope then leads to a temple formed in a rock, 80 or 90 feet long, and 40 broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is supported by regular rows of pillars, about 10 feet high, with capitals, resembling round cushions, as if pressed by the weight of the incumbent mountain; and at the end are *three* gigantic figures, which the Portuguese endeavoured in vain, with the aid of batteries cannon, to demolish or dislodge; but a part of one, some years ago, suddenly fell. Beside the temple are various images, and groupes on each hand, cut in the stone — one of the latter bearing a rude resemblance to the Judgment of Solomon: there is also a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture. In a neighbouring island are the cave temples of Kenneri, equally magnificent. A hill has here been formed into an excavated city, with tombs, stairs, and every convenience for a large population. All these antiquities are very different from the usual works of the Hindoos.

The wonders of Ellora are still more worthy of notice; and one of the number is thus described:—"Conceive my surprise," says Captain Seely, "at suddenly coming upon a stupendous temple within a large open court, hewn out of the solid rock, with all its parts perfect and beautiful, standing proudly alone upon its native bed, and detached from the neighbouring mountain by a spacious area all round, nearly 250 feet deep and 150 feet broad. This unrivalled fane rears its rocky head to a height of nearly 100 feet; its length is about 145 feet, and its breadth 62 feet. It has well-formed door-ways and windows, and staircases to its upper floor, containing fine large rooms of a smooth and polished surface, regularly divided by rows of pillars. The whole bulk of this immense block of insulated excavation is above 500 feet in circumference; and, extraordinary as it may appear, it has beyond its areas three handsome galleries or verandas, supported by regular pillars, with compartments, hewn out of the boundary scarp, containing 42 curious gigantic figures of the Hindoo mythology—the galleries in continuity enclosing the areas, and occupying the almost incredible space of nearly 420 feet of excavated rock, and being, on the average, about 13 feet broad all round, and in height 14 feet and a half, while above these, again, are some large excavated rooms."

Another temple is equally magnificent, and a neighbouring mansion, from its immensity of excavation, massy pillars, and rich sculpture, also claims the admiration of the spectator.

HISTORY.—The first warrior whose invasion of India is authentically recorded, was the famous Alexander of Macedon. Genghis, the khan of the Mongols, also directed his fierce thither, and, in 1221, drove the emperor from his capital; but, long before that fierce barbarian invaded the country, some Saracen leaders had found their way into it, and established their spurious religion and their despotic sway. Mahmoud of Ghazni, full of ambition and fanaticism, invaded the north-western parts of the country about the beginning of the 11th century. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treasures, demolishing temples, and murdering the people throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Hindos-

se. He founded the dynasty
, who maintained themselves
e year 1155, when Kosrou, the
st prince of that race, was de-
Gaurl.
' the Gaurides furnished five
iessed nearly the same domi-
predecessors the Gaznevides.
fourth of the Gauride em-
d the kingdoms of Moultan
lrew thence prodigious trea-
ndian who had been rendered
e pollutions and insults to
s gods and temples exposed,
assassinate Sheabeddin, and
race of Gaurides finished in
n of Mahmoud, who was also
rds of assassins.
revolutions occurred before the
who entered India in 1398,
terrible than all its former
n the centre of the northern
in Caucasus. This invincible
th no resistance sufficient to
ie military maxims of Tartars,
h which he marked his way;
nense slaughter of his fellow-
length rendered himself lord
ipire. He did not, however,
aquest of India, a task which
his grandson, Zehireddin Mo-
who, having defeated and
odi, emperor of Hindoostan,
Paniput, assumed the govern-
itle of the Great Mogul. This
30; and his successors, Hu-
legislator Acbar, extended the
pire. At length, in 1659, the
ebe procured the sovereignty
m of his father Shah-Jehan,
f his eldest brother. Though
his career so iniquitously, he
nd politic prince, and greatly
ources and exalted the dignity
He died in 1707, in the 89th
Four of his grandsons dis-
e, which, after a sanguinary
the eldest, Mauzeddin, who
' Jehander Shah. This prince
a pleasures, and was governed
so absolutely, that his great
d against him, and raised to
f his nephews. The new em-
ne was Ferrukhsir, was influ-
st enslaved by two brothers,
r the name of the Seyds, who
wer so grossly, that, being
a them publicly, he ordered
privately assassinated. They
ntention, and dethroned the
diadem they bestowed upon
rengzebe, a youth of seventeen
er imprisoning and strangling
ie young Mogul soon proved
he Seyds; and, having deposed
to the throne his elder brother,
who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Hindoostan, whose ancestors had entered into stipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field against the two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil possession of the empire. He died in 1719, and was succeeded by Mohammed Shah, a great-grandson of Aurengzebe, in whose feeble reign the empire was nearly ruined by that formidable invasion which we have noticed in the history of Persia. As to the various spoils seized by the invaders, some accounts make them amount to £231,000,000 sterling. But this estimate is far beyond the truth; and we may more reasonably believe, with Mr. Fraser, that Nadir's share did not exceed £87,500,000, while his military followers carried off about £12,500,000. This invasion may be considered as putting a period to the greatness of the Mogul empire in the house of Timur. Nadir, however, when he was satiated with blood and pillage, reinstated the Mogul in the sovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ensued, none being disposed to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power of enforcing it. The empire began to totter to its foundation, every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to jaghirs and districts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every species of domestic misery.

Amidst these convulsions, the English acquired an extraordinary degree of power in India. They had been allowed, in 1696, to fortify that part of Calcutta which contained their mercantile establishment. They afterwards obtained complete possession of the town, which they enlarged and improved; and, in 1757, by taking advantage of the internal dissensions of the natives, they raised a dependant prince to the chief authority in Bengal. By continued encroachments, they were gratified with effective power in the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, as tributaries to the nominal emperor, or the king of Delhi. While they were employed, after this great success, in the arts of peace, they found themselves engaged, in 1767, in a dangerous war with Hyder Ali, the usurper of Mysore. This man had been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the camp of the French. Having been advanced to the command of the army of Mysore, he had deposed his sovereign, and usurped authority, under the title of regent. In a short time he extended his territories on all sides, except the Carnatic, until at last his dominions nearly equalled Great Britain in extent, with an annual revenue of not less than £4,000,000 sterling. The discord which took place in various parts of Hindoostan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him so to aggrandize himself, that he soon became formidable to his neighbours; and, in 1767, he found himself in

danger of being attacked on one side by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the troops of the Company. The former were pacified with money, and the latter were in consequence obliged to retire: but, soon afterward, several obstinate engagements took place; and the British, for the first time, found a steady opposition from an Indian prince. When the war had continued for three campaigns, Hyder, with his army, advanced within a short distance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace on his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly lost by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in 1771, he received a dreadful defeat. He was now reduced to the necessity of allowing his enemies to desolate the country, till they retired of their own accord: after which, he retrieved his affairs with incredible diligence; so that, in a few years, he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made some attempts to gain possession of the district of Corah, and other parts of the province of Oude, but were opposed by a British force, which, in the next year, defeated and drove them across the Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occasion the latter had acted only as the allies of the nabob Shujah, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promised to pay forty lacks of rupees for the protection afforded them; but, when the money was demanded, it was, under various pretences, refused; the consequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was, in 1774, invaded and conquered by the British, beside other large tracts.

During the administration of Warren Hastings, a new war arose in India. The Mahrattas were attacked with vigour; and, though the English were at first unsuccessful, they were at length gratified with important advantages. During this war, Hyder Ali, expecting assistance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men, in the year 1780. For some time he carried everything before him; and, when he had nearly destroyed a detachment of the British army, it was imagined that the power of the India Company would soon be annihilated. By the happy exertions of Sir Eyre Coote, however, the progress of this formidable adversary was stopped, and he became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expense to himself, without any reasonable prospect of success. He therefore intimated a wish for a pacific treaty; but he died before it could be brought to a conclusion. He was succeeded by his son Tippoo, whose hostility to the British government was deeply rooted. The peace which this prince concluded at Mangalore, in 1784, did not permanently secure his fidelity; and the splendid embassy which, not long after, he sent to France, gave reason to apprehend that some plan was concerting between him and the old government of that country, for the annoyance of our Indian possessions; but this plan by the French Revolution.

The increasing power of Tippo formidable to the Dutch than to and the vicinity of their settlem to his territories, made them tr safety. Beside that town, the Dut in the same part of India, two for poo particularly wished to obtai the seizure of these settlements, t to the rajah of Travancore, th British government. This cont clared by the sultan to be invali consent, as the two settlements w boundaries; and he resolved to rajah by hostilities. He deprive of his capital, and thus drew upo resentment of the Company, w formed alliances with the Nizam rattas, declared war against him campaign was unimportant; but, forts of remarkable strength were dispositions were made for enteri island which contained his capit lodgment had been effected on the sible preparations were made fo assault; but he avoided the dange able submission. He ceded one h minions to the allied powers, and pay nearly £4,000,000 sterling.

The ambition of the sultan wa repressed by his late disasters: he re ever, the same enmity to the Br strong desire of revenge; and the a war had arisen in 1793 between F France, he listened to the suggestio emissaries, that, by entering into with the republic, he might receive aid as should not only enable him t ceded territory, but even to drive out of India.

In February, 1798, a proclamatio by the governor of the Isle of Fra ing that envoys had arrived in that letters from Tippoo, addressed to directory, proposing to conclude a subsidize whatever troops the Fr furnish, and to commence against power in India a war of aggressio that prince declared himself to t pared. On inquiry it was asce Tippoo had sought such an alliance was strongly suspected that the F dition to Egypt had for its ultimat invasion of British India, in conju Tippoo, the earl of Mornington, Marquis Wellesley,) having in v strated with the sultan by letter, rations for hostility. The new war oloscd. After the battles of Sidas velli, in which the British troops rious, Seringapatam was invested Harris, and a practicable breach Moving from the trenches with storming party crossed the rocky Cavery, and mounted to the assaul

y obstacle which the difficulty of the
e and the resistance of the enemy could
. Their attack was completely success-
very post was forced: the sultan was
under one of the gates, pierced with
wounds; and ample spoils rewarded the
e of the assailants.
ended the power and life of a formidable
of the British government. His death
security to our possessions in that coun-
ich they never could have had during
. His territories were shared by the
ny, and the Nizam, except certain dis-
which were assigned to a descendant of
cient rajahs, on condition of his being a
ary to the British government.
oo, when he fell, was about fifty. He
ll, his face was round, with large full
nd his countenance full of fire and ani-
. In his disposition he was cruel, pas-
, and revengeful. His abilities were
ted; for he was neither so wise a states-
ior so able a general, as he was supposed
Though he possessed a considerable
of prudence, and was not, usually, defi-
either in promptitude or judgment, he at
ll a victim to ill-concerted schemes, die-
by ambition and thirst of revenge.
death restored, for a time, tranquillity to
; but, in 1803, hostilites recommenced
en the British and native powers. The
ar, who was considered as under the pro-
n of the Company, had been repeatedly
ted, and his power reduced to a shadow,
e Mahratta chiefs, Scindia and Holkar,
though they professed to him a nominal
ence, were desirous of securing to them-
both his person and authority. Scindia
e first to have succeeded in this attempt,
as attacked by Holkar, who endeavoured
ace both him and the peishwa to subjec-
The harassed prince applied to the Com-
or protection, which was readily granted.
and the rajah of Berar now assembled
orces near the Nizam's frontiers, and
to disband them on the requisition of
vernor-general. This refusal led to
hostilities. The British troops were
notion, and they met with their usual
General Wellesley crossed the Ner-
n the 23rd of September, 1803, and
he splendid victory of Assaye, while
eated the Mahrattas and their French
es at Coel, took the fortress of Ali
id gained the battles of Delhi, Agra,
wari. The province of Cuttack, and
icts of Baroach and Cambay, in Gu-
re wrested from Scindia, who was
d to conclude a peace, by which these
ns were confirmed to the English.
meantime, Holkar remained in a kind
inactivity; but his troops kept the
menaced and occasionally attacked
bouring powers which were under Bri-
ection. After Scindia had given up the
General Lake marched against Holkar,
who was joined by the rajah of Bhurtpoor. The defensibility of this town subjected the besiegers to a severe loss; but a continuance of the siege intimidated the rajah into a promise of subservience; and his ally, being defeated at Deeg, and deprived of various fortresses, submitted, in 1805, to the demands of the Company.

After this extension of the British power in India, peace prevailed for many years, with the exception of some hostilities against refractory chieftains. The horizon was at length darkened, in 1815, by a rupture with the people of Nepaul, who had encroached on the British territories, and behaved with extreme arrogance. After a bold resistance, they resigned a part of their frontier, and have since remained in peace.

The Mahrattas had long been disgusted at the influence exercised at Poonah by the British resident. With simplicity of manners, and a religious forbearance of appetite, they unite an enterprising spirit, and a degree of courage, which surpasses that of the other Hindoo tribes. This courage they seemed willing to exert even in defiance of that power which they knew by experience to be very great. Endeavours that were apparently conciliatory, served only to inflame both parties into animosity. Hostilities arose in the Deccan, near the close of the year 1817; and the desultory incursions of the Pindarees, or provincial marauders, into those parts of the country which were under British authority or protection, increased the fury of the storm. The rajah of Berar joined the peishwa against the English; but he was chastised for his presumption by a serious defeat. The chieftains Scindia and Holkar had bound themselves by an explicit agreement to cooperate with the peishwa in this war; but the former, repenting of his rashness, was an ineffective ally to his countrymen, and was easily persuaded to form such engagements as rendered him a mere vassal of the Company. A Patan chief also, styled the nabob Ameer Khan, was induced to submit to the British government, which he found himself unable to withstand. Holkar, being more resolute, boldly contended with the enemy; but the battle of Mehidpoor crushed his hopes. The strength of the Mahratta position, on the abrupt bank of the Soopra, served only to stimulate the courage of the Europeans and their native associates, who stormed a range of well-furnished batteries, and obtained a complete victory. A Pindaree chief was approaching with 5000 men to join Holkar, when the news of the defeat reached him: he was eagerly pursued; his men were harassed into dispersion; he threw himself on the mercy of his adversaries; and the predatory confederacy was dissolved. This success was obtained, in 1818, under the vigorous administration of the marquis of Hastings.

While Lord Amherst acted as governor-general, a war arose with a new enemy. The Birmese, when they were subject to the sway of Alompra, had augmented their military fame and

ravages their own country in the hope of obstructing the progress of the invaders, and formed in various parts such stockades or fences of trees, earth, and other substances closely compacted, as were declared by their astrologers to be impregnable, more particularly when the Invulnerables joined in the operations. The warriors so called were distinguished by the short cut of their hair, the peculiar manner in which they were tattooed with the figures of wild beasts, and the custom of wearing pieces of gold and silver, and sometimes precious stones, in their arms, supposed by our officers to have been introduced under the skin at an early age. When some of these posts had been forced with difficulty, others gave equal trouble to the adverse party; and a pagoda was so well defended that the assailants were repelled with considerable loss; but, when it was on the point of being attacked by an additional force, it was abandoned. The province of Martaban was now reduced by the advancing troops; and, when the grand Birmese army appeared, Sir Archibald Campbell, with his gallant battalions,

of Assam and Cachar and
the British government.

In 1826, an event occur
more importance than,
seem to have been. The
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Combermere failed in hi
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would have broken out in
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the tranquillity of our ex
cannot be said to have
change which, in 1834, w
to the East India Compa
noticed under the head o

INDIA BEYOND THE GANGES.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles. Degrees.

Length, 1800 } between { 2. and 27. N. lat.
Breadth, 800 } { 92. and 109. E. long.

Containing about 800,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES.—This country is bounded by Thibet and China, on the north; by China and the Chinese Sea, on the east; by the same sea

to the east of Bengal.
divides it into two parts,
is called Ootrecole, and
cole. There is a third di
which consists of an i
Burrampooter. Assam
three provinces—Camroo
Sadiya. Assam Proper

led at Ghergong; which was
d. That prince assumed the
ıvenly Being, pretending that
:estors came down from the
lindoos by a golden staircase,
ıssam, because he regarded it
ıaradise. In consequence of
ıis superior nature, he offered
:he common idols, which, in-
ich respected by any one. The
is Jorhatb, and Gergong is
ed. Rungpoor is the town
ıstry is displayed.
re not very enlightened, but
t and brave race. They had
ed invasions with success; but,
the Birmese made themselves
country; and, in the year 1825,
of government arose from the
ritish arms. The fort of Rung-
, and, by the treaty of peace,
ere obliged to relinquish all
ıssam, which was ordered to be
rince whom the British should

khain, lies on the eastern side
ngal, and contains about 11,500
miles. It is now divided into
ıkyab, Sandoway, and Ramree.
by a rajah whose predecessors
ı a state of independence, when
in 1783, by the Birmese, and
ction. It remained under their
'ear 1825, when it was subdued
arms. The climate is insalu-
soil in general is fertile, and
ain are abundant. A consider-
rried on between the natives
f Bengal; the former exporting
of the precious metals, various
.ce, bees'-wax, ivory, and small
mer capital, of the same name,
n, surrounded by hills. As it
lations, the houses are raised
es. They are chiefly thatched
d of bamboos and timber; and
ıs 13,000 in 1824; but the town
ed since that period. Within
ıld stone fort, which was the
ıent, and there is a hill sur-
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' painting and gilding. Some
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17th century, the country was conquered by the king of Ava or Birmah, and the kingdoms were united till about the year 1740, when the Peguans threw off the yoke, and in a few years subdued, in their turn, the kingdom of Ava. In 1757, however, the Birmese, under Alompra, who became their sovereign, shook off the yoke, and again subdued Pegu. The conqueror destroyed the chief town, and dispersed the inhabitants; but, about the year 1790, Minderaji, one of his successors, gave orders for rebuilding the city. The streets of the new town are wide, regular, and paved with brick; the houses are formed of mats and boards, supported on posts. The most striking object is the pagoda of Shoe-Madoo, the golden god, the body of which stands on one terrace raised above another. It is a brick building, octagonal at the base, and spiral at the top: each side of the base extends to 162 feet, a breadth which diminishes abruptly. A wide projection, lower than the inferior terrace, encompasses the base, and exhibits fifty-seven small spires; and on a higher ledge are fifty-three; and the whole building is crowned with a sort of umbrella, called tee, of open iron-work, hung with a number of bells. On an angle of the upper terrace two handsome saloons have been erected, and at other angles are miniature temples, resembling the great one. On both terraces are flags, raised on bamboo poles, and on the top of each flag-staff is a goose, the symbol both of the Birmese and the Peguans.

Ava, or, as it is called by the natives, Miama, is divided from Aracan by a mountainous ridge, and extends southward to Pegu. Its sovereign, the Birman emperor, had so extended his territories by military success, that, when he was embroiled with the India Company, he had, in all probability, 9,000,000 subjects, and almost 450,000 capable of bearing arms. These men, in war, are bold, alert, and enterprising; but, in peace, they are inactive and indolent. "At home," says Major Snodgrass, who fought against them, "they are decidedly lazy, and averse to work, the wife being allowed, or rather compelled, to toil for the support of the family, while the husband passes his time in idleness, smoking, or chewing betel, the favourite pastime of natives of all ranks. His wants, however, are few and simple; rice and a little pickled fish constitute the chief articles of food, while water is his only drink: naturally good-humoured and contented, he seems happy and resigned, bearing all the oppressions to which he may be subjected, with apathy and indifference; and in his own house he is kind and affectionate to his children. Yet it must be allowed, that the Birmese are little guided or restrained in their conduct and actions by any moral principle: selling their daughters, even to strangers, is a common practice among them; nor does the transaction reflect any disgrace on the parties concerned. Government, upon political grounds, strictly prohibits any woman from

leaving the country; and the unhappy females, who are sacrificed to this disgraceful custom, generally return to their families, in no way degraded, but more frequently objects of envy, from the little stock of wealth they bring back. It has often been objected to the Birmese, that they are given to pilfering, lying, and dissimulation, as well as insolent and overbearing to strangers; but the remark may be, in a great measure, confined to the numerous government functionaries and their followers, with whom every town and village in the kingdom abound: these are indeed a vile race, who exist by fraud and oppression, and who, upon numerous pretences, are always ready to rob and plunder all who come within the influence of their authority: the poor people, on the contrary, the best part of the nation, are frank and hospitable, and by no means deficient in qualities which would do honour to more civilized nations. They, very generally, can read and write; are acute, intelligent, and observing; and, although frequently impressed with high notions of their own sovereign and country, show no illiberality to foreigners who reside among them. In a word, to sum up their character, their virtues are their own, and their faults and vices those of education, and the pernicious influence of a cruel and despotic government."

The Birmese seem to have borrowed their religion from Hindoostan; but they have not so steadily or uniformly preserved their faith and worship as their Brahmin neighbours. In some respects they resemble the Romanists. They are fond of processions; they observe a species of Lent, which is followed by public festivity; in praying they use rosaries; and they are addicted (but not the women) to monastic seclusion. They pay great respect to their priests, whose influence is sometimes allowed to save a criminal from execution, merely by touching him on his way. The priests are bound to celibacy, and generally reside together in the monasteries. They wear coarse yellow garments, have their heads shaven, drink water, and receive alms.

In their shape and stature, their square features, yellow complexion, and lank locks, the Birmese bear a strong resemblance to the Mongol tribes. The women are fairer than the Hindoo females, but not so delicately formed; they are, however, well made, though in general inclined to corpulence; their hair is black, coarse, and long. The men are not tall, but active and athletic, and have a very youthful appearance, from the custom of plucking their beards. Dr. Buchanan describes them as of a short, squat, robust, fleshy make, with a face in the shape of a lozenge, the forehead and chin being sharpened, while at the cheek bones it is very broad. Their eyebrows project very little, their eyes are very narrow, and placed rather obliquely, the external angles being the highest; the nose is small, but has not the flattened appearance of that feature in the negro; the nostrils are circular and divergent; the mo[illegible] in general well shaped; the hair harsh [illegible] and black. Those who reside in the warm[illegible] mate do not acquire the deep hue of the K[illegible] or the Negro; nor do such as live in the [illegible] parts of the empire ever acquire the clear [illegible] of a European. The common people [illegible] sexes often wear only a single garment [illegible] sheet, which, wrapped round the bo[illegible] tucked under each arm, crosses the bre[illegible] descends to the ancles; but men of [illegible] class wear a tight coat, with long sl[illegible] muslin or fine nankin, and also a silk [illegible] round the waist, while the women of equa[illegible] have a short shift, a jacket over it, and [illegible] the waist, a long piece of silk or cloth [illegible] encircles them twice, and reaches to the feet.

The late capital of the empire was Amarapoora, which was dignified by Minderajik, who built it in 1783, with the appellation of the "immortal city." A great quantity of materials for this town had been removed from the old metropolis; but it is not more handsomely constructed than the old collection of wooden houses and huts of matting. The palace, however, and the fort, are fine buildings. One part of the former consists of a square building with battlements and a tile roof, while the angles are adorned with Tuscan pilasters; and the body of the structure glitters with gilding. Not satisfied with the new town the present emperor began, in 1824, to erect a palace at Ava, with an intention of restoring the former capital to its ancient importance.

The city of Ava, or, as it is called in the Birmese official writings, Rutnapoora, (the city of the pearl,) is situated on the Myit-nge river, and consists of an outer town, and an inner town or city, surrounded by a brick wall. The circumference, excluding the suburbs, is about 5½ miles. The houses are in general merely grass-thatched huts; but the number of temples, surmounted by white or gilded spires, gives the city a striking appearance at a distance.

The chief Birman port is Rangoon, where the Irrawaddi is very commodious for shipping, as vessels of 1200 tons burden can ascend to the town. The myo, or city, forms a square, environed by a high stockade; and there is a fort within which the officers of the government and the principal inhabitants reside. The town and suburbs extend for a mile along the banks of the river. On a hill, above the town, stands the Dagong pagoda, which is [illegible] feet high, and richly gilt. On account of the vicinity of extensive teak-forests, ship-building forms a very considerable part of the occupation of the natives, who follow, in this branch of art, the French model. The commercial articles received at this port consist chiefly of coarse piece-goods, broad-cloth, glass, and hardware, sent from British India; and the returns are almost entirely in teak, though the Birmese have many other valuable products and commodities; namely, cotton, indigo, petroleum, ivory, marble, the finest metals, and precious

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d enclosure; but the place of
merely one spacious hall, fan-
ented, having many idols on a
r altar, and displaying on the
tasteless portraiture, various
subjects of Hindoo mythology. The most common artisans in the town are blacksmiths, tinsmiths, and curriers. The tin articles are polished so as to look like silver; and the preparation of leather is carried on to a great extent, not for the purpose of making shoes, which are scarcely used, but for covering mattresses and pillows, and for exportation to China. Bangkok is said to contain 401,300 inhabitants; of whom more than three-fourths are Chinese, or of Chinese extraction.

The capital of Siam, till 1767, was Ayuthia, called Siam by the Europeans. It stands on an island formed by the Meinam. Modern travellers are not allowed to visit it; but Kœmpfer, who saw it in 1690, describes it as being nine miles in circumference; and Crawford was informed that, in 1818, it was as populous as Bangkok.

The Siamese, in general, are rather below than above the middle stature. A face remarkably large, a very broad forehead, prominent on each side, the hairy scalp very low, large cheek-bones, a swollen lower jaw, teeth blackened from choice, a yellow complexion, and other *beauties*, mark the genuine native. The people generally go naked from the waist upwards, sometimes throwing a piece of cloth over the shoulders. Old women usually expose the bosom; but the young and the middle-aged wear a short piece of cloth round the chest, of sufficient length to form one knot in front, thus leaving the shoulders and arms bare. From the loins to the knees, a piece of coloured cloth extends, over which persons of a higher class wear Chinese crape or a shawl.

Women enjoy far less freedom and consideration in Siam, than they do in the Birmese empire. The wife is not allowed to eat with her husband, or even to sail in the same boat. She must attend no public amusements, but confine herself to her domestic duties. Even the heaviest labour devolves on the females, of whom, we may add, the men are allowed to marry more than one. As the men thus domineer over the women, so the king tyrannizes over the men.

The Siamese are fond of amusements. They gamble with avidity; witness dramatic representations with delight; divert themselves with bull-races, cock-fights, wrestling, rope-dancing, and fire-works.

The kingdom of Laos, or Lahos, was once an independent state, but is now, or at least the southern part of it, subject to the Siamese emperor. It consists of three divisions; Upper Laos, in the north; Laetho, or the country of Yunshan, in the south; and Lanchan, or the country of the Shan, in the north-east. We know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is said to be very populous, to abound in all the rich commodities as well as the gross superstitions of the East, and to be divided into many small principalities. It carries on an active trade with Siam, Birmah, and China.

Cambodia is abundantly productive of the necessaries and luxuries of life. It was formerly a considerable and independent kingdom, but, in 1809, the Siamese and Cochin Chinese divided it between them; the former taking the province of Batabang, and the latter annexing the rest of the country to the kingdom of Cochin China. It is diversified by lofty mountains, extensive forests, and fertile valleys and plains.

Cochin China and Tonquin, which form together the kingdom of Anam, are now under the government of one sovereign. About two centuries ago, a prince of the Tonquinese royal family rebelled against the king, and, being defeated, fled with his adherents into Cochin China, where a settlement was easily obtained. The fugitives and their posterity gradually seized the whole country, and a flourishing kingdom evinced, during many reigns, the political wisdom of the rulers of the nation. Intestine and sanguinary commotions at length arose from the ambition of three brothers, one of whom added Tonquin to the former realm. The vigour of Kangshun, however, in 1804, restored peace and order to the state, and that prince died in 1820, with the reputation of a great general and an able statesman. His son assumed the sway over both realms, which appear, as far as population is a criterion of national prosperity, to be in a flourishing condition. Mr. Finlayson, however, denies this inference, and asserts that the Cochin Chinese, in particular, exist in a state of debasing poverty, chiefly produced by an "avaricious, illiberal, and despotic government." They bear a greater resemblance to the Chinese, in their appearance and manners, than to the subjects of the Birmese prince; but they have neither the talent nor the industry of the people of the "Celestial empire."

The capital of Cochin China is Huè, or Hoa, which, when visited by Mr. Finlayson in 1822, made a strong impression upon him and his associates, by the magnitude of its fortifications and the abundant stock of its spacious arsenal; but he adds, that the town itself is "rather paltry, and the greater part of the ground on which it stands appears to be laid out in ill-cultivated gardens, attached to miserable huts. The bazaars have an appearance of poverty; yet the regularity of the streets gives an air of neatness to the place, and the view both of the country and town, as seen from the rampart, must be considered very fine. The public granaries consist of a vast number of well-built substantial storehouses; the palace is surrounded by handsome rows of barracks, which are very complete in their structure, and would lose little in comparison with the best that we have in England."

Cachao, or Kesho, the native name of which is Balethan, the chief town of Tonquin, is not better built than Huè; but the inhabitants seem to be more industrious, and to enjoy a greater degree of comfort, because they are more benefited by the metallic and other products of their country than the Cochin-Chinese. They carry on the silk manufacture with success, and supply their neighbours with the fruit of their skill. It is said to have 150,000 inhabitants.

Chiampa, or Tsiampa, was an independent state; but it is now subject to the king of Cochin-China. Saigon, its principal town, is exceedingly populous; and the inhabitants are distinguished by their skill in ship-building.

The peninsula of Malacca, or Malaya, is not less than 450 miles in length, but very narrow. Besides the British and Siamese possessions, it contains a number of small independent principalities, some of which are under British protection. Its chief produce consists of tin, ivory, canes, pepper, and gums. The people are considered by some geographers as a branch of the Mongol or Tartaric race; while others maintain that they are a distinct race. They are fierce and vindictive, but are not wholly destitute of good qualities. Traces of a people still ruder than the Malays, are to be found in the mountainous parts of this country.

It has been supposed that this is the Golden Chersonesus of the ancients; and it is certain that a considerable quantity of gold is found in the peninsula. Its situation is excellent for trade with India; so that, when it was first discovered by the Portuguese, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richest city in the East, next to Goa and Ormus. Its wealth and importance, however, are now on the decline; and this degeneracy of the Malays, who were formerly an industrious, ingenious people, is easily accounted for, by the long-continued tyranny of the Dutch, who did not wish that they should recover from their degrading state of ignorance and slavery. This town was taken from the Dutch by the English, in August, 1795; before which time the latter used to carry on a smuggling kind of trade in their country ships, from the coast of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal. This commerce was connived at by the Dutch governor and council, who little regarded the orders of their superiors, provided that they could enrich themselves. In the treaty of the year 1824, it was agreed, that not only the city and fortress should be ceded to his Britannic majesty, but that the subjects of the king of the Netherlands should never establish a factory in any part of the peninsula, or conclude treaties with any of the native princes or states. Singapore, a maritime town, is also a British possession, and its commerce is very considerable. It stands on an island at the entrance of the Malayan straits, and was founded, in 1819, by Sir Stamford Raffles. The Dutch repeatedly remonstrated against the occupation of this settlement by their rivals in trade; but they were apparently satisfied when the English resigned all their possessions in Sumatra to those who had no claim to such indulgence.

THE INDIAN AND ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

AN Islands consist of three large and ıaller islands, and form an extensive y. The largest is called, by the Ja- ıipon; but, by the Chinese, Sipon and vhence arose the European name of It is about 900 miles in length, and n 100 in breadth. Of the two next in . named Kioosioo, is about 200 miles l 80 broad; Si-kokf, the other, is 150 ıg, and 70 broad. The island of Yeso, ; of the Kurile isles, are also Japanese ıcies. Japan Proper consists almost)f hills and valleys, and an extensive carcely to be seen. By far the greatest he eminences are, however, cultivated ry top. There are several volcanoes ıslands, one of which is constantly in f eruption. Gold is found in several ıt the people are prohibited from dig- nore than a stated quantity; nor can a any metal whatever be opened and without the emperor's express per- The heat in summer is very great, d be insupportable, were not the air r the sea-breezes. The cold in winter y intense. A great deal of rain falls weeks, rendering the soil, which is ustriously cultivated, exuberantly fer- ere seem to be no peculiar animals in ands. There are buffaloes, wolves, d dogs. The horses, cattle, and sheep, few for a country so populous. Its ın, however, is not known with cer- ut if, as some accounts have stated, ains nearly 500,000 men in arms, the of inhabitants may be conjectured to en 20,000,000 and 30,000,000.

)mplexions of the Japanese are in rellowish, although some few, chiefly he women, are almost white. Their ;yes and eyebrows are like those of ese and Tartars, and their noses are d thick. Their hair is universally Their dress may with more propriety ıd national, than that of any other he world, as it not only differs from ;ery other nation, but is uniform from ıarch down to the lowest subject, a both sexes, and, which almost sur- ıelief, has been unchanged for the 500 years. It consists of one or more wns, tied about the middle with a ıople of rank have them made of silk, ıower class of cotton stuff. Women wear a greater number of them ı, and much longer, and have them ıamented, often with gold or silver ıoven into the stuff. Their houses with upright posts crossed and wat- bamboo, plastered both without and ınd white-washed. They generally have two floors; but the upper one is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. The public buildings, such as temples and palaces, are larger, it is true, and more conspicuous, but in the same style of architecture; and the roofs, which are decorated with several towers of a singular appearance, form their greatest ornaments.

The towns are sometimes of a considerable size, always secured with gates, and frequently surrounded with walls and fosses, and adorned with towers, especially if the governor of a province keeps his court there. Yeddo, the capital of Nipon, and of the whole country, is said to be twenty-one hours' walk in circumference, or about twenty-one leagues: the streets are straight and wide, and at certain distances divided by gates; and at each gate there is a very high ladder, from the top of which any fire that breaks out may be discovered;—a very frequent accident in that city.

The furniture of a Japanese house is as simple as the style of building. Cupboards, bureaus, sofas, beds, tables, or chairs, are rarely found in the apartments. To the greater part of these the people are utter strangers. Their soft floor-mats serve them for chairs and tables. A small board about twelve inches square, and four in height, is set down before each person in company at every meal, which is served up one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furniture; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilettes. Notwithstanding the severity of their winter, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fireplaces nor stoves: instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in a mode that renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger is a dish of tea; and a pipe of tobacco constitutes the next offer. Fans are used by both sexes equally, and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The people are naturally cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which daily use is made by the whole family.

Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness: to this children are early accustomed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are wel-

common people. He is brought into the world, lives, and dies, within the precincts of his court, the boundaries of which he never once exceeds during his whole life. He always wears silken apparel, which, from the first preparation of the article to the completion of the dress, is manufactured by the unsullied hands of pure virgins. His hair, nails, and beard, are accounted so sacred that they are never suffered to be cleaned or cut by day-light; but this must be done by stealth, during the night, while he is asleep. He never eats twice off the same plate, nor uses any vessel for his meals a second time: they are immediately broken to pieces after they are used, to prevent their falling into unhallowed hands. He has twelve wives, only one of whom, however, is styled empress. He confers all titles of honour; but the real power is exercised by the kubo, who secures that advantage by keeping the imperial revenue in his own hands, and by not allowing to the dairi any share in the command of the army. The whole power, however, is not monopolized by the kubo; for the empire, says Captain Golownin, consists of many distinct principalities, beside the provinces which he governs by his representatives. Of the ruling princes, he adds, there are more than 200; and, when the prince of Sindai appears in the capital, he sometimes brings 60,000 persons in his train. The military force is very numerous; but the artillery is nearly in the same state as it was in Europe when cast cannon began to be used. The cavalry have rich dresses and good horses, and are armed with sabres, pikes, and pistols. The infantry, beside the first two weapons, have matchlocks, daggers, bows, and arrows.

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:h is about 40 leagues in circuit, having 0 inhabitants. The ruins on some of them :ate that they were once inhabited by a :le considerably advanced in civilization.

nian is well known from the romantic de- :tion given of it by the ingenious narrator nson's Voyage; but it has since been disco- d that the account is much too favourable.

he PHILIPPINES form a very numerous ip of islands, ten of them large, in the ese Sea, of which Manilla, or Luzon, the f, is 420 miles long, and 136 broad in the st part. The inhabitants consist of Chi- , Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portu- se, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mes- , a mixture of all these. The islands belong he queen of Spain, as they were conquered he Spaniards in the reign of Philip II. ir situation is such, between the eastern western continents, that the inhabitants e with Mexico and Peru, as well as with he islands and ports of the East Indies. country is fruitful in all the necessaries of and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all , buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a large es of monkey, are found here in great y. The nest of the bird saligan affords dissolving jelly which is so voluptuous a ' at European tables. Many European and flowers thrive surprisingly in these ls. If a sprig of an orange or lemon- be planted here, it becomes, within the a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure xuriance of the soil are almost incredible. ree amet supplies the natives with water; ere is a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields ciency of clear water for a draught; this ds in the mountains, where water is most d.

city of Manilla contains about 20,000 in- its; its port is Cavite, lying at the dis- of three leagues, and defended by the of St. Philip. The town is well built, hibits many splendid churches; and its ations are not contemptible: yet it was d in 1762 by the English, who took it by and humanely suffered the archbishop, is the Spanish viceroy at the same time, om the place for about £1,000,000 ster- The bargain, however, was ungenerously d by him and the court of Spain; so that part of the ransom never was paid.

natives of Luzon are intelligent, dexte- d docile; and, though the warmth of mate encourages indolence, many of re very diligent and industrious. They ted by the Spaniards with unmerited pt, and are oppressed by the injudicious of the government, which, while it the accommodations of the people, not a tenth part of the benefit that e derived from an enlightened manage- the commercial and civil concerns of ny.

ther Philippine islands, particularly so, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, many of whom are called sultans, and are of the Mohammedan persuasion. Though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, they are subject to dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of the mountains are volcanic.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the Spice or Clove Islands.—In a general sense, this name is applied to the portion of the Indian Archipelago between 5 degrees N. and 9 degrees S. latitude, and between 122 degrees and 131 degrees E. longitude; but in its more limited sense it is applied only to the isles from which spices are obtained; and especially to five, namely, Batchian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tidore. As these latter islands produce neither corn nor rice, the inhabitants live upon bread made of sago. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spice to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three sultans in subordination to the Dutch.

Batchian is the largest of these islands, being about 50 miles in length, and 20 miles in breadth. It resembles a double oval, with a kind of isthmus in the centre. Gold dust is said to be found here. Ternate is not more than 25 miles in circumference; but the sultan has a respectable force, both military and naval.

The BANDA Islands consist of nine islands, and some rocky islets, and lie about 45 miles to the south of Ceram. The largest, which gives its name to the group, is not more than 8 miles in length and 5 miles in breadth. They were subject to the Dutch, but were taken by the English in 1796; at which time their annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace. They were restored in 1802; and, though also taken in the last war, are again in the possession of the Dutch. The nutmeg-tree grows to the size of a pear-tree; the leaves resemble those of the laurel; and it bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The great nutmeg harvest is in July and August.

AMBOYNA is about 32 miles long, and its average breadth is 10 miles. It is chiefly a mountainous country. The climate is hot, but not insalubrious, and the vegetable products are numerous; but the clove-tree is the principal object of attention. The interior is inhabited by a wild race, called Horaforas, of malignant propensities: in other parts, there are people of different features and appearance, indolent and effeminate; and many Chinese and Europeans have at various times settled in the island. The capital is neatly and regularly built; and, beside the fortifications by which

the town is defended, strong posts are formed in other situations. The British court restored it to the Dutch in 1814.

The island of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is situated partly under the equator, between Borneo and the Spice Islands, and is about 500 miles long and 150 miles broad. Its shape is singular; it being so deeply indented by three bays as to have the appearance of four peninsulas. This island, notwithstanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. It contains mines of gold, but its chief articles of trade are pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the study of poisons, with a variety of which nature has furnished them. The Dutch have many settlements on this island, the principal of which is Macassar; but the interior is governed by numerous independent chieftains. In this, and indeed in almost all the oriental islands, the inhabitants live in houses built on large posts, which are accessible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night time, for their security against venomous and dangerous animals. They are said to be hospitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a great trade with the Chinese. The population is composed of various races, speaking different languages. The tribe of the Bugis is the most numerous, enterprising, and intelligent.

GILOLO, which is likewise under the equator, is about 220 miles long and 30 miles broad, and produces rice and sago, but no spice, though it lies near the Spice Islands. Like Celebes, it consists of four large peninsulas. It is inhabited by a fierce and savage race, who are said to be numerous, but respecting whom but little is known.

CERAM, which lies between 3 and 4 degrees S. latitude, and 128 and 131 degrees E. longitude, forms a part of the government of Amboyna, and is about 185 miles long and 30 miles broad. The Dutch have a fort here; and they have destroyed almost all the clove-trees on the island, to enhance the value of those of the other islands.

The SUNDA Islands comprehend Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Banca, &c.

BORNEO, which the natives call Klemantan, is 850 miles long and 680 miles broad, and, till New Holland was discovered to be an island, was considered as the largest island in the world. The inland part of the country is but little known; along the coast there are extensive marshes, which render a residence there exceedingly dangerous to Europeans. The inhabitants frequently dwell in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The soil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to resemble a man the most. The inhabitants of the internal parts are a *brutal* race; yet, some say that they are not *worse* than the Malays, or the other inhabitants of the coast. The chief port of this island is Banjarmassin, and the inhabitants carry on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA, the most western of the Sunda Islands, has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the east, and Java on the south-east, from which it is separated by the Strait of Sunda. It is divided into two equal parts by the equator, and is 900 miles long and from 140 to 210 miles broad. It produces so much gold, that it has been thought to be the Ophir mentioned in the Scriptures: but Mr. Marsden, the able historian of the island, thinks that it was unknown to the ancients.

The English India Company long possessed Bencoolen, and the adjacent parts of this island; but these settlements were some years ago transferred to the Dutch, rather in the spirit of generosity than of sound policy. The king of Achen is the chief of the Moslem princes who possess the coasts. The interior parts are governed by Pagan princes; and the natural products are nearly the same with those of the neighbouring islands.

Rain is very frequent here—sometimes very heavy, and usually attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, as there are several volcanoes on the island. The people who inhabit the coast are Malays, and, as they belong to a remarkable race, they claim more than transient notice. "They are," says Mr. Anderson, "of a dark-yellowish complexion, stout in general: their limbs are well shaped, their persons upright, and they walk rather gracefully. They are low in stature. The men wear their hair long, and their teeth are filed when young, having a jet-black glossy appearance. The men pluck the hair from their chins, very few having the smallest appearance of a beard. The women are fair, with dark expressive eyes; but their ears are disfigured by large holes, into which rings of gold filagree, of an enormous size, are introduced: the poorer classes contenting themselves with a ring of wood, or a piece of plaintain leaf rolled up, which fills the aperture. The men are usually dressed in jackets of European chints or white cloth, with Achenese trowsers, a tartan petticoat, and a handkerchief or European kerchief on the head; and a handkerchief which contains betel is usually hung over one shoulder. The women wear long garments of blue or white cloth, with a cotton or silk sarong or petticoat. Their hair is neatly fastened by long gold, silver, or copper pins, according to the rank of the individual. Females of the higher order wear also a sash of silk or cloth, fastened round the waist with a gold binding, and a handkerchief slung over the left shoulder.

The men are not a very civilised race; but, when they are not roused to anger or resentment, they are social and friendly—fond of their wives, and still more of their children. Any man who can afford to support four wives, may have that number. If one should be cast

t or barrenness, he may supply
ther. There is no limitation
f concubines. The crime of
ishable by the death of both

an towns and villages, the
e habitations may be termed
these are commodiously con-
derson's description of Jambi,
coast, will serve to show the
g. "Many of the houses are
ioned in a neat manner, with
d with tiles of excellent ma-
w are covered with thatched
ave their sides constructed of
s of bark. Besides these and
ting, there are many houses
ge trunks of trees, which, dur-
al swellings of the river, are
ble, but in the dry season are
on a sandy flat. There are
upporting small huts, attached
s of houses, and used for the
athing, of which the women in
o be very fond."

general profess the Moham-
f religion; but they are not
f its ordinances. Their go-
bitrary, their sultans and chief-
ntrolled by law, and little in-
se of humanity. The interior
nd are chiefly occupied by a
who have hitherto had little
he Europeans, and who live in
ost of which are governed by

All these communities have
ten ones—by which they pun-
d terminate disputes. They
of them, and particularly the
ellings in the throat, like the
ge.

country, extending across the
y of Tappanooli, is inhabited
o differ from the other nations
nguage, manners, and customs.
g, but live independently, and
generally at variance. They
lages strongly with double
or plank, pointed, and placed
s projecting; between which
of bamboo, hardened by fire,
ch are concealed by the grass,
ough a man's foot. Such of
fall into their hands, it is said,
h and eat; and their skulls
trophies in the houses where
nen and boys eat and sleep.
amy: a man may purchase as
e may wish to have; but their
xceeds eight. All their wives
house with the husband, and
no partition; but each wife
e-place.
untry that most of the cassia
is produced. The cassia tree
r 60 feet in height, with a stem
of about 2 feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular spreading head.

BANCA, near the south-eastern part of Sumatra, is about 135 miles long, and its mean breadth is 35 miles. It is famous for its mines, from which nearly 4,000,000 pounds of tin are annually obtained for the Dutch, by the industry of the Chinese colonists. It was for four years in the possession of the English; but, in 1816, they gave it to the king of the Netherlands, in exchange for Cochin, on the Malabar coast.

JAVA, the third in extent among the Sunda Islands, but the most important of them all, is 666 miles long, and from 56 miles to 135 miles broad. Notwithstanding the insalubrity of the climate in the maritime parts, the Dutch erected on its north-western coast the city of Batavia, in 1619, which, with the exception of a short interval of British possession, they have retained to the present time. Their fondness for water prompted them to divide and disperse the stream of the neighbouring river into numerous stagnant canals, so as to deprive it of the natural impetus, which would have kept its channel clear and free from impurities. Thus they increased the unhealthiness of the spot; but, with their usual phlegmatic indifference, they disregarded all dangers of this kind. This city, for its magnificence, was called the Queen of the East; but, says Sir Stamford Raffles, little of that splendour is now to be found. "Streets have been pulled down, forts demolished, and palaces levelled with the dust." Those portions which are occupied by the Javans, Malays, Chinese, and other Orientals, are meanly built; and, though the houses in the division appropriated to the Europeans are spacious, they are inelegant, and even the public edifices are neither numerous nor splendid. A literary society, which was instituted in 1777, cannot be said to flourish, or to illuminate, in any degree, the dullness of the place or the people. It is said that the population amounted, about fifty years ago, to 150,000; but the present number is only a third part of that estimate.

To the west of Batavia is Bantam, a port which was formerly much frequented by European vessels. This was the capital of a considerable monarchy, founded by a Mohammedan prince; but the Dutch made gradual encroachments on the territories of the natives, and at length brought the king completely under their yoke. The city was taken by the English, in 1811. From 1811 till 1816, the Javanese were under the British government, to which they became strongly attached; but, in the latter year, they were again transferred to the Dutch, by a minister, who ought, for this act alone, to have been subjected to impeachment. Since that period, the island has been continually suffering from wars, provoked by the tyranny of the Dutch. There are still several princes on the island, whose power has withstood the intrigues and efforts of the Hollanders. The

The Great Andaman, as it is called, is about 140 miles long and 20 miles broad, and in reality consists of three islands, separated by very narrow channels. It is well wooded, but has few animals. The natives are a degraded race, of unknown origin, but bearing a great resemblance in colour, hair, and features, to African negroes. They are ill-formed, scarcely ever more than five feet high, go naked, subsist chiefly on fish, but will eat guanas, rats, and snakes. Their habitations are wigwams, formed by four poles fixed in the ground, tied together at the top, and filled up with branches. They are cunning and treacherous, and detest Europeans. As they never cultivate the soil, they are obliged to live near the sea. The population of the Great Andaman is supposed to be not more than 2500 persons. In 1791, a British settlement was formed in the south part of the Great Andaman, which was removed in 1796 to Port Cornwallis, in the north; in 1796, however, its unhealthiness caused it to be abandoned. The Little Andaman is 28 miles long, and 17 miles wide, and is inhabited by as wretched a race as the other island.

The Nicobar Isles comprehend nine larger islands, and some smaller. They are hilly, and generally covered with wood. Only a small part of the shore is cultivated, though the soil is exceedingly fertile. Delicious fruits, of various kinds, are abundant, and the surrounding seas swarm with excellent fish, shell-fish, and turtle. Edible birds' nests, and ambergris, are common here. In consequence of the dense forests which cover the country, the climate is deleterious to Europeans. The principal islands are Great, Little, and Car Nicobar, Noncowri, and Nicovari. The channel between the two latter forms an admirable harbour for vessels of all sizes. The natives of the Ni-

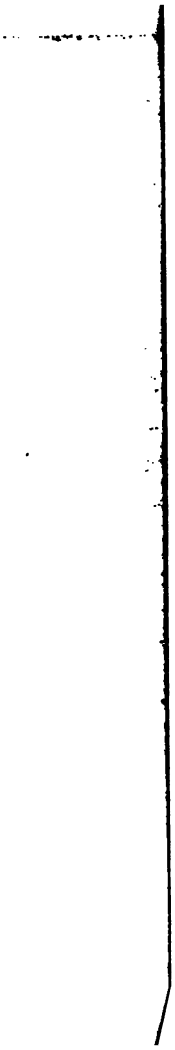
sensible of the value of the
not restore them at the ret
after, having quietly enjoye
years, they were involved i
sovereign of the inland terr
his capital, called Kandi,
situated in a plain, amidst
with wood; and, finding hin
commodation, they declared
and filled it at their own d
newed the war, massacred
tish garrison at Kandi, and
nial districts; but hostilitie
discontinued. After a long
forbearance, a new rupture
king was dethroned by the
nation, and the whole islan
British monarch. The nati
of Hindoo origin; but they
than the inhabitants of the c

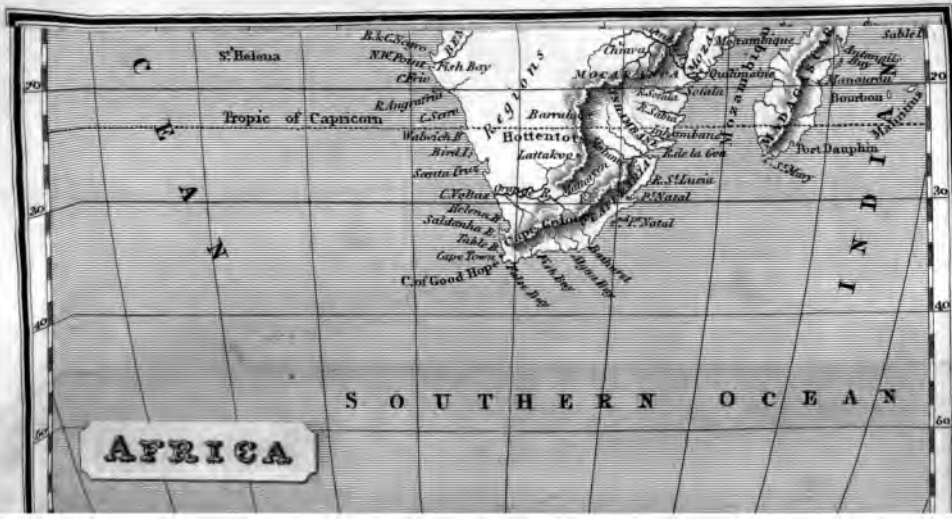
Since the cession of Ceyl
its prosperity has greatly inc
lar police, schools, vaccine e
savings-banks, have been
gross revenue of the island is
and £400,000 per annum.

The Maldives are a cluste
rocks above the water, ne
They are chiefly resorted to
carry on some trade with
cocoa tree is one of the mo
of these islands. With its
vessels of twenty or thirty t
masts, sails, rigging, anchor
all fabricated from this tree, w
a wholesome article of suste

We have already mentic
speaking of Hindoostan.

With regard to the langnag
tal islands, nothing certain c





AFRICA
SOUTHERN OCEAN
INDIAN
OCEAN
Tropic of Capricorn
St. Helena
Regions
Hottentots
Lattakoo
Barrakoo
Cape Colony
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
Table B.
Saldanha B.
Helena B.
C. Voltas
Santa Cruz
Bird I.
Walwich B.
C. Serra
R. Angrattia
C. Frio
N.W. Point
Fish Bay
Chiuva
Mozambique
Sofala
Quilimaine
Inhambane
R. de la Goa
R. St. Lucia
P. Natal
Port Dauphin
Bourbon
Mauritius
Sable I.
Antongilo Bay
Manouron
Mozambique
Madagascar
Fish Bay
Algoa Bay
Bathurst
False Bay
20
30
40
50

AFRICA.

ird grand division of the globe, some resemblance to the form he base being the northern part is along the shores of the Medi- the point or top of the pyramid, od Hope. Africa is a peninsula extent, joined to Asia only by l, about 60 miles over, between nd the Mediterranean, usually mus of Suez; and its utmost rth to south, from Cape Bona in ean to the Cape of Good Hope, nd the broadest part, from Cape Guardafui, near the Strait of is 4300 miles from east to west. on the north, by the Mediter- ich separates it from Europe; the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Indian Ocean, by which it is Asia; on the south, by the n; and, on the west, by the At- eparates it from America. As tersects this extensive country middle, and the far greater part the tropics, the heat is in many nsupportable to a European; it d by the rays of the sun, from f burning sand. The coasts, banks of rivers, are generally st parts of this region are inha- t is far from being so populous sia. From what has been said, ot expect to find here a variety n many parts of Africa, snow the plains; and it is rarely the tops of the highest moun- tives in these scorching regions expect that marble should melt, should be arrested by the cold, e the solid rock.

nsiderable mountains in Africa , a ridge extending from the to which it gives the name of as Egypt; it derived its appel- ing of Mauritania, a great lover who used to observe the stars it; on which account the poets as bearing the heavens on his Mountains of the Moon, ex- elves between Abyssinia and r Mocaranga, and which are an those of Atlas; those of r the Mountains of the Lions, igritia from Guinea, and extend ia. The last were styled by the ountains of the God, on account subject to thunder and light- ak of Teneriffe, which the r first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories in this country are Cape Verd, so called because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground, the most westerly point of the continent of Africa; and the Cape of Good Hope.

The most remarkable rivers in Africa are the Nile, Niger, Senegal, Gambia, and Zair or Congo. The source of the first is not where Mr. Bruce placed it, for he only discovered a subordinate or inferior spring, but in a distant part of the country from his land of Geesh, as will be more particularly noticed in the sequel. It was long supposed that the Senegal and Gambia were branches of the Niger; an opinion which has been fully disproved in our time; and it is still thought by many geographers, but without reason, that the Zair is an outlet of the Niger. In the heart of Africa, the rivers do not appear to be so numerous as they are in other extensive regions; and even those with which the country is furnished, are not so useful as with proper industry and attention they might be rendered.

The situation of Africa for commerce is exceedingly favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and thus having a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any other quarter has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic ancient historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has almost 10,000 miles of sea-coast, with large and deep rivers, it should have little navigation, and not receive any important benefit from them; and that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, almost ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are excellent harbours, sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but nearly destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a very extensive portion of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable of producing so many valuable commodities within itself, is greatly neglected, not only by the natives, but also by the more civilized Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa formerly contained several kingdoms and states eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth, power, and commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful

state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets; till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring realms and states. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the 5th century, the north of Africa was overrun by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of the arts and sciences; and, to add to the misfortunes of this country, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the 7th century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and, both being of the Mohammedan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was nearly completed.

The inhabitants of this continent, with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mohammedans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Moslems, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews in the north of Africa, who chiefly conduct the commercial concerns of that part of the country.

Africa is the quarter of the globe which is still the most imperfectly known, though numerous attempts have been made to explore it. Only with respect to a small part of the coast, and as small a part of the interior, have we any certain information. A line drawn across the continent, from the Gambia to the Straits of Babel-Mandeb, in about 13 degrees of north latitude, contains the territories of which we have acquired some knowledge in Central Africa; and even there our knowledge is very slight in many cases. That line would intersect Africa in its greatest breadth, and, proceeding from west to east, pass through the middle of Senegambia, Bambarra, Houssa, Bournou, Kaara, Wadai, Darfour, Kordofan, Sennaar, and Abyssinia. Between the Barbary States and this line, and between this line and the Cape of Good Hope, with the exception of patches along the coast, our maps display little more than a blank.

Though we are so little acquainted with the boundaries, or even with the names, of many of the inland countries of Africa, that continent may be divided according to the following Table; but it must be borne in mind that the magnitudes and distances are, in most instances, only approximations, and not ascertained facts.

	Nations	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion
Barbary.	Morocco	450	400	219,000	Morocco Mequinez Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Moham.
	Algiers	430	100	143,000	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Moham.
	Tunis	200	150	54,000	Tunis	990 S. E.	0 39 bef.	Moham.
	Tripoli	650	200	75,000	Tripoli	1260 S. E.	0 56 bef.	Moham.
	Barca, with Cyrenaica	300	280	66,000	Derna	1440 S. E.	1 26 bef.	Moham.
	Egypt	550	230	141,000	Grand Cairo	1920 S. E.	2 21 bef.	M. & Ch.
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans.
	Sahara	3000	660	740,000	Tegessa	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans.
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Mandinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans.
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans.
Up. Ethiopia.	Nubia	600	450	300,000	Sennar Derr	2418 S. E.	2 12 bef.	M. & Pag.
	Abyssinia	700	500	400,000	Gondar	2880 S. E.	2 30 bef.	Christians

The middle parts, containing Soudan, and some neighbouring countries, are very little known to the Europeans, but may be roughly computed at 1,500,000 square miles.

ations.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Religion.
go	350	200	50,000	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
o	400	300	173,000	Saint Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
la	300	200	39,000	Loanda	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pa.
uela	400	150	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans.
man	450	240	144,000	No Towns	. . .	. . .	Pagans.
	800	300	234,000	Brava	3702 S. E.	2 40 bef.	Pagans.
uebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda	4440 S. E.	2 38 bef.	Pagans.
motapa	960	660	223,000	Monomotapa	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
emugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S. E.	1 44 bef.	Pagans.
la	480	300	97,000	Sofala	4600 S. E.	1 18 bef.	Pagans.
a de Nat.	600	350	184,000	No Towns	. . .	. . .	Pagans.
aria, or Hottentot ntry	700	650	200,000	Cape of G. Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Ch. & Pa.

s belonging to Africa are situated
a Seas and Atlantic Ocean. The
the following:—Socotra, the Co-
Madagascar, Mauritius, Bourbon,
ascension, the Cape-Verd Islands,
Madeira, and the Azores.

We now proceed to describe particularly the more considerable countries of Africa, as far as they are known to Europeans, from the latest accounts; beginning from the west and north.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

head are included the countries
Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.
of Morocco is bounded, on the
Mediterranean Sea; on the south,
Noun or Akassa; on the east, by
territory; and, on the west, by
Ocean.

ie state is bounded, on the east,
anis; on the north, by the Medi-
the south, by Mount Atlas; and,
by the dominions of the Moorish

ounded by the Mediterranean on
d east; by Algiers, on the west;
li, with part of Biledulgerid, on

ounded, on the north, by the Me-
ea; on the south, by the country
s; on the west, by Tunis, Biledul-
ie districts of the Gadamis; and,
y Egypt. In assigning these boun-
oli, we include Barca and the Cy-
r.

The Barbary states form a great political confederacy, however independent each may be in the exercise of internal policy; nor is there a greater difference in the customs and manners of the inhabitants than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom.

Climate—Soil—Produce.—The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed of all the other states, except in the months of July and August, when the weather is very hot. These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there was considered as the highest luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and many other parts of the Roman empire, with corn, wine and oil. Though the lands are very imperfectly cultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of the government, they are still fertile, not only in the above-mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates beside

plenty of roots and herbs; and excellent hemp and flax grow on the plains. Algiers produces saltpetre, and great quantities of salt; and lead, iron, and copper, have been found in various parts of Barbary.

Mountains.—These form the great chain of Atlas, extending from Cape Geer to the north-east, and passing into the territory of Tunis. The most elevated parts are those which belong to the empire of Morocco, some rising to the height of 13,000 feet. From the summit to the plain, the descent presents a gradation of every climate from the frigid to the torrid zone.

Animals.—The deserts have not the elephant or the rhinoceros: but they abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyenas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England. Dromedaries, asses, and mules, are the ordinary beasts of burden; but, from the services of the camel, the greatest advantages are derived. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journeys across the continent. The camel is, therefore, says Mr. Bruce, emphatically called the Ship of the Desert. He seems to have been created for this very trade—endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, or the barest thorn, is all the food which he requires; and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment's delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is able, at one watering-place, to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for many days. To contain this great quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws, at pleasure, the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring; and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, for a whole day, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parched sands.

Mr. Jackson describes a kind of camel remarkable for its swiftness, known in these countries by the name of the heirie, of which, he says, there are three sorts, differing only in their quickness of movement. He also speaks of a useful animal, called the desert horse, which is, he says, to the common horse what the heirie is to the camel of burden. This animal does not, however, answer the purpose so well for crossing the desert, as he requires a feed of camel's milk once every day, which is *his only* sustenance, so that there must be two *female* camels wherever he goes, to afford this *supply*; for he will not touch barley, wheat, (oats are never given to horses in Africa,) hay, straw, or any other provision but camel's milk.

The cows are small, and barren c sheep yield indifferent fleeces, b large, as are the goats. Bears, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferre moles, and cameleons, are found in tries; and venomous insects and r abound. Partridges, quails, eagles, all kinds of wild-fowl, are seen on and, among small birds, the capse remarkable for its beauty, and the s its note, which is thought to exceed other bird; but it cannot live out climate. The seas and bays of Barb with the finest and most delicious were preferred by the ancients t Europe.

Natural Curiosities.—We kno no natural curiosities in these count the hot springs and the salt-pits. sometimes take the form of lakes. Tajura, in the state of Tripoli, is productive. When it ceases to be a remains a bed of salt round the edg stone, which forms an article of e being finer than that of Alexandria.

Population—Chief Towns—M Various and contradictory statement made respecting the population of of Morocco. Some accounts swell i 15,000,000; but others more reasonabl to 6,000,000 or 7,000,000. The most town is Fez, which was formerly the a distinct kingdom, and now share quinez the honour of the imperial pr is deemed a sacred city, and was, i ef its splendour, an object of freque ages. It then abounded with stately and the handsome mansions of pers tinction; but it is now declining, parts are in a ruinous state, though still to possess the handsomest Africa. Most of the houses have fenced by parapets, on which the fer the air, instead of rambling through The imperial palace is not disting external elegance; but the apartr richly ornamented, and the spacios are disposed and arranged with the turesque effect. The population of has been sometimes estimated at 3 also at a much higher rate; but it does not reach one-third of that num

Mequinez is an ill-built town, wit streets and gloomy houses.

The city of Morocco is apparently i stage of decay. Its original population is now dwindled down to less than 20

Salee is the chief maritime town o pire, though its harbour is insecur trade inconsiderable.

Tangier, which belonged to the E the reign of Charles II., is a mean t scarcely any good houses, except th European consuls. It is still fortifie castle would not long resist even a s of European besiegers.

The city of ALGIERS, before it was taken by he French, had 50,000 inhabitants; which, in 38, was found to be reduced to only 34,822, of hom 12,008 were Europeans. It is built on he declivity of a mountain, rising in the form f an amphitheatre from the harbour; and e rows or groups of houses, appearing one bove another, make a fine appearance, when ewed from the sea; but the interior is mean nd despicable. The mole is 500 paces in ngth, extending from the continent to a mall island, which has a castle and batteries. he damage which our countrymen inflicted the place has, we believe, been fully re-ired.

The population of the whole territory, for-rly subject to the dey, cannot easily be ertained; but it probably amounted to 00,000. The province of Constantina is the st fertile and the best-cultivated part; and city of that name, supposed to be the an-nt Cirta, exhibits broken pillars, cisterns, a mphal arch, and other remains of antiquity. he Algerines resemble the Moors in cha-ter and manners. They are base, cruel, kless, and unprincipled; bigoted and super-lous, rather than devout or religious; ser-to their rulers, but arrogant toward ngers.

UNIS is the most polished of all the Bar-r states. The capital stands on a rising und, but is surrounded by swamps and akes. It has nearly 150,000 inhabitants. Tunisians are indeed exceptions to the r states of Barbary; for even the most ised of the European governments might ove from their manners. Their distinc-s are well kept up, and proper respect is to the military, mercantile, and learned ssions. They cultivate friendship with European states; various manufactures rried on with some degree of spirit; and nhabitants are said to be well acquainted the labours of the loom. The women are some in their persons; and, though the are swarthy, the complexions of the ladies ery delicate; nor are they less neat and at in their dress.

IPOLI was once the richest, most popu-and flourishing, of all the states on the ; but it is now much reduced. The capi-surrounded by a wall and towers; but the ications are not kept in such a state as to pable of a long defence against European ants. The town, though it is in many dilapidated, contains many good houses, some fine public buildings. The castle een so augmented, at different times, that ks like a little irregular town. The great se is particularly admired; the exterior idsome, and the interior is neatly, though stically ornamented. The houses of the pal inhabitants *are generally built in llowing manner. A hall or lodge leads all-paved court-yard, which is surrounded cloister, supported by pillars; and over* this is a gallery, enclosed with lattice-work. From the cloisters and gallery, doors open into large chambers not communicating with each other, which receive light only from the court-yard. The windows have no glass, but are furnished with wooden lattices curiously cut, which, however, only transmit a very imperfect light.

The province of BARCA is fertile in the western parts, while the eastern portion is little better than a sandy desert. The city of Barca was formerly considered as its capital; but Derna, being the seat of the governor deputed by the bey or pasha of Tripoli, now claims that honour.

The CYRENAICA is for the most part subject to Tripoli. This country may be divided into three parts, in point of fertility. In the northern part, vegetation is rich and luxuriant; in the middle, it declines; and, in the south, the productions of the earth are poor and scanty. The inhabitants are almost entirely of Arabian descent.

The subjects of these states, as they so long subsisted by piracy, are allowed to be bold intrepid mariners, and will fight desperately when they meet with a vessel at sea; they are, notwithstanding, far inferior to the English and other European states, both in the construction and management of their ships. They are, if we except the Tunisians, nearly destitute of arts and literature. The misery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's service, are beyond all description; but those who inhabit the inland parts of the country are represented as a hospitable, inoffensive people; and indeed it is a general observation, that the more distant the inhabitants of those states are from the seats of their government, the more pure are their manners. Notwithstanding their poverty, they have a liveliness about them, especially those who are of Arabian descent, that gives them an air of contentment; and, having little to lose, they are peaceable among themselves.

With regard to the dress of the people of these states, it generally consists of a linen shirt, a silk or cloth vestment with a sash, and a loose coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs are bare; but they have slippers; and persons of rank sometimes wear buskins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their slippers when they attend religious duties, or the person of their sovereign. They are fond of striped and variegated silks. The dress of the women is not very different from that of the men; but their drawers are longer, and they wear a sort of cawl on their heads instead of a turban. The chief furniture of a house consists of very low tables, cushions, sofas, carpets, and mattresses.

In this survey, some notice is due to the Berbers, or the aborigines of the country, who chiefly inhabit the mountainous districts.

They are a brave, robust, and hardy race; and they exhibit, says Mr. Murray, "the only example, to be found in Barbary, of the republican form of government, as they have assemblies of the people, and elect their own chiefs." They are skilful in the use of fire-arms, and, when provoked to insurrection, are formidable enemies to the government. They live in fixed villages, and cultivate the earth; but the Bedouins, or wild Arabs, who occupy the interior and pastoral districts of Barbary, are wandering tribes, who dwell in douars, or moveable villages, arranged in circles, within which the cattle are enclosed. Both these races acknowledge the supremacy of the prince from whose territories they derive their subsistence; paying, however, an imperfect, indignant, and precarious obedience.

Manufactures and Commerce.—As the people of Barbary leave almost all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Christians settled among them, the latter have established silk and linen works, which supply the higher ranks. They have few ships which are employed in commerce; so that the English and other nations carry on the greatest part of their trade. Their leather, carpets, sashes, and silk handkerchiefs, are valued even in Europe. Their other exports are elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, gold dust, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandarach. The Moors likewise carry on a considerable trade by caravans, with the inland part of Africa, whence they bring back great numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with tinber, artillery, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are only half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that few nations are fond of trading with these states, on account of their capricious despotism, and of the villany of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

Constitution and Government.—In Morocco, regular government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners, in all criminal matters: nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the sovereign, military commanders have the power of life and death; and it is seldom that they regard the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the government borrowed from the khalifate, still continue; for, in places where no military officer resides, the mufti is the fountain of all justice, and under him are the cadis, who act like our ordinary magistrates.

Though Tunis and Tripoli have each a Turkish pasha, bey, or dey, governing in the name of the grand signor, very little regard is paid by the higher class of his subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, every soldier has a vote in choosing a dey or a bey; and, though the election is often attended with bloodshed, it is as sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that sanction is scarcely ever refused.

These princes pay small annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand signor is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the despot of Morocco; but he is not implicitly obeyed. Subordinate to the chief rulers of the state are officers, both military and civil; and, in all matters of importance, the dey is expected to take the advice of a council. The members of this assembly frequently form parties among the soldiers against the reigning prince, when they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council.

Religion.—The inhabitants of these states are Mohammedans; but many subjects of Morocco are sectaries in various points which are not deemed momentous. All of them have much respect, not only for reputed saints, but even for idiots, whose protection, in some cases, screens offenders from punishment for notorious crimes. The Moors and their neighbours seem, in general, to have adopted the very worst parts of the Mohammedan system, and to retain only as much as countenances their vices; but they deserve praise for allowing to all foreigners the open profession of their religion.

Language.—As the states of Barbary possess those countries which formerly bore the names of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is still spoken in some of the inland parts, and even by many inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the maritime towns, a bastard kind of Arabic is spoken; and seafaring people are no strangers to the medley of Italian, French, Spanish, &c., so well known in all the ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

Antiquities.—The reader can scarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, possess curious remains of antiquity. Memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatness are still to be met with; some striking ruins point out the Julia Cæsarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itself; and a few of the aqueducts of Carthage are still remaining. Fallen columns, ruined arches, curious pieces of sculpture, and tesselated pavements, have also been occasionally discovered in that neighbourhood.

Near Tripoli is an arch which was erected in the time of Marcus Aurelius, said to be as

lsome as any of those which still exist in
r. It is composed of stones of extraordinary
put together without cement; the ceiling
autifully sculptured, and, on the outside are
ps of whole-length figures; but these are
much injured by time. At Zavia is an
hitheatre in a tolerable state of preserva-
. On the spot where Cyrene stood, the
ges of two temples, a theatre, baths, and
r ruins, are visible; but the most remark-
antiquities in this neighbourhood are nine
y sepulchral grottoes, in one of which is a
rb sarcophagus, of white marble, adorned
caryatides, while others contain paintings,
ch are still so far distinct as to explain the
ects chosen by the artists. Some of the
bs, as well as the cells, bear a great analogy
ome ruins which have been discovered on
coast of Caramania. Among the ruins of
lemais are the traces of a temple, a barrack,
tombs, in the inside of one of which is
highly-finished work, and in the desert of
ca are some Saracenic castles.

ISTORY.—Under the Roman emperors, the
es of Barbary formed the fairest jewels in
imperial diadem. These countries were
rward seized by the Vandal chieftains and
ek emperors, from whose sway they passed
er the Saracen yoke. Several flourishing
es existed for ages on the coast, which for
e time acknowledged the authority of the
stic khalifs. Kairwan, about fifty miles to
south of Tunis, was the magnificent capital of one of these states: but it is now in ruins. At length the Turkish pirates, and other Moslem adventurers, formed principalities, extending from Egypt to the eastern frontier of Morocco.

The emperors or kings of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called sherifs, and whose powers resembled those of the khalifs. They have been, in general, and still are, a set of bloody tyrants, though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley, who defeated Sebastian, king of Portugal. They were frequently in a state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes; and their rovers from Salee emulated the piratical fame of the Algerines and Tripolines. That spirit of depredation in the case of Algiers, received a severe check, as the reader has been informed in our sketch of the history of England; and was entirely put down by the French conquest of Algiers, in 1830.

The suppression of piracy is the only benefit which Algiers, Europe, or the progress of civilization has yet derived from the possession of Algiers by the French, who, after having shed rivers of blood, wasted large tracts of territory in the most barbarous manner, exposed their army to be decimated by the sword and disease, and expended enormous sums of money, are, in fact, scarcely more advanced in their colonizing projects than they were when they first landed on the shore of Africa.

EGYPT.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles		Degrees.
550	between	24. and 32. N. lat.
230		29. and 34. E. long.

Containing 140,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.—Egypt is ded by the Mediterranean Sea, on the ; by the Red Sea, to the eastward; by sinia, on the south; and by the desert of a, and the less known parts of Africa, on vest. It is divided into the lower and r provinces, of which Cairo and Girgeh are ctively the capitals. That part which is en the branches of the Nile and the terranean, was anciently denominated the , from the resemblance of its triangular to the Greek letter of that name, and is o called by Europeans, but by the Arabs a. Under the government of the Mame- Egypt was divided into fifteen provinces. met Ali has divided it into sixty-four de- ents, forming seven governments.

NTAINS—DESERTS—OASES.—Egypt, to uth of Cairo, is a long valley, through the Nile flows, shut in by mountains, beyond which, on both sides, are vast sandy deserts. In some parts of these deserts, at the distance of 100 miles or more to the west of the Nile, are small fertile spots of cultivated land, situated like islands in the midst of an ocean of sand: they are called Oases—the name by which they were known to the ancient Greeks—and by the Arabs, Elwah. The great oasis is said to be 20 leagues in length, and 4 or 5 leagues in breadth. That of Siwah is about 6 miles long, and 4 miles wide. A large proportion of this space is filled with date-trees; but there are also pomegranates, figs, olives, apricots, and plantains, and the gardens are remarkably flourishing. A considerable quantity of rice is cultivated here. This has been supposed to be the oasis where the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon formerly stood. Mr. Browne found here the ruins of an edifice which appeared to be the work of the ancient Egyptians, as the figures of Isis and Anubis were conspicuous among the sculptures. Here are also catacombs, or ancient places of sepulture.

The mountains which border the Nile, in Upper Egypt, are of a calcareous nature; but

this ceases about 60 miles to the northward of the cataracts, and is succeeded by free-stone in beds; and, near Syene, granite is the chief component part. In the eastern chain, abrupt precipices frequently appear, resembling long walls, and approaching the banks of the river.

Rivers.—The only river in this country is the celebrated Nile, which is formed by the junction, in the country of Sennaar, of two great streams, one of which, called the Bahr el Azrek, or the Blue River, rises in Abyssinia, where its source is honoured as the head of the Nile. The other river, which, as being the longest and largest stream, is the true Nile, is called the Bahr el Abiad, or the White River, and rises at a place named Donga, among the Gebel el Cumri, or Mountains of the Moon. Donga, according to Mr. Browne, lies in about 7 degrees of north latitude, and 25 degrees of east longitude. The whole length of the course of the Nile may be estimated at about 1900 miles. Since Mehemet Ali became the ruler of Egypt, several important canals have been formed.

Lakes.—In Lower Egypt are several lakes, the largest of which is the lake of Menzaleh, which is separated from the Mediterranean only by an extremely narrow ridge of land, and communicates with that sea by one or two outlets. It is 50 miles long, and from 2 to 12 miles broad. The lake of Berelos, which adjoins in like manner to the Mediterranean, between Damietta and Rosetta, is 25 miles long, and about 8 miles broad. The ancient lake of Marcotis is now almost dry. The lakes in the desert ought also to be mentioned, which produce natron, a substitute for barilla.

Metals—Minerals.—Egypt appears not to be productive of any metals, except a small quantity of iron; but the mountains contain various kinds of marble, as porphyry, the celebrated *verde antico*, or green marble with white and dark spots, and many valuable gems, as the emerald, topaz, chalcedony, onyx, &c.

Climate—Air.—It is observed by M. Volney, that during eight months in the year, from March to November, the heat is almost insupportable to a European. "During the whole of this season, the air is inflamed, the sky sparkling, and the heat oppressive to all unaccustomed to it." The other months are comparatively temperate. The southerly winds which sometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called poisonous winds, or the hot winds of the desert. They are of such extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body exposed to them can withstand their pernicious influence. During the three days of the southern blast, the streets are deserted; and wo to the traveller whom this wind surprises remote from shelter! When it exceeds three days, it is insupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almost blinded with drifts of sand: but these evils are, in a great measure, remedied by the rising and overflowing of the Nile.

Soil and Produce.—Whoever is in the least acquainted with geography, knows that the vast fertility of Egypt is not produced by rain, (little falling in that country,) but by the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to rise when the sun is vertical in Ethiopia, and when the annual rains fall there, from the latter end of May to September, and sometimes October. At the height of its flood in Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, the towns and villages being, for that reason, built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee with great festivity. The banks, or mounds, which confine it, are cut by the Turkish pasha, attended by his grandees; and, after this ceremony, the water is led into what they call the khalij, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying the fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, next is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May; he turns his cattle out to graze in November; and, in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, a rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges and lemons perfume the air; dates, grapes, and figs cheer the eye; and palm-trees, which afford the means of making wine, are blooming and abundant. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and of cucumbers, (the latter being the ordinary food of the inhabitants,) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs in a year.

Among the vegetable products of Egypt should also be mentioned the papyrus, of which the ancients made their paper, though their mode of preparing it is now unknown; and the lotus, a kind of water-lily, abounding in the Nile. The pith of the papyrus is said to be a nourishing food. Cotton is also grown here. The trees are the sycamore, acacia, willow, &c.

The Egyptian mode of hatching chickens in ovens is very curious, and has been practised in Europe with success. Not less extraordinary and ingenious is the manner of raising and managing bees in that country. When the verdure and flowers fail in one part of Egypt, the proprietors of bees put their hives on board of large boats, each marking his own hive. The boatman proceeds with them gently up the river, and stops with them wherever he perceives flowery meadows. The bees swarm from their cells at break of day, and collect honey, returning several times loaded with what they have obtained, and in the evening

nter their hives, without ever mistaking r abode.

NIMALS.—Egypt abounds in black cattle; it is said that the inhabitants employ y day 150,000 oxen in raising water for their ands. Recently, however (1842,) a sort of rain has made terrible ravages among the le; of which at least 100,000 are said to have ished. They have a fine breed of asses, upon ch the Christians used to ride, not being n suffered by the Turks to mount any other st. The Egyptian horses are very fine; y never trot, but walk well, and gallop with at speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, river-horse, an amphibious animal, resem- ng an ox in its hinder parts, with the head s that of a horse, is found in the upper vince. Hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, neleons, and the rat called ichneumon, are tives of Egypt. The crocodile was formerly ught peculiar to this country; but there s not seem to be any material difference ween it and the alligators of India and erica. They are both amphibious animals, the form of a lizard, and some grow till y are sixteen feet in length, and have four rt legs, with large feet armed with claws, their backs covered with a kind of impene- le scales like armour. The crocodile waits is prey in the sedge, and other covers, on sides of rivers; and, resembling the trunk a old tree, sometimes surprises the incau- passenger with his fore-paws, or beats down with his tail.

is country also produces great numbers of s, hawks, pelicans, and water-fowl of all . The ibis, supposed to resemble a cur- was deified by the ancient Egyptians for ility in destroying serpents and pesti- s insects. They are thought to be pecu- o Egypt; but a species is said to have lately discovered in other parts of Africa. ches are common here, and are so strong he Arabs sometimes ride upon them.

ULATION—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—It is ult to ascertain the amount of the inha- s of Egypt; but it is supposed that 00 are rather under than over the real er. The majority of the people may be ered as the descendants of foreigners, ave not become fully naturalized to the e or soil. Of these there are more than varieties. The Fellahs, or cultivators, he bulk of the nation. The Copts ap- to be the only offspring of the original ants, not however unmixed with the : Persian, Greek, and Roman races. listinguishing features are a flat fore- , dusky yellow complexion, dark hair es, thick lips, puffed features, and a ut elevated nose. For acuteness or tion they are not remarkable; yet, as them can read and write, and are assi- nd attentive in business, they seem to the learning of Egypt. They are, in general, of a grave if not melancholy temperament, quiet and patient rather than active or alert; and, like many demure persons in Europe, are addicted to sensuality, and fond of spirituous liquors; but avarice is said to be the predominant failing, of the race. Their females are generally elegant in form, and interesting in feature; and we do not find that they are stigmatized for licentiousness or immorality. The Copts are said to amount to 250,000.

The people who inhabit the country at a considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion: they usually live in tents, attend to their flocks, and have no fixed place of abode. Those who wander within 100 miles to the north of the Cataracts are of a short stature, but vigorous and active; have complexions almost black; and do not cover their heads. They are accused of eating flesh torn or cut from the living animals; but this they deny, though they acknowledge that they sometimes open the veins of a sheep or a dromedary, and drink the warm blood. They are armed with lances, of the length of seven feet, and defend themselves with round shields, made of the hide of the hippopotamus, which are not easily cut with a sabre, or penetrated by a musket-ball. They are said to be more shrewd and intelligent than the Arabs of the lower province.

The Turks who reside in Egypt retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Copts, who dress in a very plain manner, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers, while their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are of silk, when they can afford it; and, such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The Mohammedan females are not admitted into the society of men, even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, when she accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing or seated in a corner of the room, while the master of the house is at dinner; present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The dancing-girls are more free in their manners, and wander about the country, performing their evolutions at nuptial festivities, and on other occasions, and sometimes reciting tales, and singing to the sounds of the drum and the flute.

CHIEF TOWNS—EDIFICES.—Among the cities of Egypt, Alexandria, both for its ancient and

modern fame, may be thought to claim primary notice. It was once the emporium of the civilized world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and a considerable part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and was famous for the light-house which was erected on the opposite isle of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. A great part of the ancient city stood upon arches, under which were formed the cisterns that preserved the water of the Nile for daily use. These arches still exist, and are, in their construction, partly Greek and partly Roman. Many other remains of antiquity attract notice, particularly two beautiful obelisks, which formerly adorned the entrance to the palace of the Ptolemies, and Diocletian's (commonly called Pompey's) Pillar. There are two harbours, and on the neck of land that divides them the modern city is situated. It is encompassed by a lofty wall and other fortifications, and contains about 60,000 inhabitants, who carry on, though not very actively, some manufacturing and commercial concerns. The houses occupied by Europeans have a respectable appearance, which is not the case with the rest of the habitations. The following sketch of Alexandria is drawn by the Baroness von Minutoli:—"It would be difficult to convey the impression made on me, whilst passing for the first time through the streets of this city. It would require the talent of Hogarth to depict the varied scenes of the magic lantern. The movements and tumult in these narrow streets, continually obstructed by numberless camels, mules, and asses; the cries of the drivers incessantly warning the people to take care of their bare feet; the vociferations and grimaces of mountebanks; the brilliant costume of the Turkish functionaries; the picturesque dress of the Bedouins, their long beards and grave and regular Arabian features; the half-naked santon, surrounded by anxiously gazing groups; the multitude of negro slaves; the howlings of the female weepers, who, as they accompany a corpse to the grave, tear their hair and beat their breasts; the noisy merriment of a nuptial *cortège*; the chants of the imams, calling to prayer from the minarets; and, lastly, the deplorable picture of wretches dying in the streets from hunger and misery, and the troops of wild dogs that pursue and torment you; each and all of these beset your path, and excite your astonishment at every instant."

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands 35 miles to the north-east of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects, which command the Delta. It has about 15,000 inhabitants, and is a place of great trade.

Cairo, or, as it is called by the Arabs, Kahirah, the capital of Egypt, is a large and populous but disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air and narrow streets. It has a population of about 300,000 inhabitants. divided into two towns, the Old and New defended by an old castle, the works of are one mile in circumference. The ca said to have been built by Saladin: at th end are the remains of very noble apart some of which are covered with dom adorned with pictures in mosaic wo these apartments are now only used f ing embroidery, and preparing the and coverings annually sent to Mec well, called Joseph's Well, is a curious mechanism, about 270 feet deep. The of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, granaries are shown, beside other works of public utility, that are honoured by his They are certainly of great antiquity; but it is far from being probable that they were erected by him. The houses in general are mostly constructed of earth and ill-burned bricks; but some are built of soft stone, and many are large and commodious, if not handsome or elegant. The edifices on which architectural ornament has been chiefly bestowed, are the mosques, some of which are magnificent; and the tombs of the beys, in the suburbs, are also admired, as they are well built of white marble, and most of them have carved, painted, or gilt domes. An aqueduct near the canal which traverses the city, is a noble work: it is an hexagonal building, each side being about eighty feet in length, and nearly of an equal height: the wheels by which the water is raised are turned by the patient labour of oxen.

The police of Cairo is strict, and the streets are generally quiet; but they are occasionally enlivened by the procession of a bride to one of the baths, and by the performances of jugglers, tumblers, mountebanks, and dancing-girls. Another favourite exhibition is that of dancing-camels, which, when young, are placed upon a heated floor: the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper; and, being plied all the time with the sound of a drum, they dance whenever they hear it.

Girgeh, in Upper Egypt, exhibits nothing particularly remarkable, except a large Coptic monastery, dedicated to St. George. It has from 8000 to 10,000 inhabitants. The largest town in that province is Siout, with a population of 20,000, built on the banks of a wide canal which skirts the desert. The inhabitants of this town and its environs have an appearance of opulence and industry. There are some sepulchral excavations near it, various parts of which have an air of magnificence.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The Egyptians manufacture linen, prepare leather for various purposes, and make carpets; and, beside these articles, they export flax, thread, cotton, wool, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, and cassia. Cairo maintains a communication with the more inland parts of Africa by caravans, which bring gold, ivory, gums, hides, and, we are sorry to add, a great number of slaves.

)VERNMENT—MILITARY When the French invaded pointed by the Porte, had minal authority; for the bles, held the chief sway. n, of which the president mbers, with the assent of arbitrary in his own ter- sovereign power; and, if esentative acted in oppo- he beys, or attempted to s, they would not suffer post. This government French; and, when it had h aid, the Turks took an lating, by violence and f the Mamelukes. The s little by this apparent ha governs with all the te sovereign, and merely the grand signor. The ablishments of the pasha ally when compared with country. The army, be- nsisted of no less than irregular troops, besides s. This force has since diminished. The navy the line, 7 frigates, 5 cor- manned by nearly 16,000 and dock-yards are on a

jority of the inhabitants of the Mohammedan sys- rofess themselves to be k Church, agreeing how- Catholics in the doctrine and borrowing from the of frequent prostrations , ablutions, and other he Mohammedans have s have their monks, who ts in the deserts.

igh it cannot be doubted red all their knowledge ptians, few vestiges of it lescendants. This may s from the bigotry and hammedan masters; but ke one observation. The their sway over Egypt, tions. The first made and principle, upon all xcept the Koran; and ien they took possession ontained the most mag- rld ever beheld, its valu- used for some months ials, and warming their ate attended the other The khalifs of the second e and learning, but of a They purchased all the ived the general confla- tronomy, medicine, and f philosophy; but they had little taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, or painting, or for genuine science; and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of Moslem princes, especially those who called themselves khalifs of Egypt, disgraced human nature; and the Turks riveted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed. All the learning of modern Egypt consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of the Koran.

LANGUAGE.—The Coptic is the ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, when the Saracens dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabesque is now the current language; for the Coptic may be considered as nearly extinct.

ANTIQUITIES. — Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history, and their original use can only be conjectured; but there is little doubt that they were sepulchral monuments. The altitude of the largest, when entire, was 448 feet; the length of the base, 716 feet; and that of the inclined side, 574 feet. It contains a room 34 feet long, and 17 feet broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of man.

The catacombs, containing the mummies, or the embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent; and some of the bodies are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth, in Upper Egypt, is a curiosity, thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting, it is said, anciently of 12 palaces or halls, and 1000 chambers, the intricacies of which occasioned its name. The lake Mœris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottoes and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's (or rather Diocletian's) pillar is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being 88 feet 9 inches in height, or ten diameters of the column: the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphinx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about 30 feet high.

The pyramids are rather monuments of labour than of skilful art: but the temple of Dendera, or Tentyra, is a striking specimen of the latter, and displays the ancient architecture of Egypt, in its finest form. The portico consists of 24 columns, in 3 rows, each being 32 feet high, and 22 feet in circumference, and covered with hieroglyphics in alto-relievo: the capitals are square, with a representation of the face of Isis on each side. All the walls and ceilings of the interior are profusely adorned with sculpture. Some of the delineations are religious, others astronomical; and, in one of the apartments, the figures refer to a human sacrifice. The western wall is particularly admired for its ornaments.

To the south of Dendera are the remains of Thebes, the ancient capital of Upper Egypt, the boasted "city of the hundred gates." The two great masses of Thebaic ruins are near Carnac and Luxor. At the former place, one temple is so large as to suggest the idea of sculptured mountains: that which adorns the latter village is of smaller dimensions, but is built in a much better taste. Belzoni highly admired the stupendous ruins of Carnac. He speaks with rapture of a "forest of enormous columns adorned all round with beautiful figures; gates, walls, pedestals, and architraves, decorated in every part with symbolical representations, in basso-relievo and intaglio, of battles, triumphs, feasts, and sacrifices; a sanctuary wholly formed of fine red granite; the high portals seen at a distance from the openings to this vast labyrinth of edifices, and various groups, of ruins of other temples within sight." At Edfou two temples are still seen, which are more majestic than those of Dendera, and one of which appears like a noble fortress, commanding the circumjacent country. The figures annexed to this building are of colossal magnitude, and are executed in a spirited and masterly style.

The ruins at Esneh ought not to be passed over in silence. A portico is there seen, which belongs to a temple that is concealed and inaccessible. The sculptural representations upon it are grotesque and curious, and apparently of very remote antiquity; and "their variety is such," says Mr. Hamilton, "as seems to offer to posterity the amplest field for the study of the whole range of the learning, mythology, and superstitions, of the ancient Egyptians."

HISTORY.—When the princes of the line of Pharaoh had governed Egypt for a long succession of ages, the country was subdued by Cambyses, the Persian. After the death of Alexander the Great, to whom, as the conqueror of Persia, it devolved, it was subjected to the sway of Ptolemy, one of his favourite officers; under whom, and his successors, the country flourished in commercial and general fame. In the reign of Cleopatra it was viewed with ambitious eyes by the Romans, to whose powerful arms it submitted after a fruitless resistance. On the decline of the Roman supremacy, it became subject to the Greek emperors, from whom it was wrested, in the 7th century, by the Saracens. It passed through various Mahammedan dynasties, and was at length degraded by the despotism of the Mamelukes, a men who had risen to power from a state of slavery. The first sultans of that description were the offspring of Turks, who had been sold in Egypt by the Tartars, and who were employed as a guard, by the famous Saladin and other princes. They acquired the supremacy in the year 1250, and retained it for 132 years. The next race of sultans had also a servile origin, but were of Georgian or Circassian descent. In 1517, the last prince of this dynasty was vanquished and dethroned by the Ottoman emperor, Selim I.; and, after that revolution, Egypt long remained in a state of quiet submission to the Porte: but the Mameluke beys continued to enjoy some share of power; and they gradually encroached on the authority of the pasha, who acted in the name of the grand signor.

While the Turks were engaged in a dangerous war with the Russians, in the reign of the empress Catharine II., an attempt was made to deprive the Porte of all remains of power in Egypt; not indeed by the leading Mamelukes, but by the bey Ali, who, being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself exceedingly popular in Egypt. Having been falsely accused, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but, being apprised of his danger, he seized and put to death the messenger, raised an army, and mounted the throne of Egypt. Not content with that kingdom, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched to support these possessions, and subdued the neighbouring provinces. He at the same time introduced a regular form of government, and pursued a system which soared above the barbarism of his Egyptian contemporaries; but a party was at length formed against him; and, being defeated in 1773, by the bey Abou-dahab, he died of the wounds which he had received. The [illegible] nary contest for power was prolonged, as [illegible] throw the state into great disorder; but it gradually subsided into peace, and the beys Morad and Ibrahim became the chief rulers of the country.

It was not at first probable that the French Revolution would extend its mis[illegible]chief into Africa; but, in 1798, the Parisian [illegible] elements, having a considerable army at leisure, [illegible] under the command of Bonaparte, [illegible] the conquest of Egypt, as we [illegible] former occasion. The lower [illegible] quickly revolutionized; and, when [illegible] insurrections arose, they were [illegible] ordinary rigour; but, in 1801, the [illegible] General Abercrombie and other [illegible] expelled the French from the country, [illegible] nominal authority of the Porte [illegible]

beys exercised the chief sway. uler was the pasha Mehemet th resolved to extinguish the lamelukes. On the 22nd of aving invited all the beys who ro to witness the ceremony of general against the Wahabees, ly of military ruffians to fire n they were entangled in a leading to the citadel, and ed from the firing were de- ording to Salamé, about 650 almost all the beys, were put capital and in other parts of the country. The pasha then assumed the whole power of the state, merely sending an annual tribute to Constantinople to show that he was a vassal of the grand signor. His subjugation of the Wahabees, and his rebellion against the Porte, have already been noticed under the heads of "Turkey" and "Arabia." It must be owned that he has governed with some degree of ability, maintained tranquillity and order throughout Egypt, extended the limits of his territory, promoted commerce, and encouraged the adoption of European arts and manufactures.

ABYSSINIA.

T AND SITUATION.

Degrees.

etween { 6. and 16. N. lat. 33. and 42. E. long.

g 400,000 square miles.

– DIVISIONS. — Abyssinia, or led on the north by the king- or Nubia; on the east by the south by Gingiro and Alaba; by Kordofan. It was formerly following provinces: Masuah, Begemder, Amhara, Walaka, Maitsha, Dembea, Kuara, and change has taken place since been divided among several now split into the kingdoms r, Ankobar, Amhara, Angot, , besides, inhabited by several es. To the kingdom of Tigré provinces of Enderta, Tigré, Baharnegash, Siré, Agaime, t, and Waldubba: to that of Dembea, Gojam, Belessem, t, Woggara, and Tshelga: to d Shoa: to Amhara, the pro- e name, and some adjacent got, Furfura and Angot: to ace of the same name. The ters of a large portion of

COUNTRY—MOUNTAINS. — The untry is generally rugged and abounds with forests and s also interspersed with many l plains. About the centre of the mountains of Lamalmon, ara and Sameno, which latter loftiest in the country; and s rivers arise and flow in all

ake of Tzana, or Dembea, is nse of water *known in this atest breadth is 35 miles, and . The Nile, by a current uses the end of it. In the* dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but, when all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre, it swells, and widely diffuses itself over the level country. There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. These were formerly used as prisons for the great, or for a voluntary retreat on account of some disgust or misfortune, or as places of security to deposit valuable effects during turbulent times.

RIVERS.—The chief river is the Nile, or the branch named the Blue River. The Tacazze is another considerable river, and there are many smaller streams.

METALS—MINERALS.—Some gold is found among the sands of the rivers, and there are mines of salt. The Abyssinians, in lieu of small money, frequently make use of pieces of rock salt, which are as white as snow and hard as stone. According to some accounts, this country produces fine emeralds.

CLIMATE — SEASONS — SOIL — PRODUCE. — The rainy season, it is said, continues for six months of the year, from April to September; and it is succeeded by a cloudless sky and a vertical sun; but the heat of the day does not prevent the nights from being exceedingly cold. The soil, though in many places thinly spread, is rendered fertile and productive by the rains and rivers. Wherever it can be tilled and well watered, it yields very large crops of wheat, barley, millet, and other grain. The inhabitants have two, and sometimes three, harvests in the year; and, where they have a supply of water, they may sow in all seasons: many of their trees and plants retain their verdure, and yield fruit and flowers throughout the year.

Beside that corn which resembles the grain of Europe, the Abyssinians raise great quantities of teff, which thrives in every kind of soil. It consists of a stalk rising from a number of weak leaves, and from the top many branches spring, containing minute seeds or

grains in capsules; these are bruised and made into bread. They have also the ensete, the stalk of which is said to be palatable and nourishing. The balsam, myrrh, and other juicy and odoriferous plants, are likewise abundant; and the date-tree, the acacia, the rack, (which supplies timber for boats,) and a variety of trees equally useful, are scattered over the country.

ANIMALS.—Of the wild beasts of Abyssinia, the hyena is the most ferocious. Even the streets of the capital are infested with these animals, which rush into the houses. The elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, lion, leopard, and panther, are also found in this country; and the rivers abound with crocodiles. The buffaloes are wild and mischievous, as the inhabitants do not take proper pains to render them useful. Antelopes are common; the zebra is sometimes seen; and monkeys swarm in many parts. The cattle resemble those of Europe, except that the oxen in the Galla country have horns of an enormous length and magnitude.

Among the birds are eagles of a very large species, vultures, falcons, storks, snipes, pigeons, and swallows; but water-fowl are uncommon. The only insect that deserves notice is a fly, about the size of a bee, whose buzzing intimidates into flight the fiercest quadruped of the forest, and whose sting inflicts a painful wound.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—Under this head may be mentioned the great cataract of the supposed Nile, at Alata, which Mr. Bruce represents as the most magnificent sight that he ever beheld. The height is about 40 feet. When he saw it, the river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth, with a force and noise truly terrific. A thick fume or haze covered the fall all around, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its track, though the water was not seen.

INHABITANTS—MANNERS—CUSTOMS.—The Abyssinians are in general tall and well made. They are of a dark-olive complexion; their features are proportionate; their eyes large, black, and sparkling; their noses rather high than flat; their lips small; and their teeth extremely white and handsome. With respect to their dispositions, they are mild and docile, and, in their general conduct, sober and temperate.

The dress of persons of quality is a long fine vest, either of silk or cotton, tied about the middle with a rich scarf. The common people have only a pair of cotton drawers, and a kind of scarf, or piece of the same cloth, with which they cover the rest of the body. The habit of women of the superior class consists of the richest silk, ornamented, according to their rank, with jewels, trinkets, and images. Women in general are allowed to appear in public, and to converse freely with the men, without any of those restrictions to which Turkish women are commonly subject. The women of superior condition are not so guarded in their conduct; but those of inferior rank are in general faithful to their husbands and they also willingly submit to the mean and more laborious offices of domestic life. It is their business to grind corn for the family, which they perform daily by means of hand-mills.

Although we read in the accounts of the Jesuits, says Mr. Bruce, a great deal about marriage and polygamy, there is nothing which may be averred more truly than that there is no such thing as marriage in Abyssinia, unless it be that which is contracted by mutual consent, without other form, subsisting only till it is dissolved by the dissent of one or the other, and to be renewed or repeated as often as it is agreeable to both parties. There is no such distinction as legitimate or illegitimate children, in any class of Abyssinian society.

The Abyssinians neither eat nor drink with strangers; and they break or purify every vessel which has been used by them. They eat raw flesh, and even cut it from the living animal, according to Mr. Bruce, who tells us that, in the neighbourhood of Axum, he saw some men driving a cow before them. He afterwards found that they cut steaks from the higher part of the buttock: they then closed the wound by drawing the skin over it, and applied to it a cataplasm of clay. He represents this brutal mode of gratifying the appetite as a common and favourite practice: and Mr. Salt's statement does not fully invalidate the report; for, though he says that the animal is previously killed, and not suffered to live in a mangled condition for future feasts, he admits that the raw flesh is greedily devoured, while the fibres are quivering with the remains of life.

CHIEF TOWNS.—Gondar, the metropolis of Abyssinia, is situated upon a hill of considerable height; and the population is said to be about 10,000 families in time of peace. The houses are chiefly of clay, and the roofs are thatched in the form of a cone, which is the usual construction within the tropical limits. On the west of the town is the king's house, which was a square building flanked with square towers: a great part of it is now in ruins, having been burned at different times; but there is still ample lodging in the lower part, the audience-chamber being above 70 feet long. The palace and contiguous buildings are surrounded by a substantial stone wall, 30 feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner.

Axum was formerly the capital of Abyssinia, and its ruins are now very extensive. In a square, which seems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obelisks, without hieroglyphics. One piece of granite, unwrought

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hara; that of Tigré, however, approaches nearest to the old Ethiopic, which has a considerable affinity to the Arabic, and is called *lesthone geez*, or the learned language, and is still used, not only in religious and other books, but also in public instruments and records.

HISTORY. — It is generally supposed that Abyssinia was colonized by the descendants of Cush; and it is said, that, when some generations had lived in caves, the increase of civilization prompted their posterity, in the days of Abraham, to build the city of Axum. The next colonists are called shepherds; but, as to them, or the former possessors of the country, we have no satisfactory information. There is reason to believe that a kingdom was formed very early in Abyssinia; but the people doubtless remained for ages in barbarism and ignorance; from which, indeed, they can scarcely be said to have yet emerged. It is stated by the pretended Abyssinian records, that Menilek, son of the queen of Sheba or Saba, whose visit to Solomon is a memorable scriptural incident, was contemporary with Sesac or Sesostris, the king of Egypt, by whom a considerable part of the realm was subdued. The disgraceful yoke, however, was shaken off by a subsequent prince; and even the Romans, in the meridian of their power, made little impression upon the Abyssinian territories. After the introduction of Christianity the people became in some degree more civilized; but it had not its full effect upon minds unprepared for its reception. In the meantime, the political independence of the realm continued, without any extraordinary respectability of moral character, either in the higher or lower classes.

After a series of obscure reigns, we hear of an Abyssinian expedition connected with what the Arabian historians call the War of the Elephant. It is affirmed, that an army invaded Arabia, under the conduct of Abrehа, who was mounted on a white elephant; that Mecca was besieged, on account of the rivalry between the pagan temple in that city and a religious structure founded by the Abyssinian king; and that the invaders suffered a disastrous defeat, which was followed by the loss of all the Arabian territories dependant upon their kingdom. But they compensated this loss by successive acquisitions in Africa, so as to attain a very considerable extent of dominion. The population of Abyssinia was occasionally augmented by the intolerant spirit of the Saracens, who, by harassing the Christians in Egypt, drove a great number into exile. A multitude of Jews, for the same reason, also settled in the kingdom. Some respectable princes arose at different times; and the government was sometimes disgraced by men of a different character. Amda Sion, who began to reign in 1312, was a brave and warlike prince. Zarah Jacob, who was contemporary with our Henry VI., was regarded by his admiring subjects as a second Solomon, and his conduct was deemed a model for kings; but, says Mr. Bruce, he was not

justly entitled to that high encomium; for he was so illiberal and inhuman, as to be the first prince who introduced religious persecution into the Abyssinian government: yet it ought to be added, that he at length checked himself in his career of injustice. In a subsequent reign, the Portuguese introduced themselves to the knowledge of the king, being desirous of inquiring into the means of instituting a commercial intercourse with the East Indies, and of ascertaining the supposed identity of Prester (or Presbyter) John with the Abyssinian prince. That pontifical character rather belonged to the grand lama of Thibet than to any African potentate; but, when the error was discovered, it did not prevent the formation of an alliance between the princes, though the Portuguese in vain endeavoured to convert the Abyssinians from the system of the Greek Church to Catholicism. Religious dissensions arose from this source, as both persuasions were supported by powerful parties; but these disputes were less injurious to the royal authority, than the ambition of provincial governors, or the wild ferocity of the Gallas and other rude tribes, which frequently convulsed the kingdom with civil war. Even in our times, that has been the occasional state of affairs, and the result has been the breaking up the Abyssinian empire into several independent and mutually hostile kingdoms.

NUBIA has been sometimes, but erroneously, considered as a part of the Abyssinian empire. It is divided into Upper and Lower Nubia, the former of which is denominated Sennaar. Dongola, the capital of Lower Nubia, is a large and pleasant town, though ill built. A king of Dongola is mentioned by Mr. Waddington, who also speaks of Tombol, the king of Nubia, and says that he was introduced to both those princes. The latter is guarded by half-naked barbarians, and is scarcely more enlightened than the lowest of his people. T general are ill clad, and the majo women are content with a wrapper waist. The people of the north complexions, expressive features, curled black hair, not woolly; whil the south approach more nearly to aspect. Their characters are not mable, and little dependance can be their honour or humanity.

The valley which is intersected by continues, after passing the southern of Egypt, to be confined on one side declivities, and on the other by precipi nite, for many miles; but it afterward and not only exhibits pleasing traces vation, but curious vestiges of antiq Ouseddouni and Taifa, Captain Light d the remains of some Christian church primitive model. At the former place a Nubian chief; but the country, in his displayed few traces of law or gov He did not proceed so far as Mr. Wad who, soon after he had reached E ground untrodden by modern footsteps at the Pass of the Water's Mouth, w was astonished at the grandeur and d with the variety of the scenery, and in gress discovered two temples and ma nids, at El-Berkel and Bellal, which sidered as more ancient than those o In one of the former buildings some pedestals were exceedingly well ac and, in the chambers of the other tem walls were curiously ornamented.

In 1820, Nubia was invaded by Meh of Egypt, who conquered Lower Nub has since remained in his possession, reduced the ruler of Sennaar to a sta salage. He likewise made himself t Kordofan, a country of considerabl which is situated between Sennaar an

INTERIOR COUNTRIES OF AFRICA.

As it had long been a subject of regret, that Europeans had a scanty knowledge of the interior of Africa, a number of individuals formed themselves, in 1788, into a society for the encouragement of discovery; and a committee of its members soon made choice of two persons, who seemed to be eminently qualified for explorers. One was Mr. Ledyard; the other, Mr. Lucas.

Mr. Ledyard undertook the perilous task of traversing from east to west, in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. When he reached Grand Cairo, he transmitted such accounts to his employers as manifested him to be well qualified for his task; and, such was the information which he collected there from slave and others, respecting the interior that he was impatient to proceed. that his next communication wou Sennaar; but death arrested his the outset.

Mr. Lucas embarked from Tripo structions to proceed over the deser but, as instructions for great ent more easily given than executed graphical missionary was able to execution only a small part of the set out, in 1789, with some native the party proceeded southward; b arose on the fifth day of the journ reported proximity of a band of r

he progress of the adventurers, who, returning, contented themselves with the intelligence which they procured ers, respecting Fezzan and the more countries.

mann, a German adventurer, more per- than Lucas, found an opportunity of Fezzan, the largest oasis of the Sahara, ny with a party of traders from Egypt. ople," he says, "are of an ordinary sta- ir complexions are a deep brown; their k and short, and their noses less flat se of negroes. Their limbs are far ing muscular; and their mien, walk, ry motion and gesture, denote a want y either of mind or body. Their dress of a shirt or frock, made of a coarse cotton cloth brought from Cairo, and oollen cloth of their own manufacture, bbe. Persons of the middle class wear of dyed blue cloth. The richer people, Mamelukes of the sultan, are clothed Tripoline habit; over which they wear an shirt of variegated pattern and co- nd likewise the abbe. The ornamental ions of dress are chiefly confined to the eas, and to rings on the arms and legs. of a higher class divide their hair into r tresses, to which they fix pieces of d amber, and little silver bells. They ten to the top of the head, silver cords, with a number of silver rings, hanging h side toward the shoulder. The females wear merely a string of glass and curl their hair above the forehead ge ringlets, into which is stuffed a paste f lavender, caraway-seeds, cloves, pep- stich, and laurel-leaves, mixed up with he women generally have a great fond- r dancing; and the wanton manners and freedoms in which, although Moham- , they are permitted to indulge, astonish slem traveller. The men are addicted kenness. Their beverage is the fresh the date-tree, or an intoxicating drink d from dates.

ommerce of Fezzan is considerable, as uk, its capital, which contains about abitants, is a depôt for the productions nmodities of Egypt, Tripoli, Bornou, dan. The houses are constructed of d have flat roofs, formed of the boughs over which earth is spread. The peo- t of the number of walled towns in untry, elevating the amount to 109. , formerly the capital of a prince who the eastern part of Fezzan, is famous anufacture of carpets, which are said rly equal to those of Constantinople. ann estimates the population of Fezzan 0,000 to 75,000.

is governed by a sultan descended family of the sherifs. His power is ; but he pays a tribute to the pasha . The throne is hereditary; but the es not, in all cases, descend from father to son: the eldest prince of the royal family succeeds, or perhaps a nephew, in preference to a younger son. This custom frequently occasions contest and bloodshed. The sultan's palace is situated within the castle of Moursouk, where he lives with no other inmates than the eunuchs who wait on him. His haram, occupied by a sultana and about 40 slaves, is contiguous: he never enters it; but the female whom he at any time wishes to see, is conducted to his apartment. On days of state and ceremony, his apparel consists of a large white frock or shirt of stuff, brocaded with silver and gold, or of satin, interwoven with silver. Under this frock he wears the ordinary dress of the Tripolines: but the most remarkable appearance is that of his turban, which, from the fore to the hinder part, extends a full yard, and is not less than two-thirds of a yard in breadth. His revenues arise from a tax on cultivated lands, duties on foreign trade paid by the caravans, from royal domains, and predatory expeditions.

To the south and west of Fezzan, the Tuarek tribes are dispersed over an immense space. They are Mahometans, but are not bigoted or intolerant. They are of an erratic description, and evince a free independent spirit. They are stouter than the wild Arabs, and have fairer complexions than the Fezzanese; and the women, in particular, are lively and animated. To the south and south-east of Fezzan dwell the Tibboo tribes—a gay and good-humoured, but timid race, whose capital is Bilma, and who are constantly suffering from the predatory incursions of their Tuarek neighbours. To the southward of these tribes commences the vast country of Soudan, or Nigritia, which extends from Senegambia, and contains several considerable states.

The travels of Mungo Park, in 1796, opened various countries to the knowledge of Europeans. Having passed through the territory of Wooli, which is diversified with hills, dales, and woods, and cultivated beyond his expectations, he reached the kingdom of Bondou, inhabited by Foulah tribes. This country appeared to him to be remarkably fertile, and the people pleased him by their mildness and civility. Major Gray, who visited Bondou subsequently, gives a fuller account of this region and its inhabitants; and he says, "The face of the country is in general mountainous, but particularly so in the northern and eastern parts. Those mountains, which are chiefly composed of rock, are small, and for the most part thinly covered with low stunted wood. The valleys, wherein are situated the towns and villages, are for the most part cleared for the purpose of cultivation, to which the soil, being a light sand mixed with brown vegetable mould, seems well adapted. Innumerable beds of torrents intersect these valleys in all directions, and serve during the rains, being dry at all other times, to conduct the water collected by the high grounds to the Faleme and Sene-

gal. Great numbers of tamarinds and baobabs, and of the rhamnus, lotos, and other fruit-trees, are beautifully scattered over these valleys, which are rendered still more picturesque by the frequent appearance of a village or walled town, in whose vicinity are always a number of cotton and indigo plantations."

"The people of Bondou," says the Major, "are of the middle size, well made, and very active; their skin is of a light copper colour, and their faces are of a form approaching nearer to those of Europe than any of the other tribes of Western Africa, the Moors excepted. The hair too is not so short or woolly as that of the black, and their eyes are, with the advantage of being larger and rounder, of a better colour, and more expressive. The women in particular, who, without the assistance of art, might vie, in point of figure, with those of the most exquisitely fine forms in Europe, are of a more lively disposition and more delicate form of face, than either the Serrawollies, Mandingoes, or Joloffs. They are extremely neat in their persons and dress, and are very fond of amber, coral, and glass beads of different colours, with which they profusely adorn their heads, necks, wrists, and ancles; gold and silver, too, are often formed into small buttons, which are intermixed with the former on the head, and into rings and chains worn on the wrists and ancles. They always wear a veil thrown loosely over the head: this is manufactured by themselves from cotton, and is intended to imitate thin muslin, at which they have not by any means made a bad attempt. The other parts of their dress, with few exceptions of silk and printed cotton which they obtained from the coast, are entirely of their own manufacture."

In the territory of Kayaaga, the air and climate are more pure and salubrious than at any of the settlements near the coast: the country exhibits a pleasing variety of hills and valleys, and the windings of the Senegal, which descends from the rocky hills of the interior, make the scenery on its banks very picturesque. The inhabitants are attached to commerce, and their government is a despotic monarchy.

In the kingdom of Kasson, the number of towns and villages, and the extensive cultivation around them, surpassed everything which Mr. Park had previously seen in Africa. A gross calculation might be formed of the number of inhabitants in this delightful plain, from the fact, that the king of Kasson could raise 4000 fighting men by the sound of his war-drum.

At Kemmoo, the capital of Kaarta, he had an audience of the king, who advised him to return to Kasson, telling him that it was not in his power to afford him much assistance, as all kind of communication between Kaarta and Bambarra had been interrupted by a war. He resolved, however, to continue his journey; and, in his progress, he sent presents to Ali, king of Ludamar, requesting pass through his territories. afterwards, one of Ali's slave instructions, as he pretended, as far as Goomba; but, before h he was seized by a party of M veyed him to Benoum. The him a prisoner more than three during the confusion which en quence of the success of the l who had invaded the country, h to regain his liberty. His joy he tells us, it is impossible to he soon found that his real sit tressful in the extreme: he was a barren wilderness; and, aft long time, exposed to the burn sun, which was reflected with d from the hot sand, his sufferi became so intolerable, that he sand, and expected the immedi death. Nature, however, resu tions: he continued his perecrin length beheld the Niger. "I "with infinite pleasure, the grea mission—the long-sought for, n glittering to the morning sun, a Thames at Westminster, and flo the eastward. I hastened to th having drunk of the water, lifted thanks in prayer to the Great things, for having thus far crown vours with success." Having set disputed point, he proceeded to t tal of Bambarra, which he thr "Sego, properly speaking, cons tinct towns; two on the northe Niger, and two on the southern surrounded with high mud wa are built of clay, of a square roofs; some of them have t many of them are white-washe buildings, Moorish mosques a quarter; and the streets, tho broad enough for every use country where wheel-carria unknown. From the best make, I have reason to belie tains above 30,000 inhabita this extensive city, the num the river, the crowded popu tivated state of the sur formed a prospect of civil ficence which I little exp bosom of Africa."

But, when he had advan gress was unfortunately pical rains, the low state other difficulties; and he vels to the eastward, "as Rennell, "more than si Cape Verd, and precisely The line of distance ar ence of longitude is a miles, or 1090 British, tremity of Africa; a

s of the desired station, Tim-
eyond what any other Euro-
to have reached."
ey of exploration was under-
rk, in 1805, at the request of
try. With a party of soldiers
of Goree, and a few artificers,
d his adventurous course to
sed through the sylvan wilder-
crossed the Falemé, reached
Dindikoo, and beheld with
ges romantically built in the
ns of Konkodoo: but, when
the Niger, his prospect was
nous. Of thirty-eight men
anied him, all but seven had
fatigue and indisposition;
iffering from severe sickness.
canoes to convey his party to
ent forward the interpreter
of the presents, to Mansong,
barra, to obtain the protection
, and permission to build a
ose of continuing the voyage
For some days, while the
absent, Park laboured under
consequence of the unfavour-
ch reached him. His fears,
t length dissipated by the
enger from Mansong, with a
ome. He therefore set for-
way was met by Isaco, who
was something mysterious in
Mansong. In fact, the ruler
begun to feel suspicion and
urpose of the traveller's visit.
a feeling, that he sent Modi-
minister, to meet Park at
why he had come to Bam-
at a train from such a distant
ly of Park was judicious and
u know," said he, "that the
a trading people, and that all
ue which the Moors and the
ring to Sego, are made by us.
a good gun—who made it?
We sell them to the Moors;
them to Timbuctoo, where
a higher rate; the people of
em to the people of Jenné at
ce; and the people of Jenné
u." These arguments and
revailed, and Park received
ld a boat at any one of four
ing was the place which he
large and flourishing town,
market, and an active com-
fter considerable difficulty,
ere converted into a schooner,
e the name of the Joliba.
occupied, he lost his brother-
son, to whom he was warmly
party was now reduced to
one of whom was deranged.
as he to persevere, that he
persist in tracing the course
of the Niger, though he were left alone, and half dead.

On the 17th of November, 1805, he set out on his voyage, which he called "turning his face towards England." But England he was doomed to see no more. A long time elapsed before any tidings of him reached his native country. At length, melancholy intelligence of him was obtained. It appears that, when Park quitted Samsanding, he had increased his party to nine, he having hired Amadi Fatouma as an interpreter, and purchased three slaves. He continued his voyage prosperously for an immense distance down the river, passing Silla, Jenné, Kabra, Timbuctoo, Kaffo, and other places, meeting with no opposition except attacks from individuals at Kabra and Timbuctoo, which were repelled by a smart fire of musketry. At Yoouri he landed Amadi, the interpreter, whose services ended at that place. Amadi was instantly summoned before the king, who complained bitterly that the white men had passed by without making him any presents. To avenge this slight, the savage ruler put Amadi into irons, and sent a body of troops in pursuit of the voyagers. These troops reached, sooner than the vessel, a place called Boussa, where the river is so hemmed in with rocks that only a narrow channel is left; and there they took post. On his arrival, Park, nevertheless, resolved to make good his passage. "The people began to attack him, throwing lances, pikes, arrows, and stones. He defended himself a long time, when two of his slaves at the stern of the vessel were killed. The crew threw everything they had into the river, and kept firing; but, being overpowered by numbers and fatigue, unable to keep up the boat against the current, and seeing no probability of escaping, Mr. Park took hold of one of the white men, and jumped into the water. Others did the same, and they were all drowned in the stream in attempting to escape. The only slave that remained in the schooner, seeing the natives persist in throwing weapons into it without ceasing, stood up, and said to them, 'Stop throwing now; you see nothing in the canoe, and nobody but myself; therefore cease. Take me and the canoe, but don't kill me.' They took possession of both, and carried them to the king." Thus perished the adventurous traveller, when he was on the eve of solving the long-disputed problem as to the termination of the course of the Niger.

With respect to the far-famed city of Timbuctoo, so long the object of anxious research, a scanty portion of information has at length been obtained. It appears, from Leo Africanus, that, in the year 1215, a kingdom was founded at Timbuctoo by a Moorish chief; that some of its rulers were warlike princes, and extended their frontiers in all directions; that they had a splendid court, encouraged commerce, and made their country flourish. When the Portuguese were prosecuting their career of African discovery, they received pompous accounts of

educated Frenchman, M. Caillé, succeeded in reaching Timbuctoo; and his narrative puts an end to the delusion respecting the riches and magnitude of this imaginary African emporium. He describes it as being about three or four miles in circuit, unwalled, containing at most from 10,000 to 12,000 inhabitants, and situated some miles from the Niger, on an immense plain of yellowish-white sand. It draws all its supplies from Jenné. It has a port, three miles off, called Kabra, which consists of mud huts, and stands on a creek that communicates with the Niger.

Before public curiosity was excited by either of Park's journeys, a considerable kingdom was discovered by Mr. Browne. From Egypt he went with the traders to the south-west, in 1793, and reached DAR-FUR. The dimensions of this country cannot be precisely stated; but its situation is between Kordofan and Bergou, or Waday, to the west of Abyssinia. It is in many parts covered with wood. During the dry season, the appearance of the land is sterile; but the rains which fall here for three months from the middle of June, in greater or less quantity, suddenly invest the face of the country with a delightful verdure. The tame animals are camels, horses, sheep, oxen, and dogs; the wild ones, lions, leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals, and elephants, which, in the places they frequent, go, according to report, in large herds of 400 or 500. The population of the country Mr. Browne estimated at 200,000 souls; Kobbeh, the capital, he thought, did not contain more than 6000 inhabitants. This town is more than

is also the chief merchan
dispatches with every ca
of his own commodities.

The misfortunes of M
panions did not deter the
attempts to explore the in
tain Tuckey undertook t
the Zair or Congo river, i
another party, which, un
designed to follow the
When the captain and
reached Shark-Point, the
visitants from Embomm
readiness of the chief to
prise: but this was a me
did not appear that he h
comprehend the nature
dition; for he thought
only come to make war,
trading. While the pa
neighbourhood, it was ob
objects of culture were
bacco; that sugar-canes
glected, and salt was an
the cotton plant grew wil
fermented liquor was a
tree; and that agricultu
formed entirely by female
navigation was so obstruc
ledges of rocks, that the
ceed; and the rugged n
prevented the party fro
land to where the river
navigable. Marching o
through deep ravines, t
reached a point at which

Lyon did not even reach the extre-
:zzan; but Hornemann proceeded as
: southward as the 10th degree of
latitude: yet, as his progress to that
ough undoubted) has not been speci-
scribed, all the credit of the recent
on is due to Major Denham and Cap-
perton, who reached Musfeia, which
l about 9 degrees north of the equator.
sed from Tripoli, through Fezzan and
desert, to the Tibboo territory, and
: near Bilma, the capital, by the sul-
t 50 spear-men, and 100 women, who
hemselves and the strangers by singing
:ing. The town is in a hollow, and is
ed by low walls of mud; the inhabi-
: poorly lodged, and scantily furnished
necessaries of life, though they carry
le in salt, which they find in the neigh-
lakes. They are well made, but not
ve sharp copper-coloured faces, large
d flat noses; they are lively and active,
so bold or courageous as the Tuareks
rabs.

ng in the Kanem territory, a province
mpire of Bornou, the strangers rested
own consisting of circular rush-built
the best of which are two apartments,
by mat-work, for each sex. For a long
ey had not been accustomed to the
trees; but they now found themselves
ll-wooded country. At length they
Kouka, where the emperor, who is
ie Sheik of Spears, then resided. By
ce they were honoured with a favour-
ption.

u lies between the 10th and 15th degrees
itude, and the 12th and 18th degrees of
ude. To the eastward it is bounded
ke Tchad, which covers several thou-
uare miles of country, and contains
habited islands. From March to the
ne, the heat of the climate is exces-
: thermometer frequently rising to 107
except a few hours before daylight,
inks to 86 degrees. In May there are
empests, and the lightning is particu-
structive. In July, almost continual
:ur, and the lakes and rivers overflow
at extent. The winter, which is the
reeable season, commences in October,
cool breezes then restore health and
to the people, who suffer severely
he damp weather from fevers and agues,
arry off great numbers in every year.

eing very industrious, the Bornouese
sufficiently profit by the fertility which
il possesses in many parts. Yet they
me wheat, barley, maize, rice, a great
y of millet, (the chief food of the com-
ple,) and four species of beans. Their
plement of husbandry is an ill-shaped
de from iron found in the mountains
ara; and the labours of their wretched
are devolve almost entirely on the wo-
Most of their grain is reaped within two or three months of its being scattered on the earth; for the operation can scarcely be called sowing. Cotton and indigo grow wild; and the latter is of a superior quality. Fruit-trees are very scarce, and their produce is far from being excellent. The people attend more to the rearing of cattle than to agriculture. The beasts of burden chiefly used are the ox and the ass. Only persons of opulence and distinction have camels in their possession. "The game," says the major, "is abundant, and consists of antelopes, gazelles, hares, an animal about the size of a red deer, with annulated horns, called koorigum, partridges very large, small grouse, wild ducks, geese, snipes, and the ostrich, the flesh of which is much esteemed. Pelicans, spoonbills, the Balearic crane, in great numbers, with a variety of other large birds of the crane species, are also found in the marshes. The woods abound with the Guinea fowl. The wild animals are the lion, which in the wet season approaches the walls of the towns; panthers, and a species of tiger-cat, in great numbers, in the neighbourhood of Mandara; the leopard, the hyena, the jackal, the civet cat, the fox, hosts of monkeys, black, gray, and brown, and the elephant—the last so numerous as to be seen near the Tchad in herds of from fifty to four hundred. This noble animal they hunt, and kill for the sake of his flesh, as well as the ivory of his tusk. The buffalo, the flesh of which is a delicacy, has a high game flavour. The crocodile and the hippopotamus are also numerous, and the flesh of both is eaten. That of the crocodile is extremely fine: it has a green firm fat, resembling the turtle, and the callipee has the colour, firmness, and flavour of the finest veal. The giraffe is seen and killed by the buffalo hunters, in the woods and marshy grounds near the Tchad. The insects and reptiles consist of scorpions, centipedes, and disgusting large toads, serpents of several kinds, and a snake said to be harmless, of the Congo kind, some times measuring fourteen feet in length."

Many of the towns are surrounded by thick walls; "and the houses of the higher class," says Major Denham, "more particularly at Kouka, have several court-yards, about which are rooms for slaves: they have also an interior court, leading to the habitations of the different wives, who have, respectively, a square walled space and a thatched hut. Thence a staircase leads to the apartments of the gentleman himself, which consist of two buildings like turrets, with a terrace of communication between them, affording a view into the street from a castellated window. The walls are made of reddish clay, as smooth as stucco, and the roofs are tastefully arched with branches, and thatched with a species of grass. The horns of the antelope serve as substitutes for nails or pegs, and on them are hung quivers, bows, spears, and shields. Huts of mud, straw, and matting, without chimneys or windows, are the wretched lodgings of the people in

general. They sleep on mats, or on rushes, and they cover their beds, which are sometimes elevated on six or more poles or posts, with the skins of various animals. Their most common utensils are well-made earthen pots and wooden bowls: they drink water (their only beverage) out of a large gourd. They have no coin in use, their circulating medium being strips of cotton. Of conversation they are so fond, that they meet in the evening, either in the court-yard of some great house, or under the shade of mats in the open places of the town, where prayers are said at certain hours, by the imam. Among their amusements they have a game resembling chess, which they play with beans, making twelve holes in the sand for that purpose. The Arabs have a game similar to this; but they are far from being such skilful players as the Bornouese.

The people of Bornou, (properly so called, as the empire contains several subject nations,) have large unmeaning faces, with the usual Negro nose, mouths of great dimensions, good teeth, and high foreheads. "They are in general peaceable," says the major, "quiet, and civil; they salute each other with courteousness and warmth; and there is a remarkable good-natured heaviness about them, which is interesting." He adds, that they are extremely timid, and no warriors; yet it appears that the sheik has profited in no small degree by their military services.

The women are almost as ugly as the men; and their custom of tattooing does not increase their attractions to strangers; for they have 20 cuts or lines on each side of the face, one on the forehead, six on each of their arms, legs, and thighs, four on each breast, and nine on each hip: nor do they dress their hair in a becoming manner; for it is brought over the top of the head in three or more thick rolls, covered with bees'-wax and tinged with indigo—a dye which they also use for their eyebrows, hands, arms, feet, and legs, while they give the red tint of henna to their nails and their palms. Though their appearance is not handsome or elegant, they have two good qualities: they are "particularly cleanly," and also the "most humble of females, never approaching their husbands except on their knees, or speaking to any of the male sex otherwise than kneeling with the head and face covered; and, when summoned to the matrimonial bed, they invariably enter at the foot." Such modest and obedient women, we may suppose, do not often deviate into adultery. From that species of criminality they are indeed strongly deterred by the rigours of capital punishment; and unmarried women of loose characters are also sometimes hanged or strangled by the rigid inhumanity of the arbitrary sheik.

The Bornouese, even of the higher class, rarely have more than two or three wives at a time; and they divorce these at their pleasure, on restoring the dowry. Persons of inferior rank are, in general, content with one wife. Before marriage, both parties name an a[rbi]trator who, in case of subsequent disagreem[ent] sees justice done to the aggrieved individ[ual]. The matrimonial portion, among the r[ich] partly consists of slaves; and it is remarka[ble] that when the sheik espoused the daughter a neighbouring prince, the dowry was fixed the produce of an expedition which was to undertaken by the forces of the allied barb[a]rians; and the result was, that about 30 wretches were dragged from their homes b[y] the ruffian marauders, and sold as slaves.

The usual dress of a Bornouese man consists of one, two, or three tobes, or garments re[s]sembling shirts, according to the means of the wearer; and the women appear in a cotton or linen turkadi or wrapper, drawn tightly round the body, and reaching from the bosom to the knees, or lower down: when a second is w[orn] it is flung over the head and shoulders. A m[an] of rank wears a cap, while the generality of the people go about bare-headed. The m[en] keep the head free from hair, while the wom[en] encourage its growth. Both sexes wear sandals some of leather, others of the undressed hide.

There is no regular code of law in the empire and consequently much depends on the will of the sovereign. All who are guilty of murder are put to death; but thieves, even if their depredations should be frequent and considerable, are not so severely punished as in Great Britain, where, for a long period, without regard to good sense or to humanity, one who robbed another to a certain, and even a small amount, was dismissed from the world by the remorseless vengeance of the law. "Repeated thefts," says Mr. Denham, "are punished by the loss of a hand, or by burying the young Spartan, if he be a beginner, with only his head above ground, well buttered or honeyed, and so exposing him, for twelve or eighteen hours, to the torture of a burning sun, and innumerable flies and mosquitoes, who all feast on his undisturbed. These punishments are, however, often commuted for others of a more lenient kind. Even the judge himself has a strong fellow-feeling for a culprit of this description. When a man refuses to pay his debts, and has the means, on a creditor pushing his claim, the cadi takes possession of the debtor's property, pays the demand, and takes a handsome per-centage for his trouble. It is necessary, however, that the debtor should give his consent; but this is not long withheld, as he is pinioned and laid on his back until he is glowing for all which trouble and restiveness he pays handsomely to the cadi; and they seldom find that a man gets into a scrape of this kind twice. On the other hand, should a man be in debt, and unable to pay, on clearly proving his poverty, he is at liberty. The judge then says, 'God send you the means!' the bystanders say, 'Amen!' and the insolvent has full liberty to trade where he pleases. But if, at any future time, his creditors catch him with even two tobes on, or a red cap, on taking him before the

superfluous habiliments are stripped
given towards the payment of his

iterature we cannot say much. The
is a mixture of Arabic with some
alects, and the government clerks or
ake use of Arabic characters. The
general, do not trouble themselves
reading or writing, except that they
f cabalistic papers, or written charms,
to procure benefit or avert evil, they
erstitious as to place great confidence.
duct and exploits of the present ruler
ought not to pass without notice. He
in Fezzan, and, after visiting Egypt,
to the Kanem territory, of which his
ere natives, and was there respected
s sheik, and as a moral and upright
serving, with disgust and indignation,
olence of the Fellatahs, a nation of
rigin, in Bornou, he boldly advanced
hem, and obtained such advantages
d him to acquire the chief sway. He
ced on the throne the brother of a
ltan, reserving to himself the chief
, like the peishwa in the chief Mah-
cipality. He added other territories
, and was engaged in a new war when
ited by the British adventurers. His
ncipally consists of cavalry, and is
to amount to 30,000 men, while his
can scarcely be said to exceed 10,000.
f officers, as well as his own guard,
ely-linked jackets of iron, with scarfs
.

rful neighbouring prince is the sultan
ARA, whose people are intelligent and
th large sparkling eyes, wiry curled
noses inclining to the aquiline form.
rassed by the active hostility of the
, he found, against their attacks, so
nce from the walls of his chief town,
built the town of Mora in a moun-
pot of great natural strength. He is
asionally molested by the Kerdies,
bes almost surround his dominions.
fications by which he endeavours to
s country consist of palisades, 6 feet
l pointed, and fastened together with
raw hide. These palisades extend
hill to another.

a is a fine country. The scenery is
utiful; lofty peaks appear with cluster-
es on their stony sides: even some of
a have an elevation superior to that
rt of the Bornou territory, and abound
t-trees, aromatic plants, and flowers.
extend, east and west, in apparently
able ridges, and, to the south, rocky
s spread themselves in almost every
le picturesque form. Iron abounds
lls; and hinges, small bars, hoes, and
ful articles, are not only made for the
e use of the Mandarese, but are sent
o Bornou.

of the lake Tchad is the kingdom of Loggoun. Its capital, Kernouk, stands on the banks of the Shari, has high walls, and contains a population of about 15,000. The principal street is very wide, and has large houses on each side, built with great uniformity, each having a court-yard in front, and a handsome entrance by a strong door hasped with iron. The people are more intelligent and industrious than the Bornouese, and the women, in particular, are very lively and agreeable. Several branches of manufacture are carried on by both sexes with great spirit and success. They make neat tobes or shirts of linen, to which they give a fine gloss; and to their cotton they impart that deep blue dye which is admired by the African tribes.

On the frontiers of this country, and in many other parts of Central Africa, the Shouaas are found in great numbers. They are apparently of Arabian descent, but have scarcely any resemblance to the Arabs of Northern Africa. They have fine open countenances, aquiline noses, and large eyes; their complexion is a light copper colour; they unite great cunning with courage, are great charm-writers, and, by pretending to a natural gift of prophecy, find an easy entrance into the houses of the black inhabitants of the towns, where they often manifest their pilfering propensities. They bear, indeed, a strong resemblance, both in features and habits, to the gypsies of England.

Eager for additional exploration, the British adventurers directed their course to the kingdom of Houssa, in the territory of Soudan. In their way to it they visited the province of Katagoum, subject to Bornou. The city of that name was the strongest they had seen since they left Tripoli; and some of its houses, though built of clay, were superior to any which they had seen in Central Africa. The fields and villages also exhibited appearances of industry and comfort. Houssa likewise smiled with cultivation; the markets in the towns were well supplied, and trade appeared to be brisk. Kano, the great emporium of the kingdom, appeared to contain above 30,000 inhabitants. The governor's mansion resembled a walled village, and within the enclosure was a mosque. Many of the houses, which in general were built of clay, were neat, clean, and commodious. "The market-place," says Captain Clapperton, "is filled with stalls of bamboo, laid out in regular streets. Here are displayed scissors and knives of native workmanship; crude antimony and tin, both the produce of the country; unwrought silk of a red colour, which the people make into belts and slings, or weave in stripes with cotton into the finest tobes; beads of glass, coral, and amber; bracelets of brass, rings of pewter, and a few silver trinkets; sword-blades from Malta; tobes, turkadis, and turban shawls; coarse woollen and calico; Moorish dresses; pieces of Egyptian linen, checked, or striped with gold; French writing-paper, brought from Barbary; and many other articles of traffic."

A market for slaves of both sexes, another for all sorts of corn and fruit, and one also for cattle, are holden near the same spot, numerously attended, and admirably regulated.

In this town and neighbourhood, "the unmarried girls, whether slaves or free, and likewise the young unmarried men, wear a long apron of blue and white check, with a notched edging of red woollen cloth. It is tied with two broad bands, ornamented in the same way, and hanging down behind to the ancles. This fashion is peculiar to Soudan, and forms the only distinction in dress from the people of Bornou. Both men and women colour their teeth and lips with the flowers of the gourji (a dwarfish kind of oak) and of the tobacco plant. These flowers give a blood-red tinge, which is here thought a great beauty. Snuff, instead of being taken in our way, is chewed by both sexes in Soudan, and only by the men in Bornou. Smoking is the general practice of the men, while the women are debarred from it."

Proceeding to Sackatoo, the chief town in the territory of Bello, sultan of the Fellatahs, king of Houssa, and the most powerful prince in Soudan, the captain was delighted with the appearance of the country, some parts of which reminded him of English parks. He had several friendly conferences with the sultan, whom he found willing to form an amicable connexion with Great Britain, and who requested that a consul and a physician might be sent to reside among his people.

"Sackatoo," says the captain, "occupies a long ridge which slopes gently toward the north, and is apparently more populous than any other town which I visited in the interior of Africa; for, unlike most other towns in Houssa, where the houses are thinly scattered, it is laid out in regular well-built streets. The houses approach close to the walls, which were built by the present sultan in 1818, the old walls being too confined for the increasing population. The new wall is between 20 and 30 feet high, and has twelve gates, which are regularly closed at sunset. There are two large mosques, besides several other places for prayer. There is a spacious market-place in the centre of the city, and another large square in front of the sultan's residence. The dwellings of the principal people are surrounded by high walls, which enclose numerous huts and flat-roofed houses, built in the Moorish style, whose large water-spouts of baked clay, projecting from the eaves, resemble at the first sight a tier of guns. The inhabitants are principally Fellatahs, a brave and active race, and possess numerous slaves, to whom they behave very kindly. Such of the latter as are not employed in domestic duties, reside in houses by themselves, where they follow various trades, of which the master, in course, reaps the profit. Their usual employments are weaving, house-building, shoe-making, and iron-work. Those who are occupied in raising grain and tending cattle, of which the Fellatahs have immense herds, reside in villages out of the city. It is customary for private individuals to free a number of slaves every year, according to their means, during the great feast after the close of Lent. The enfranchised seldom return to their native country, but continue to reside near their old masters, still acknowledging them as their superiors, and presenting them yearly with a portion of their earnings. In this town the necessaries of life are very cheap: butchers' meat is in great plenty, and very good. The exports are principally civet and blue check tobacco, which are manufactured by the slaves from Nyffi, of whom the men are considered the most expert weavers in Soudan, and the women the best spinners. The common imports are large nuts, brought from the borders of Ashantee; also coarse calico and woollen cloth in small quantities, brass and pewter dishes, and some few spices. The Arabs from Tripoli bring unwrought silk, perfumes, and spices: and slaves are both exported and imported. A great quantity of Guinea corn is taken every year by the Tuareks in exchange for salt. On the north side of the town there is a low marsh, with some stagnant pools; and this is perhaps the cause of the great prevalence of ague, as the city stands in a fine airy situation."

The following is the manner in which all classes of the Fellatahs are usually occupied. They rise at day-break, wash, and say their prayers, count their beads for about half-an-hour, and then chew a gora-nut, if they have any; after which they sip a quantity of [illegible]kie or furro-furrocoo, (preparations of [illegible] flowers, and milk or water.) About ten A.M. they have boiled rice served with a little melted butter. After this, they pay visits, or lounge in the shade, hear the news, say prayers, and count their beads, till sunset, when they take a meal of pudding, with a little stewed meat, or a few small fish. They then retire to rest. During the spring and harvest, the proprietors of estates ride out to their different slave villages, to look after their grain, cotton, or indigo plantations, or to the places where they have their cattle. The wives of the principal people, who all appear to keep up the number allowed by the Koran, are occupied in directing the female slaves in their work, cooking their husbands' food, cleaning and spinning cotton, and dressing their hair, teeth, eyebrows, and eyelashes; which take up no little time. They also take charge of sending the female slaves to market, to sell their spare cotton, grain, furro-furrocoo, millet, cakes fried in butter, and fried fish; the latter are usually caught by the younger male slaves. Much time is spent in paying and receiving visits; for they are great gossips, and are allowed more liberty than the generality of Mohammedan women.

The dress of the men is a red cap with a blue

hite turban, part of which, or brow and eyes; another fold nose, which covers the mouth down on the breast; a white ae breast, and short in the ilte tobe, and white trowsers, or green silk, and a pair of this is the dress of the greater hy inhabitants. When tra-r, over the turban, a broad-at, with a round low crown. affect great sanctity or learn-tobes and blue turbans over h the end hanging down er, a white check tobe, white and sandals. Some are con-aw hat only; but all wear a arried over the left shoulder. e a cloth, striped with blue, alling as low as the ancles; e ears, about an inch and a bracelets of horn, glass, brass, according to the quality of the e neck, beads and strings of und the ancles, brass, copper, etimes rings on the toes as he fashionable ornament is a oldered fast to a ring. The e pewter, brass, and copper is generally turned up like a of the head, with something anging down from each ex-efore the ears. Some of the have the hair frizzed out at d the head; others have the ur small plaits, going round ibbon or bandeau. This, and ts, are well smeared over with i. The razor is applied to n places, and to give a high the forehead; they thin the e line, which, with the eye-l with pounded lead ore: this g over them a pen that has his ore. The teeth are then a-nut, and a root of a shining hands and feet, the toe and stained red with henna. A d is fit to appear in the best king-glass is a circular piece 1 inch and a half in diameter, a box, and is often applied to. of the better sort of people e same manner as their mo-rrive at the age of nine or ten: have very little dress, except ron, scolloped or vandyked cloth, with two long broad round in the same manner, low as the heels behind. This e poorer sort of people, until s also of a great many of the es.

s are celebrated without any 'The bride, as far as I was in-ptain Clapperton, "is always consulted by her parents, but a refusal on her part is unknown. The poorer class of people make up matters much in the same way; that is, after having got the consent of one another, they ask their father and mother. The dowry given by a man of good condition with regard to riches, may be said to consist of young female slaves; carved and mounted calabashes or gourds, filled with millet, dourra, and rice; cloths for the loins; bracelets, and the equipage of her toilet; and one or two large wooden mortars for beating corn, &c., and stones for grinding, &c.;—even these are carried in procession on the heads of her female slaves, when she first goes to her husband's house."

They always bury their dead behind the house which the deceased occupied while living. The following day, all the friends and relations of the deceased visit the head of the family, and sit a while with the bereaved party. If the husband dies, the widow returns to the house of her parents, with the property she brought with her.

The readiness which Sultan Bello had expressed, to open a commercial intercourse with England, induced the British government, in 1825, to send a mission to Sockatoo, his capital. Captain Clapperton was the person selected, and he was accompanied by Captain Pearce, an excellent draughtsman, Dr. Morrison, a navy surgeon, and Richard Lander, a faithful and intelligent attendant. It was arranged that the travellers should proceed to the Gulf of Benin, as the nearest point to the kingdom of Houssa; and they were accordingly landed at Badagry, on the 7th of December. At their outset they were guilty of great imprudence, by sleeping for two nights in the open air; the result was, that, before three weeks had elapsed, Pearce and Morrison were dead, and Clapperton himself was suffering from ague. He, however, pursued his way, accompanied only by Lander, and a black named Pascoe, whom he had hired at Badagry.

The country through which the travellers began their journey was the kingdom of YARIBA, which lies to the east of Dahomey. They found it thickly peopled, by a cheerful and industrious race, and generally well cultivated; and they were received with kindness and respect. In their way to Eyeo, or Katunga, the capital, they passed through several considerable towns, in which various manufactures were carried on. Katunga, to which Clapperton was joyfully welcomed, is 15 miles in circumference, and has seven large markets; but in its circuit there are many fields and open spaces. A belt of thick wood runs round the walls, which are built of clay, and about 20 feet high, and surrounded with a dry ditch. Yariba is an extensive state, the king of which is despotic; but the government appears to have been mild and humane for a long period.

The kindness of the sable monarch was productive of some vexation to his white guest. Clapperton was eager to proceed, that he might

which [illegible]
while at Wawa, [illegible]
he was sorely embarrassed by [illegible]
portunities of two of the Wawa ladies, [illegible]
whom, Zuma, an Arab widow, who possessed
1000 slaves, and was so corpulent that she
looked like a huge water-cask, had first tried
Lander, and, finding him deaf to her blandish-
ments, had beset his master, and seemed deter-
mined to make him marry her. At length,
having shaken her off, and visited Boussa,
where Park lost his life, he arrived at Zaria,
the capital of Zegzeg, which is said to contain
a population of 50,000, from which he proceeded
to Kano, in the territory of Sultan Bello. As
Kano is midway between Sockatoo and Bornou,
the sultan of which latter country he was like-
wise to visit, he resolved to leave his baggage
here, and go on to Sockatoo with the presents
which were designed for the ruler of Houssa.
Clapperton arrived at an unpropitious mo-
ment. The mind of Sultan Bello had been
poisoned by assertions that the English, in-
stead of wishing for commerce, were planning
to seize upon Africa, in the same manner as
they had seized upon India. The sultan was
also embarrassed by an insurrection of two of
his provinces, and by a war with the king of
Bornou. His suspicions respecting the circum-
stance of Clapperton having among his baggage
of the English were heightened by the circum-
a present of six muskets for the Bornouese
ruler. In the interior of Africa, where muskets
are rare things, the six which the envoy had
brought were of as much importance as a large
arsenal would be in Europe. Bello, therefore,
possessed himself of these valuable
the letter from the British
Bornou. In vain,

course, and [illegible]
overtaken by four horsem[illegible]
Zegzeg had sent to bring him b[illegible]
remonstrated and entreated with
was compelled to return with
Curiosity, or the hope of obtai[illegible]
was probably the motive whic[illegible]
ruler of Zegzeg, though he a[illegible]
reason was to save the life
who would, he said, have be[illegible]
at Fundah, for having carried
Bello, with whom the king
war. After quitting Zaria,
to the coast, embarked there
land in April, 1828.

Notwithstanding the pe[illegible]
which must be encountere[illegible]
tude of which he was
Lander was honourably
attempt to reach the mo[illegible]
disinterested spirit, and
of favour with which th[illegible]
garded such enterprises
by the terms upon whic[illegible]
take this hazardous
amount of money and
sary for his journey, a[illegible]
his wife till he came
return, was all that
to receive. At his
was permitted to a[illegible]
services nothing w[illegible]

The Landers s[illegible]
January, 1830, rea[illegible]
ing month, and, a[illegible]
course tow[illegible]

its banks "embellished with mighty
id elegant shrubs, which were clad in
d luxuriant foliage, some of lively green,
ers of darker hues; and little birds
ging merrily among their branches.
cent festoons of creeping plants, always
ung from the tops of the tallest trees,
ooping to the water's edge, formed
e natural grottos."

nuing their course, the travellers reached
and of Zagoshi, where they exchanged
nall canoes for one which was larger
ore commodious. Zagoshi is about 15
long, and 3 miles wide, scarcely rising
the level of the river, and many of its
standing in the water. But it is thickly
d, by an industrious, obliging, and hospi-
race, who excel in manufacturing cotton
and trowsers, and caps of mixed silk and
n. Their ruler possesses 600 canoes; and
orce, and his insular situation, enables
o set his enemies at defiance. About two
from Zagoshi, on the left bank of the
is the city of Rabba, which is, in point of
the next Fellatah city of Sockatoo.

aitting Zagoshi, the voyagers were, in two
carried more than a hundred miles by
current, in an easterly direction. In this
ance the Niger was from two to six miles
adth, sometimes bordered by swamps, at
times by lofty mountains. It swarmed
river horses, the unwieldy gambols of
ich placed their fragile vessel in constant
ger. At Egga, a town 4 miles long, and 2
broad, the people crowded round to
ain a sight of them, and the aged chief
lared "that they were strange looking
ple, and well worth seeing." Here they
told that their future progress would be
lous, for that they would find only tribes
ted to robbery and murder. Undismayed,
ever, they pursued their way, touched at
ands, where the same story was repeated
em, and then went on till they reached a
3 or 4 miles broad, which joined the Niger
the eastward. This was the Tchadda. A
miles above the Tchadda, the Niger changes
urse from the eastward to the southward;
h course it retains.

e voyagers were now approaching towards
rmination of their arduous enterprise.
were now within a hundred leagues of
ean. Their perils, however, were not at
t. Once, at a place called Bocqua, their
was endangered by their being mistaken
emies; and at Kirrie, lower down the
hey were made prisoners, and narrowly
d death. In the latter case, they were
t to Eboe, a very large town, inhabited
runken and brutal population. There
ere ransomed by one of the chiefs who
n the coast, and who conveyed them to
the mouths of the river, whence they
led to Fernando Po. They reached
d in March, 1831 The veil of mystery,
ad so long hung over the Niger, Joliba,
or Quorra, was thus at length removed by the courage and perseverance of Richard Lander. This stream, which has a course of 2300 miles, enters the Gulf of Guinea by several mouths, which form an extensive delta between the bights of Biafra and Benin.

Commercial enterprise soon followed the path which was thus opened for it into the interior of Africa. A body of gentlemen, at Liverpool, formed a company, and fitted out two iron steamers, the one of 40, the other of 16-horse power, which were to be attended by a sailing-vessel of 200 tons, laden with goods. Richard Lander accepted an invitation to join this expedition, at the head of which was Mr. Laird, one of the planners of it. Lieutenant Allen, of the navy, was appointed by the Admiralty to survey the river. On the 16th of October, 1832, the little squadron reached the mouth of the river Nun, one of the outlets of the river which they were about to ascend. Sickness soon began to attack the adventurers, which increased in malignity as they passed among swamps, "covered with mangrove, cabbage, and palm-trees, whence the fen-damp rose in the morning cold and clammy, like the smoke of a wet wood fire." In a short time they lost nearly twenty of their number. From some unexplained cause, their progress was so slow, that they were a month in reaching Iddah, which is not more than 300 miles up the river. Above Iddah, the country in the vicinity of the Niger becomes mountainous and picturesque; there the sick began to recover. Near the confluence of the Tchadda with the Niger, the latter, says Mr. Laird, is "an immense river about 3000 yards wide, flowing majestically between its banks, which rise gradually to a considerable height, and are studded with clumps of trees and brushwood, giving them the appearance of a gentleman's park; while the smoke ascending from different towns on its banks, and the number of canoes floating on its bosom, gave it an aspect of security and peace far beyond any African scene I had yet witnessed."

In the hope of opening a beneficial trade at Fundah, the voyagers proceeded up the Tchadda, and Mr. Laird visited the ruler of that city. He found, however, that the sable monarch was more disposed to rob than to traffic; he was in danger during the whole stay, and would perhaps have been kept as a prisoner, or even murdered, had he not, by a clever stratagem, excited the superstitious fears of the monarch of Fundah. Shortly after his escape, he returned to England.

After his departure, Mr. Lander and Mr. Oldfield resolved to penetrate further up the Tchadda, in the expectation that it would lead them to Lake Tchad; an expectation which seems to have rested upon no solid grounds. The impossibility of procuring provisions compelled them, however, to desist, after they had gone a considerable distance. The voyagers next proceeded up the Niger to Rabba, which

contains about 40,000 inhabitants, and is the centre of a great trade with the neighbouring countries. The surrounding territory is very fertile, and abounds in grain, vegetables, and cattle. The ruler of the kingdom has an army of about 20,000 foot, and 5000 horse. He was little disposed to traffic with the voyagers, and expressed his opinion of them pretty freely to their African servant. He censured him for accompanying dogs and unbelievers, adding, "It is well known, that in their own country they eat black men, and dye red cloth with their blood. Besides, they know nothing—not even Allah; and, after death, they are our slaves in paradise."

The party now descended the Niger, and reached Fernando Po on the 3rd of November, 1833. Preparations were immediately made for Mr. Oldfield to reascend the river, while Lander went to Cape Coast for a supply of cowries. Oldfield retraced his course as far as the Tchadda, carried on some traffic with the natives, and then dropped down the stream again. While Oldfield was absent, Lander had returned from Cape Coast, and had been attacked by the people of Hyammah, and two neighbouring towns. Three of his men had been shot, and several wounded, and he himself had received a ball in the thigh, which ultimately terminated the existence of this worthy and enterprising individual. In November, Mr. Oldfield arrived at Falmouth.

Since that period, commerce has increased with this part of Africa, but no important addition has been made to our knowledge of the interior. An expedition, which was fitted out for the purpose of establishing a factory at a considerable distance up the Niger, and from which, both commercially and geographically, much was expected, has recently had a disastrous termination; the majority of the persons engaged in it having perished by disease.

THE WESTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

PROCEEDING southward from the frontiers of Morocco, we pass the western extremity of the Sahara or Desert, which extends from Biledulgerid over an immense space, in almost every direction. We may here observe, that, to the southward of the Algerine and Tunisian territories, a sandy and barren country, which few tribes inhabit, is called Biledulgerid, (either the Land of Dates, or the Dry Country:) it is not destitute of rivulets, and springs are found by digging; but it seldom rains, and the drought precludes the production of corn. The Sahara has been termed "a vast sea of lifeless sand," and also a "prodigious expanse of red sand and sand-stone rock;" and the interspersed oases are not very numerous or extensive. The tribes which occupy the country nearest to the western coast, are the Monselemines, Mongearts, Wadelims, Labdessebahs, and Trasarts, who extend nearly to the mouth of the river Senegal.

To the north of the Senegal, among the tribes just mentioned, and in the 18th degree of N. latitude, commences the country called SENEGAMBIA. Its southern boundary is in the 8th degree of N. latitude. Some geographers, however, limit it within narrower bounds on the south, and consider Sierra Leone as forming a part of Guinea; but we shall not adopt their line of demarcation. In longitude, Senegambia extends from the frontier of Bambarra, in 6½ degrees, to the Atlantic, in about 16½ degrees. The most easterly point is the angle formed by Cape Verd in 17½ degrees of E. longitude. This extensive territory is watered by several large rivers, which, as we proceed from north to south, occur in the following order:—the Senegal, the Gambia, the Cachen, the Jeba, the Rio Grande, the Nunhez, the Scarcies, which receives the Kobba in the lower part of its course, the Rokelle, and the Kasamanza. Of these, the Senegal, the Gambia, and the Rio Grande, are the chief. The principal divisions of Senegambia are the Yolof country, including the kingdoms or states of Cayor, Sim, Salum, Brack, or Wal, and Wanerore; Foota Toro, east of the Yolof country; Foota Bondoo, east of Foota Toro and Walli, and south of Galam; Kajaaga, or Galam, on the Senegal; Bambook, east of the Falemmé (which is one of the tributary streams of the Senegal, and south of Galam; Kasson, east of Kajaaga; Mandingo country, including Woolli, on the northern bank of the Gambia; Jallon-kadoo, or country of the Jallonkas; Foota Jallon, or kingdom of Teembo. Of these, Bambook is celebrated for the large quantity of gold which it produces, which has occasioned it to be called the Peru of Western Africa. A very large portion of Senegambia is mountainous, and thickly wooded, and the whole of the country is intensely hot. The Senegambian articles of export are gum, gold, ivory, bees'-wax, African teak, rice and maize, hides, palm oil, timber, horses and bullocks, tortoise-shell, and orchil. No European power has any territorial possession in this country, but the English, French, and Portuguese. Those of the English are mostly on the Gambia, the most important of which is Bathurst, on the island of St. Mary. The French have a settlement on the island of Goree, near Cape Verd, and others at St. Louis, Podhor, and Babel, on the Senegal. The Portuguese factories, of which

the leading one is Bissao, are dispersed along the banks of the Rio Grande and the Kasamanza.

At the south-western extremity of Senegambia is the British colony of Sierra Leone. The idea of establishing a free negro settlement in this quarter was first suggested, in 1783, by Mr. Smeathman; after whose death the measure was taken up by Mr. Granville Sharp. It was carried into execution in 1787, when 400 destitute negroes were sent from London to the place chosen for the settlement. In 1790, the blacks from Nova Scotia, to the number of 1196, were transferred thither. Five hundred maroons from Jamaica were added about ten years afterwards, and, in 1819, 1222 black soldiers and their families were likewise settled there. But the great increase of the population has arisen from the captured slaves who have been established there since the abolition of the slave trade. In 1839, the colony had about 2,000 inhabitants, few of whom were whites, nd who resided in villages and small towns all ver the peninsula.

The colony was, for many years, under the irection of a Company; but, in 1807, it was urrendered to the crown. In the early part of s progress it had to contend with great diffilties. In September, 1794, a French squaon, with a baseness worthy of republican ance, attacked and destroyed the rising wn of Freetown, and took three of the Comny's vessels. The colony was also more an once endangered, by disaffection within, d hostility from the natives without. It has w surmounted all obstacles of this kind, and s only to contend against the insalubrity of climate, which is exceedingly fatal to Euroin constitutions.

The capital of Sierra Leone is Freetown, ich has above 6000 inhabitants, of whom ut 120 are Europeans. It is situated on a e, at the foot of some hills, on the south k of the Sierra Leone river, five miles from sea, and is laid out in fine wide streets, ch intersect each other at right angles. next town, in point of magnitude, is ent's-town, with about 1600 inhabitants. endant on the colony are the Isles de Loss, miles to the northward, and the Banana , which lie opposite the south-western emity of the peninsula.

similar settlement was formed on the fersland of Bulam, belonging to the Bissago p. It was ceded, in 1792, by the king of a hbouring island; but many of the colo- were massacred by the natives, who were stomed to make annual plantations of rice ulam; and the survivors took refuge at a Leone. This insular group claims ient notice. Sixteen of the islands are derably larger than the rest; and Bissao, rticular, is said to be 40 miles in length, 0 miles in breadth. It is inhabited by a and warlike race, called Papels; and the guese had long had settlements upon it. The Biafaras formerly occupied some of the islands; but they were expelled by the superior courage of the Bissagoes or Bijugas.

Guinea comprehends the grain-coast, the ivory-coast, the gold-coast, the slave-coast, (which includes Whidah and Ardrah, now subject to Dahomey,) and Benin. The principal kingdom, in this part, is Dahomey, the monarch of which subdued and annexed to his dominions Whidah and Ardrah, between the years 1724 and 1727. The country of Dahomey is supposed to reach from the coast, about 150 or 200 miles inland. Its soil is a deep rich clay, of a reddish colour, with a little sand on the surface. It produces maize and millet, Guinea-corn, and several species of beans. The people cultivate yams, potatoes of two sorts, and the cassada or manioc: the plantain and the banana, pine-apples, melons, oranges, limes, guavas, and other tropical fruits, also abound in this fertile country, which likewise supplies productions adapted for commerce and manufactures; such as indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, tobacco, palm-oil, and a variety of spices, particularly a species of pepper very similar in flavour, and indeed scarcely distinguishable from the black pepper of the East Indies. Dahomey abounds with buffaloes, deer, sheep, goats, hogs both wild and domestic, poultry of various kinds, particularly Guinea-fowl, and ducks like those of Russia. The elephant is used as food by the natives, and dogs are reared for the same purpose. The dress of the men consists of a pair of striped or white cotton drawers of the manufacture of the country, over which they wear a large square cloth of the same, or of European manufacture. This cloth is about the size of a common counterpane for the middling class, but much larger for the grandees. It is wrapped about the loins, and tied on the left side by two of the corners, the other hanging down, and sometimes trailing on the ground. A piece of silk or velvet, of 16 or 18 yards, makes a cloth for a grandee. The head is usually covered with a beaver or felt hat, according to the quality of the wearer. A hat, enriched with gold and silver lace, and decorated with a feather, is thought too fine for any person except the king and some of his ministers. The arms and upper part of the body are usually naked; and the feet are always bare, none but the sovereign being permitted to wear sandals. The dress of the women, though simple, consists of a greater number of articles than that of the men. They use several cloths and handkerchiefs; some to wrap round the loins, and others to cover occasionally the breast, and the upper part of the body. They adorn the neck, arms, and ancles, with beads and cowries, and wear rings of silver or of base metals on their fingers: girls, before the age of puberty, wear nothing but a string of beads or shells round their loins, and young women usually expose their bosoms. The general character of the Dahomese is marked by a mixture of ferocity

and politeness. The former appears in the treatment of their enemies: the latter they possess far above the African nations with whom we have hitherto had any intercourse; this being the country where strangers are least exposed to insults, and where it is easiest to reside in security and tranquillity. The language is that which the Portuguese call *Lingua Geral*, or General Tongue, and is spoken not only in Dahomey Proper, but in Whidah, and the other dependant states. The religion of the people consists of a jumble of superstitious ceremonies, of which it is impossible to convey any satisfactory idea. The government is despotic; it admits no degree of subordination between the king and a slave, at least in the royal presence, where the prime minister is obliged to prostrate himself with as much abject submission as the meanest subject. A minister of state, on his entrance, crawls toward the apartment of audience on his hands and knees, till he appears before the king; he then lays himself flat on his belly, rubbing his head in the dust, and uttering the most humiliating expressions. Being desired to advance, he receives orders, or communicates any particular business, still continuing prostrate; for no person is permitted to sit, even on the floor, in the king's presence, except the women, and even they must kiss the ground when they receive or deliver a royal message. The king maintains a considerable standing army, commanded by an agaow or general, with several subordinate military officers, who must be always in readiness to take the field at the sovereign's command. Their payment chiefly depends on the success of their expeditions. On extraordinary occasions, all the males able to bear arms are obliged to repair to the general's standard. Sometimes the king takes the field at the head of his troops, and, on great emergencies, at the head of his women. Within the walls of the royal palaces in Dahomey are confined some thousands of women, several hundreds of whom are trained to arms under a female general and subordinate officers appointed by the king, in the same manner as those under the agaow. These warriors are regularly exercised, and go through their evolutions with as much expertness as the male soldiers. They have large umbrellas, flags, drums, trumpets, flutes, and other musical instruments.

The Ashanten or Assentai kingdom, situated to the west of Dahomey and the north of the Gold Coast, was not known to Europeans, even by name, before the beginning of the last century. It was then loosely and vaguely mentioned as a powerful state, having inferior principalities in tributary subjection: but, notwithstanding the extent of the king's sway, he was wholly unacquainted with the coast, when his army, in 1807, advanced to the Dutch fort of Cormantine, in the pursuit of a routed body of Fantees. The British governor of Anamabo, alarmed at the approach of the invaders, in vain endeavoured to soothe the l bearance. The town was storm thousands of the inhabitants, ch were massacred: but the fort with such determined spirit by garrison, that the enemy, after siderable loss, retreated in confus the invasion was renewed; and, dreadful cruelties were perpetra wretched Fantees, that the re population were nearly reduced despair. Even the fort of Cap monly called Cape-Coast, the pri station upon that coast, was bloc by the Ashantees; and it was solved, in 1817, that a deputati sent to conciliate their monarc dich, and two associates, under zardous mission; and, on their chief town, they were met by chiefly warriors, whose leaders kind of military dance. When troduced to the king, they were the display of barbaric magnifi offered valuable presents, solicit ship, and requested the establi commercial intercourse. Some ing been instilled into his brea arose; and the gentlemen were several months, before a treaty w

The limits of this kingdom c cisely stated; but it appears to b realm. From north to south, it miles, and, from east to west, 800 the metropolis, is large and regu is insulated by a marsh, which c springs, that supply the town is also encompassed by a fine figure is oblong, and between t miles round: the principal str long and wide. The walls of t formed of stakes and wattlework, coated with clay. They have ga thick poles support a frame of bam over with interwoven palm-leaves they have only one floor; and, wh two, the lower part is divided support the rafters for the upper are usually covered with a frame- stuccoed with ochre. The doors entire piece of wood, cut with gre of the stems or buttresses of th and the windows are open wood in fanciful figures and intricate painted red. "The palace," sa dich, "is an immense building, o oblong courts and regular square with arcades along one side, so arches symmetrically turned, havi of bamboo; the entablatures adorned with bold fan and tr Egyptian character. They hav rooms over them, with small wooden lattice, of intricate but re work; and some have frames cas gold. The squares have a large a

, open in front, with two supporting and this kind of proscenium is a mark ction; for none but military officers, e king, are permitted to build in this hairs and stools embossed with gold, of silk, are among the articles of niture.

pulation of the capital is about 15,000, t of the whole kingdom is perhaps a fifth part of which is included in ary force. The men are well made, o muscular as the Fantees: the women emarkable for beauty; yet some have ures and expressive countenances. tes, except those of the lowest class, ttentive to the neatness of their per- he women washing themselves, and being washed by them daily on rising, d to foot, with warm water and Por- soap, using afterward a vegetable r butter, which is a fine cosmetic." f part of their apparel is dyed or loth of their own manufacture. Some est and a tunic; others, particularly es, are more slightly clad. Head- f coarse silk are frequently worn by les. Polygamy is allowed; but the general are content with monogamy, t of the slaves are unmarried. The llowed by law to have 3333 wives, ra- the purpose of presenting one occa- to a deserving subject, than for his gratification or domestic comfort. ey appear in public, they are preceded ounded by troops of boys, who clear with whips or thongs, and check the of ocular observation.

revailing amusements are draughts, oth Negroes and Moors play well; and similar game: they also divert them- th dancing, in which their movements ful and elegant. The chief public di- is a periodical exhibition, connected maturity of the yam, their chief object ation. The very commencement of de argues a shocking mixture of bar- ith the growing civilization of the e; for, when the chieftains arrive ir armed dependents, they sacrifice a each quarter of the town. These re splendidly arrayed and accoutred. nt of interwoven silk and cotton, of d hues and patterns, thrown over the s like a Roman toga, a helmet deco- h the feathers of eagles, a silken fillet e temples; necklaces of massy gold, wrought; suspended Moorish charms s, enclosed in rich cases; ornaments ees and ancles; swords with golden glittering appendages; and other dis- er of utility or embellishment, attest ity of the chieftains. The captains dressed in a costly and fanciful man- the inferior warriors, with ornaments ue, knives clustered on their hips and , caps of skins with long tails, and long muskets adorned with the hides of leopards. The king, having a diadem painted on his forehead, nearly oppressed with a super-abundance of ornaments, clad in a silken robe, seated in a chair of ebony inlaid with gold, with the tails of elephants waving before him, and a magnificent stool holden up under a splendid umbrella, appears in the midst of his gay courtiers, and hails the anniversary. The sounds of horns and drums fill up the pauses of musketry. Palm-wine is taken by the chief officers, while the droppings from their moistened beards are caught in bowls by kneeling boys. Next morning, the king sends a great quantity of rum to various parts of the city: free men and slaves, women and children, crowd around the brass pans to participate of the beverage; and a scene of intoxication ensues, amidst discordant music and licentious songs. Before the termination of this celebrity, about 100 persons, the majority of whom are delinquents reserved for punishment, are sacrificed; and into that part of the earth from which the first yam is taken, blood is made to flow from some of the victims. This custom of human sacrifice is also an accompaniment of the death of a person of distinction. On the decease of a courtier's mother, the British envoys witnessed the horrible ceremony. Sometimes the number is augmented by the wanton barbarity of the attendants at the funeral, who will suddenly stab a free man that is a spectator, roll him into the grave, and close him up.

The government is aristocratic, under the form of royalty; for the king is controlled by the chieftains and the assembly of captains. Four of the chieftains have palatine privileges, including a judicial power; but they are not exempt from taxation, when it is regularly ordained for the public service. The king is heir to the gold found in the house of every deceased subject; of which, however, he grants a part to the nearest relative: the rest of his revenue arises from various taxes, and from a large share of the washings and scrapings of the hills, and other spots which are rich in gold. Trifling thefts are punished by mere exposure; and the greatest crimes of that description are very rarely followed by the death of the offender. He who murders his wife or child is put to death; but a man may kill one of his slaves with impunity. If any one should wilfully occasion the death of an equal, he is allowed to die by his own hands: when he kills an inferior, he is merely subjected to a fine, payable to the family. Wives are generally purchased; and, if they are guilty of adultery, they are not punished with death, except when the husband is the king himself, or a captain. Those who are accused of sorcery are tortured to death. This cruel practice arises from the senseless superstition of the people. Mr. Bowdich says, that fetishes are subordinate deities, who are supposed to inhabit particular rivers, woods, and moun-

tains; but the term seems to be more frequently used in the sense of Obi, the fabricated and concentrated magic of the West Indian slaves. The fetish men form two orders: by one class a reputed oracle is consulted with regard to the future order of a state or an individual, and artful answers are invented. These expounders of Heaven's will are the priests of the kingdom; and the dignity is hereditary. Persons of the other class, while they pursue their various occupations in society, act as ordinary fortune-tellers or conjurors. There are also fetish women, who are also consulted on the remedial uses of vegetables. Not satisfied with their own superstitions, the Ashantees, though a negro race, borrow absurdities from the Moors, whose fetishes they eagerly purchase, and carry about them as securities against all accidents or misfortunes except sickness.

In various arts and manufactures the Ashantees have considerable skill. Their architecture we have already noticed. In weaving they are very expert: their looms are constructed on the same principle with those of Great Britain. They use a spindle, not a distaff, for spinning, holding it in one hand, and twisting the thread, which has a weight at the end, with a finger and the thumb of the other. The fineness, variety, brilliancy, and size of their cloths, are astonishing even to a European; and the richest silks are dexterously unravelled to be woven into them. They have two dye-woods, a red and a yellow; and they make a green colour by mixing the latter with a blue dye, procured from a plant called the acassie. In pottery they excel; and the black articles in that branch of art are highly polished. They are good goldsmiths; but, as blacksmiths, they are less expert. They have no idea of making iron from ore, as some of the interior nations do; nor can they make locks like the people of Houssa. The art of tanning is not unknown to them; and they make neat sandals, belts, and pouches. Umbrellas and canopies are well manufactured. The guitar and other instruments are artfully fabricated, because the people have a strong inclination for music, which is therefore less rude among them than might be imagined.

A considerable trade is carried on with the interior parts; and it is now extended to the Europeans on the coast. The dealers import iron, lead, gunpowder, silken articles, and other merchandise, for which they barter the native produce, or pay in gold dust. Of the variety and abundance in their markets, the following enumeration will afford a specimen. "Among the commodities produced for sale at Coumassie," says Mr. Bowdich, "were beef and mutton, the flesh of wild hogs, deer and monkeys, fowls, peltry, yams, plantains, corn, sugar-canes, rice, encruma (a plant resembling asparagus,) pepper, vegetable butter, oranges, papaws, pine-apples, bananas, salted and dried fish from the coast, large snails smoke-dried, palm-wine, rum, pipes, looking-glasses, sandals, silk, cotton cloth, small pillows, white and blue cotton thread, &c."

The climate of this country is not remarkable for salubrity. Being more elevated than the coast, it is less sultry; yet it is often oppressively hot; the rains are frequent and heavy, and are occasionally accompanied with furious tornadoes. The most common diseases are those of the cutaneous species, dreadful ulcerations, and interior pains; and, in the capital, fevers and the dysentery are very prevalent, and, for want of proper medical aid, often fatal.

Before we were acquainted with the Ashantees, their superior civilization was loudly proclaimed; but the report was delusive. The puerile fondness of the higher class for idle show and preposterous ornaments, can only be mentioned as discreditable to their moral standings: their propensity to war is a disgusting proof of their brutality; and their sacrifices reflect indelible disgrace on their characters and dispositions. Even in the opinion of Mr. Bowdich, who speaks in some instances too favourably of the nation, "the lower order of people are ungrateful, insolent, and licentious. The king repeatedly said, he believed them to be the worst people extant, except the Fantees, and not comparable with many of their inland neighbours." We may add, that they are immersed in the darkness of Paganism, and are ignorant even of the elements of literature.

The Ashantee king, exulting in his pride and resources, seemed to despise the British colonists at Cape Corse Castle, and again attacked the African allies of the Europeans. He compelled the Fantees to become his vassals and tributaries, and intimidated their protectors into a treaty, by which they were declared to be the vassals of the barbarian potentate. But Sir Charles M'Carthy disregarded this agreement, encouraged the Fantee tribes to revolt, and, in 1824, encountered about 10,000 of the Ashantees with a number much less than a tenth part of that amount. They took an opportunity of surrounding his small army, and he was sacrificed to their furious vengeance. The war was renewed as soon as it appeared that the kings of Aquamboe and Aquapim, the queen of Aikim, and other heads of tribes, were eager to join Colonel Purdon in an expedition against the aspiring prince. Hostilities were continued, at intervals, for nearly three years, and were at length terminated by a decisive battle. It is stated that Colonel Purdon could only muster 500 Europeans, while the Ashantee army amounted to 20,000 men; but, as he was reinforced by more than 10,000 natives, who promised not to run away, he, in August, 1826, boldly engaged the enemy, near Accra. After an hour's contest, a part of his right wing gave way; but, by a destructive fire of rockets and grape-shot, his adversaries were in their turn disordered, and

upon their left flank by the king of decided the fortune of the day. About ıe Ashantees, it is said, were killed, or made prisoners; and, in the vic- my, 800 lost their lives, and 2000 were The sable monarch was now glad peace, which was granted, on condi- he should pay 600 ounces of gold, and of his sons, and a nephew, to be at Cape Coast Castle. Peace has ı maintained.

is a country situated in a very un- ıe climate, to the east of Dahomey. nded by the Kong mountains on the e Niger on the east, the Gulf of n the south, and Dahomey on the nong its wild animals are elephants, ·pards, and crocodiles. The dress of ·s is neat and ornamental. The rich on petticoats; but the upper part of is usually naked. The women use in dressing their hair, which they a variety of forms. Polygamy is and the king is said to have six wives. Though the men are jealous ther, they are not so of Europeans; e many think it impossible that the he women can be so depraved as to em to grant liberties to a white man, some who will offer their wives for ication of strangers. Their religion sm. An absolute authority is exer- he king's name by three great officers, ıhed by a string of coral, who con- ttend him. Benin, the capital, which ·d by a wide fosse, fills a vast space, ıot very closely built. In the streets, e long and broad, are many shops ı European merchandise, as well as commodities of the country. A con- part of the town is occupied by the ıce, which, however, is neither elegant nodious. The Niger, which falls by ıuths into the Atlantic, forming an and unhealthy delta, terminates in ry of Benin.

of Benin, Guinea extends as far as the ıoon, a few minutes to the north of or, and contains the Calabar country, Cape Formosa and the Cameroons; hich is traversed by the Cameroons ıe Calbongo country, watered by the to; and the Pongo country, which is by the Gaboon. With the exception spots on the coast, little is known g these territories.

we quit the coast of Guinea, we must ı to its south-western extremity, to ı American attempt at colonization. lement which bears the name of s that to which we allude. It was ned, in 1816, with the view of relieving ican States from the dangerous pre- the free blacks; and not without s hopes that its success might ulti- ive to America a predominant influ- ence on this part of the African coast. A society was formed for carrying these purposes into effect. Sherbro' Island was the spot first selected, and thither eighty-eight colonists were sent. But the fatal climate having speedily destroyed one-fourth of them, the colony was removed to Cape Mesurada, and, on the river of the same name, a town was founded. The society subsequently purchased the country on the coast, between Cape Mount and Tradestown, an extent of 140 miles, in which eight stations have been established. White persons are not allowed to settle in Liberia, which is dedicated solely to men of colour. In 1830, the colony contained 1500 inhabitants, of whom about 700 were in Monrovia. It is said to be at present in rather a languishing condition.

In proceeding to the southward, we meet with the kingdom of Loango, which was formerly a dependency upon that of Congo. The capital, which is about three miles from the sea, is known to Europeans by the same name as the kingdom, but the natives call it Banza Loangiri. The people are industrious, and not only occupy themselves in various arts, but engage also in commercial pursuits. They are superstitious, like other African tribes, and trust to the effect of sorcery and the power of charms. The climate is remarkably warm, and a long dry season regularly follows a long continuance of rain. The cocoa and banana thrive beside the more common fruit-trees; and the cotton-plant and sugar-cane are cultivated with success. Its principal animals are elephants and apes, both of which were formerly very numerous.

Congo is bounded on the north by Loango, on the south by Angola, and on the east by the territory of the Giagas. The climate is extremely hot in summer; but the winters are as mild as the finest springs of Italy. The wild animals are elephants, lions, leopards, panthers, wolves, zebras, buffaloes, &c. The country is likewise infested with a variety of serpents, some of which are of a monstrous length and thickness; with rattle-snakes, vipers, scorpions, and venomous insects of various kinds, both flying and reptile. Among the insects the most wonderful are the termites, or white ants, which construct works in the most ingenious manner, and apparently in a scientific form, and compose an orderly and well-regulated community. Their earthen structures are sometimes raised to the height of 7 or 8 feet, and appear like the huts of the natives. These little creatures not only destroy the fruits of the earth, but in the night surround beasts, and sometimes men, in prodigious swarms, and devour them in a few hours, leaving only the bones.

This country was discovered, in 1487, by the Portuguese, who formed settlements on the coast, and endeavoured, but not with effective success, to convert the natives to Christianity. A more intelligent and judicious nation would

have civilized the people with whom a connexion was thus established; but it appears, from the hints of Captain Tuckey and his companions, that those who were most conversant with the Portuguese were "sulky-looking vagabonds," dirty in the extreme, and barbarians in their appearance and manners, though some of them pretended to be zealous Christians.

Society, in Congo, is divided into the following classes: the chenoo, or chief, and his family; the civil and financial officers, who also engage in trade; the yeomanry, who are the owners of houses and lands; fishermen and labourers, and domestic slaves. The rights of property are strictly recognized, and even minutely distinguished. Agriculture is rudely practised; but the fertility of the soil compensates this want of skill. The habitations, in general, are wretched huts of mats or reeds, and matted grass serves both for bedding and clothing. Many chieftains are dispersed over the country, who appear to act arbitrarily within their own boundaries, while they acknowledge the supremacy of the great king.

To the southward of Congo is the kingdom of ANGOLA, which used to supply the and other dealers in slaves, with multit those wretched and degraded beings, a furnishes the Spaniards and Portugue a considerable number, as those natio tinue the abominable traffic, in defianc general voice of Europe. In Loanda, the chief town, the Portuguese have ment, which is the great mart of slaves

Farther to the south is the territory GUELA, with which the Portuguese connected. The climate of this cou particularly insalubrious, and the peo barbarous. Mines of copper exist am mountains; but they are not rendered, the European colonists, subservient to use.

Portugal claims the sovereignty of and Benguela, and has settlements i countries, and in Congo; but its author cept in a few districts, is merely nomin territory to which it lays claim bears the ous appellation of the Captain-general Angola and Congo. The infamous slav is the principal traffic which is carried this quarter.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

A GREAT extent of country in this division is comprehended under the general name of CAFFERARIA, or Caffer-land; the limits of which, however, are very differently given by geographers. Some carry it to the northward of the equator, while others confine it to the distance of 700 miles from the Cape of Good Hope. It is divided into various states, of which no accurate knowledge has been obtained. The four great tribes, which inhabit the country between the eastern frontier of the Cape colony and Delagoa Bay, are the Amakcsa, the Amatimba, the Amaponda, and the Vatvahs, or Zoolahs.

The men among the Caffers, says Lieutenant Paterson, are from 5 feet 10 inches to 6 feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions, or any beasts of prey. Their complexions are black, their teeth are white, and their eyes large. The clothing is nearly the same for both sexes, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs, pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened on their heads, and other fantastic ornaments. They are extremely fond of dogs, which they receive in return for cattle; and, to such a height do they carry this passion, that, if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their exercises are h fighting, and dancing. They are ex throwing their lances, and in time of shields made of the hides of oxen. The are employed in the cultivation of their and fields. They raise several vegetables are not indigenous to their country; tobacco, water-melons, a sort of kidney and hemp. They also make baskets, mats on which they sleep. The men hav pride in their cattle; and they cut thei in such a way as to be able to turn the any shape whatever; and they teach t answer a whistle.

The soil of this country is a blackish ground, so fertile that every vegetab stance, whether sown or planted, gro with great luxuriance. It seldom rains in the summer, when it is accompani thunder and lightning. The country, h is very well supplied with water, not on the high land toward the north, but fro fountains which are found in the wood woods also produce a variety of ar plants, and some of a great size: they habited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. T also varieties of beautiful birds and bea

To judge of the Caffers by those whom says M. Le Vaillant, they are taller t Hottentots of the colonies, or even t Gonaquas, though they greatly resem latter, but are more robust, and po

of pride and courage. Their
tewise more agreeable. Their
ntract toward the bottom; nor
-bones project in the uncouth
Hottentots; nor have they large
lick lips like their neighbours,
Mosambique, but a well-formed
eable nose, with eyes sparkling
: so that, if we set aside our
egard to colour, there are many
ight be thought handsome by
ropean. They do not disfigure
laubing their eyebrows, like the
t they are very much tattooed,
ut the face.

ady mentioned the fondness of
ornaments; but they only wear
m season: when the weather is
use of krosses, or cloaks, made
calves or oxen, which reach to
particularity which deserves at-
: the Caffer women care little

Indeed, they are well made,
n compared with other savages,
the uncouth profusion of Hot-
ot even wearing copper brace-
ons, like those of the Gonaquas,
ith small rows of beads—the
ch they exhibit.

at the female Hottentot ties
the Caffer woman wears as high
s, tying it over the bosom, which
y have krosses, as well as the
ier men nor women cover their
imes, indeed, I have seen the
r adorned with a feather stuck
ut this sight is by no means

the daily occupation of the wo-
rication of earthenware, which
dexterously as their husbands:
ake a curious kind of baskets,
compact as to contain milk;
prepare the fields for seed,
earth, rather than digging it,
ck-axes.

he Caffers are higher and more
an those of the Hottentots:
ect hemispheres, mostly from
et in diameter, and from 6 feet
composed of wooden work, very
pact, covered within and with-
re of earth, clay, and cow-dung.
s so low, that to enter you must
hands and knees; which makes
nd themselves against animals,
ttack of an enemy. The hearth,
in the centre, surrounded by a

e usually purchased with cattle.
ain is adjusted, the chief of the
ives the nuptial exhortation, by
ride to manage domestic con-
lous zeal, to assist in the culti-
arth, and to be a chaste and
le also gives advice *to the bride-*
groom, for the proper government of his family, and particularly recommends a constant attention to the support of his wife and future offspring—not forgetting to intimate the duty of providing for the occasional entertainment of the chief, and the payment of the tax to which he is entitled. The marriage is supposed to be completed, when the bride has taken some milk that is offered to her. The friends of the happy pair rejoice, drink, and dance, for several days after the ceremony.

The government of the Caffers is a sort of clanship system. The population of each Caffer tribe is divided into kraals or hamlets, containing from 10 to 20 families, each family occupying a separate hut. There is a petty chief in each kraal, who exercises a sort of patriarchal authority over the people. A higher chief rules over a whole district, containing a certain number of kraals. These higher chiefs are hereditary and independent of each other, though they acknowledge, to a certain extent, the authority of the umkumkani, or great chief of the whole tribe, whose counsellors they are, and who cannot determine upon any important measure concerning the whole tribe, without consulting them. The chief, like most Asiatic and African sovereigns, is supposed to be the original possessor of all the lands and cattle within his territories. This pretended right, however, is seldom acted upon; but an acknowledgment of it is retained in the custom, that no individual is allowed to kill any of his cattle without permission of the chief, who claims part of the carcass as his right: likewise the first fruits of the season are not allowed to be gathered without permission of the great chief of the tribe. The right of individual families to the land is restricted to the patches of ground which they have enclosed for cultivation: all the rest is held in common by the different families of each kraal, for grazing their cattle. The Caffers have no written laws, but certain long-established customs and usages, any infraction of which by a chief would be opposed by his subjects at large. There is, however, an evident disposition on the part of the chiefs to make themselves absolute, as Cheka succeeded in doing among the Zoolahs. A great engine of despotism is found in the Amakica or witch doctor, who acts as a sort of inquisitor, and, when in secret understanding with the chief, serves him to remove out of the way, or frighten, all those who might have opposed him. The unfortunate individual accused of witchcraft is put to a cruel death, and his cattle divided among his accusers. In other matters the punishment of death is not common, most offences being expiated by a fine, excepting robbery on the property of a chief.

The Caffers acknowledge the existence of a Supreme Being, for whom they have several names in their language; but they have no form of worship, and their notions of a future life are very vague and unsettled. They have no idols, but they have other superstitions, be-

lieve in witchcraft, spirits, apparitions, and sacrifice animals to propitiate the ghosts of the dead. A Caffer swears by the spirit of his father, or by his chief. They circumcise boys at the age of twelve or fourteen years, and the ceremony is attended with considerable solemnity: they seem, however, to have no distinct idea of the object of the practice, or whence they derived it. They have a decided aversion to swine-flesh, and also, it is said, to fish, except shell-fish; accordingly, they have neither boats, canoes, nor nets, or other implements for fishing. A few mats, coarse earthenware pots of native manufacture, a rush basket so closely woven as to contain liquids, a calabash, and a bundle of assagays—these constitute all the furniture of a common Caffer hut. Some have milk sacks made of bullocks' hides, and wooden vessels carved out of soft wood. They preserve their millet or corn in pits dug in the ground, like the Berbers and other North Africans. They bring to market, on the borders of the Cape colony, elephants' tusks, gum, hides, mats, rush baskets, &c., to a considerable amount. As yet, the southern Caffers, unlike their brethren of the Betchouana and other northern tribes, hold European cloth in little estimation, but are very fond of beads and other ornaments; they also purchase knives, tinder-boxes, and several other hardware articles.

In the southernmost part of Caffraria is included the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, which was formerly divided into four districts—the Cape district, that of Stellenbosch and Drakenstein, that of Zwellendam, and that of Graaf Reynet. It now forms eleven districts—Cape Town, Zwellendam, Stellenbosch, Worcester, Clanwilliam, Beaufort, George, Uitenhagen, Albany, Somerset, and Graaf Reynet. In 1836, the population was 150,114, of whom 114,017 were whites: it has since greatly increased.

Of that extensive territory which is considered as dependant on the colony, much may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of loam or sandy clay, condemned to almost perpetual drought, which are called karroos, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or clothed in parts with sour grasses only, or plants noxious to animal life, compose a considerable portion of the colony of the Cape. Two of these chains of mountains enclose the Great Karroo, or dry desert, extending 250 miles in length, and 80 miles in breadth, and uninhabited.

Lichtenstein thus describes the impression made on him by the first sight of the Great Karroo. "The space between the mountain ranges is a parched and arid plain, stretching out to such an extent that the vast hills by which it is terminated are almost lost in the distance. The beds of numberless little rivers cross, like veins, in a thousand directions, this enormous space: the course of them might in some places be clearly distinguished by the dark green of the mimosas which spread along their banks. Excepting these, nowhere, as far as the eye could reach, was a tree to be seen, nor even a shrub, or any signs whatever of life." From the nature of the soil, vegetation must always be scanty; and in summer, when the sun dries up the soil to the hardness of brick, it ceases almost entirely. The mesembryanthemum, and some other succulent plants, some kinds of gorteria, of bergia, and of aster, whose roots, like the roots of liliaceous plants, nature has fortified with a tenfold net of fibres under the upper rind, to protect them against the hardened clay: such plants alone resist the destructive nature of the inhospitable soil. As soon as, in the cooler season, the rains begin to fall, and penetrate into the hard layer of loam, these fibres imbibe the moisture, and, pushing aside the clay, the germ of the plant, under their protection, begins to shoot, and in a few days the arid waste is covered with a delicate green covering. Soon after, myriads of flowers ornament the whole surface. "The mild mid-day sun," says Lichtenstein, "expands the radiated crowns of the mesembryanthemums and gorteriæ, and the young green of the plants is almost hidden by the glowing colours of their full-grown flowers, while the whole air is perfumed with the most fragrant odour. The odour is more particularly delightful, when, after a calm day, the sun declines, and the warm breath of the flowers rises quietly on the plain. At this time the whole dreary desert is transformed into one continued garden of flowers. The colonist, with his herds and his flocks, leaves the Snowy Mountains, and, descending into the plain, there finds a plentiful and wholesome supply of food for his animals; while troops of the tall ostrich and the wandering antelope, driven also from the heights, share the repast, and enliven the scene. But how soon is the country again deprived of all its glory! It scarcely continues more than one month, unless late rains, which must not often be expected, call forth the plants again into new life. As the days begin to lengthen, the increasing power of the mid-day ray checks once more the lately awakened powers of vegetation. The flowers soon fade and fall, the stems and leaves dry, and the hard coat of soil locks up the germs till the rainy return; the succulent plants alone still furnish food for the herds and flocks. The streams soon begin to dry, the springs almost cease to flow, till at length the universal drought compels the colonists to return to the mountains; yet even then they quit the plain with reluctance, and the flocks, accustomed to endure thirst, still linger behind, feeding on the succulent plants, which afford at once food and drink, and are particularly salutary to those that bear wool. Every day, however, the Karroo becomes more and more solitary, and by the end of September it is wholly de-

ıe hardened clay bursts into a thou-
s, which evince to the traveller the
r of an African sun. Every trace of
vanished, and the hard red soil is
er with a brown dust, formed from
of the dried and withered plants.
;t these ashes is the seed nourished
›roduce future generations, and the
ıe year's vegetation furnish manure
herish the germs till the next year's
brings them forth."

he town called Cape Town are the
ıntain, the Devil's Mountain, the
d, and the Lion's Back. The first
lous mass of naked rock, the north
ıich, directly facing the town, is a
line, or very nearly so, about two
ength. The bold face that rises
right angles to meet this line, has
ance of the ruined walls of some
rtress; and these walls rise above
f Table Bay to the height of 3582
Devil's Mountain on one side, and
Head on the other, make, in fact,
able, one mountain: the height of
is 3315 feet, and that of the latter

The Devil's Mountain is broken
ar points; but the upper part of the
d is a solid mass of stone, rounded
ıed like a work of art, and resem-
some points of view, the dome of
placed upon a high cone-shaped
ı these mountains descend several
ıich fall into Table and False Bays;
ıcipal streams of the colony are the
›untain river; the Breede or Broad,
the Orange river, which has its
inundations like the Nile, and its
he Sunday and the Great Fish rivers.
ate of the Cape appears to be, in
ıe from the extremes of heat and
ealthy. The Dutch considered the
ıasisting of two periods, called the
he bad monsoon; but, as these are
ıular in their returns, nor certain
ıntinuance, the division into four
in Europe, seems to be more proper.
, reckoned from the beginning of
to that of December, is the most
eason; the summer, from December
is the hottest; the autumn, from
une, is variable weather, generally
he latter part very pleasant; the
m June to September, though in
easant, is frequently very stormy,
›old. The two most powerful winds
th-east and south-west; the former
›ommences near the close of May,
occasionally till the end of August,
imes through the month of Sep-
he south-west predominates during
the year, and, when the cloud shows
he mountain, sometimes blows in
h great violence.

l of corn generally cultivated is
ch richly repays the labour of the husbandman. Barley and rye are likewise raised; the former is preferred to oats for feeding horses. "The natural productions of the Cape," says Mr. Barrow, "are, perhaps, more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world." Few countries can boast of so great a variety of bulbous-rooted plants as Southern Africa. Most of the European, and several of the tropical fruits, have been introduced, and cultivated with success. In every month the table may be furnished with at least ten different sorts of fruit. The market is likewise tolerably well supplied with most of the European vegetables for the table, from the farms on the eastern side of the colony. On some of these farms are vineyards also, of considerable extent, which not only supply the market with fine grapes and raisins, but furnish a great quantity of palatable wine.

The principal wild animals, near the Cape, are wolves and hyenas; but they are now much less frequently seen than they formerly were. Various kinds of antelopes are found; among which are those called by the Dutch the springbok, the gems-bok, and the greis-bok. The first is remarkable for its agility, whence it derives its name. More inland are lions, buffaloes, elephants, and, in the rivers, hippopotami, called, by the Dutch, sea-cows. The horses of the Cape are not indigenous, but were first introduced from Java, and subsequently from various parts of the world. The heavy draught-work is chiefly performed by oxen. The Cape oxen are distinguished by long legs, high shoulders, and large horns, and the sheep by the uncommon size and fatness of their tails. The larger kinds of birds which hover round the summit of the Table Mountain are eagles, vultures, kites, and crows.

Cape Town, the capital of this colony, is pleasantly situated at the head of Table Bay, on an easy slope from the mountains. The houses are built with regularity, and kept in neat order. The streets are straight and parallel, intersecting each other at right angles: many are open and airy, and planted on each side with oaks; but some are narrow and ill paved. Several squares give an openness to the town. In one the public market is holden; another is the common resort of the peasants with their waggons; and a third, near the shore of the bay, and between the town and the castle, serves as a parade for exercising the troops. The barracks, originally intended for an hospital, for corn-magazines, and wine-cellars, are a large, well-designed, regular structure, occupying, with the wings, part of one of the sides of the great square. The upper part of this building is sufficiently spacious to contain 4000 men. The castle affords barracks for 1000 men, lodgings for all the officers of one regiment, magazines for artillery, stores, and ammunition; and most of the public offices of government are within its walls.

The population of the town, in 1834, was 13,804 whites and free coloured people, inclusive of the military, and 5583 negro apprentices. Between the town and Table Mountain are scattered over the plain a number of neat houses, surrounded by plantations and gardens. In the year 1820, Great Britain poured forth a part of its superabundant population upon the south-eastern part of the Cape colony. A considerable number of emigrants, of both sexes, landed at Algoa Bay, about 500 miles from Cape Town, and proceeded, under the authority of the government, to take possession of large allotments of land near the Great Fish river, and in other districts. They met with great difficulties in the progress of colonization: famine sometimes menaced them, and illness swept away not a few of the number; but the new colony was at length established, and is now in a prosperous state. It constitutes the district which bears the name of Albany.

As the Dutch and other Europeans did not in general quit the Cape when the British conquest was effected, the aspect of a Dutch colony is not wholly removed by the change of masters. The same attention to business is apparent: money and merchandise are the most prominent subjects of conversation, and the chief objects of regard. But the British colonists are more liberal, friendly, and hospitable than the Dutch, and less tyrannical in the treatment of their Hottentot and Malay slaves; and, with regard to the ladies, it may be observed, that those of the Dutch families are not more phlegmatic than the English women, but are lively, good-humoured, and fond of social intercourse.

The southern extremity of Africa was discovered, in 1493, by the Portuguese navigator Bartholomew Diaz, who gave it the name of Cabo Tormentoso, or the Cape of Storms, from the boisterous weather which he met with near it; but Emanuel, king of Portugal, on the return of Diaz, changed its name to that of the Cape of Good Hope, from the hope he entertained of finding beyond it a passage to India. This hope was fulfilled by Vasco de Gama, who, having doubled this cape in November, 1497, proceeded to India, and landed at Calicut in the following May. The Portuguese, however, made no settlement in this part of Africa, nearer to the Cape than the banks of the Rio Infante, now the Great Fish river, which is 600 miles distant from it. In 1600, it was first visited by the Dutch; but for many years they only touched at it in their voyages to and from the East Indies, to supply themselves with water and fresh provisions. At length, in 1650, a surgeon named Van Riebeck pointed out to the directors of the Dutch India Company the great advantages which would be derived from a settlement. The Company adopted his plan, and sent out four ships under his command to commence its execution. With some presents of brass, toys, beads, tobacco, and brandy, he purchased of the natives permission to build a fort and form a settlement; and from that time the Cape was held by the Dutch, till it surrendered to the British arms, in 1795. It was restored by the treaty of Amiens: but in 1806 it was again reduced under the dominion of Great Britain. Being retained during the rest of the war, it flourished under a wise administration, and was finally ceded to our sovereign in 1815, by the king of the Netherlands.

The Hottentots of the Cape colony, formerly the possessors of the country, were reduced by the Dutch to abject slavery. In such a state of discouragement and oppression, their number gradually declined: there are, however, many tribes to which the general name of Hottentot is given by the Dutch and the English, as the Namaquas, and the Boajesmen, who still preserve their independence. The first vary little in their persons and dress from the Hottentots of the Cape and the Gonaquas, though their language is widely different. The tribe of the Gonaquas is now extinct. The Boajesmen, or Bush-men, so called from their lying in ambush in their predatory expeditions against the farmers of the colony, are an extraordinary race of people. In their persons they are not only diminutive and even dwarfish, but are among the ugliest of all human beings. Their flat noses, high cheek-bones, prominent chins, and concave visages, partake much of the apish character. Their bellies are commonly protuberant, and their backs hollow; yet their limbs seem to be in general well proportioned, and they have more animated eyes and more expressive countenances than the generality of the Hottentots, chiefly in consequence of that necessity of exertion which arises from the want of property and of the common necessaries of life. They wander about the country, clad in sheep-skins; sleep in mountainous caverns, in the clefts of rocks, in bushes, or in holes which they make in the ground; and they have no laws or government among their hordes. They destroy wild animals with poisoned arrows, and, having cut out the poisoned part, greedily devour the rest of the flesh. Serpents, locusts, and white ants, with a few roots, are eaten by these savages, whose jealousy and malignity, when they can procure more palatable food, prompt them to destroy or spoil what they cannot consume.

Of the tribes of Southern Africa, M. le Vaillant has given an amusing account. The Gonaquas, he thinks, are of a mixed breed between the Caffers and the ordinary Hottentots. Their dress resembles that of the latter; but, as they are taller, they make their mantles of the skins of calves, instead of those of sheep. Several of them wear, hanging from their necks, a piece of ivory, or very white sheep's bone; and this contrast of hue produces a good effect, and is very becoming. When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every superfluous part of their dress, and remain only what they name their jackals. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which

what nature bids them conceal, and fastened to the girdle. This veil, negligently arranged, may be con- a useless appendage, and is of very ce to their modesty. The women, e fond of dress than the men, employ 'e in adorning their persons. They ss or mantle like the latter; but the 'h conceals their sex is larger than Hottentots. During the great heat only this apron, with a skin which ehind from the girdle to the calf of irls below the age of nine years go ked; when they attain that age, nothing but a small apron.

nuts," says the same author, "con- ke those of the Hottentots in the re 8 or 9 feet in diameter, and are th the skins of oxen or of sheep, commonly with mats. They have pening, very narrow and low; and it niddle of the hut that the domestic lled. The thick smoke with which is are filled, and which has no other he door, added to the smell which 's retain, would almost suffocate : custom, however, renders it sup- these savages.

'o hues for which they show the ndness, are red and black. The omposed of a kind of ochrey earth, und in several parts of the country, they mix with grease: this earth resemblance to brick-dust, or tiles powder. Their black is nothing the charcoal of soft wood. Some leed, are content with painting only ence of the cheeks; but in general over the whole body in compart- ed with some degree of symmetry; rt of their dress requires no small time. These decorative materials perfumed with the powder of the hich is not very agreeable to the European. A Hottentot would, d some of our odours and essences upportable; but the boughou has, uge and pastes, the advantage of pernicious to the skin, of not at- injuring the lungs; and the female who is unacquainted with amber, enzoin, never knows what it is to ed by vapours, spasms, and the

The men never paint their faces; ise a preparation made of both red, to paint the upper lip as far as ; by which they enjoy the advan- tinually inhaling the odour of the mployed for this purpose. Young imes favour their lovers so far as to paint for them under the nose; and nt they show a kind of coquetry, a powerful influence over the heart ntot novice. The reader, however, nfer that the women pay so much dress as to neglect those daily and useful occupations to which nature and their usages call them. Separated from Europe by an immensity of sea, and from the colonists by desert mountains and rugged rocks, too much communication with these people has not yet led them to the excesses of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happiness of becoming mothers, Nature addresses them in a different language: they assume, more than in any other country, a spirit suitable to their state, and readily give themselves up to those cares which she so imperiously requires of them.

"The wild Hottentots are remarkably fond of hunting; and in this exercise they display great dexterity. Beside gins and snares, which they place at convenient spots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them also, and kill them with their poisoned arrows, or with their assagays or lances. On the first view of their arrows, one would not suspect that they were very destructive weapons; but their smallness renders them so much the more dangerous, as it is impossible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and consequently to avoid them. The slightest wound which they make always proves mortal, if the poison should reach the blood, and the flesh be torn. The surest remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb; but, if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The assagay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, beside this, its length renders it not dangerous; for, as it may be seen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it.

"They pay little attention to agriculture, but are very attentive to pasturage. Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen, they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service. Their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows; beside which, they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and sometimes they kill a sheep. To fatten their animals, they employ a process which, though not practised in Europe, is no less efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts of which we deprive them by the knife; and, when thus compressed, they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal. Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens, must be broken and trained very early to the service; otherwise, they would become absolutely intractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the whole a piece of stick about 8 or 10 inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women; and, as these animals are never beaten or tormented, they are exceedingly tractable.

"Of sheep and kine each village has one

common herd, every inhabitant taking his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, leopards, hyenas, wolves, and other furious animals, that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions toward the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go or send every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In this case he assembles the whole village, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, when he is inevitably destroyed.

"When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worst kross, and the limbs are disposed in such a manner that the whole body is covered. The relatives then carry it to a certain distance from the horde, and, disposing it in a pit dug for this purpose, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with stones. Such a mausoleum proves a very weak defence against the attacks of the jackal and the hyena: the body, indeed, is soon dug up and devoured. However badly this last duty may be discharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Parsees, still attached to the custom of exposing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morsels."

M. le Vaillant thus speaks of the personal appearance of the Hottentots:—"A physiognomist, or modern wit, would entertain his company by assigning to the Hottentot, in the scale of beings, a place between a man and the ouran-outang. I cannot, however, consent to this systematic arrangement; the qualities which I esteem in him will never suffer him to be degraded so far; and I have found his figure sufficiently beautiful, because I experienced the goodness of his heart. It must indeed be allowed, that there is in his features something peculiar, which in a certain degree separates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; so that, his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his visage continues still decreasing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankness, which makes his head appear very much disproportioned, and too small for his full and plump body. His flat nose rises scarcely half an inch at its greatest elevation; and his nostrils, which are excessively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his nose. His mouth is large, and furnished with small teeth well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, beautiful and open, incline a little toward the nose, like those of the Chinese; and, to the sight and touch, his hair has the resemblance of wool: it is very short, curls naturally, and is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no small care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinness of his eye-brows saves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the nose, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as soon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look: which, joined to the natural mildness of his character, destroys the commanding fierceness usual among savages."

Their general character he delineates in favourable colours. After the mention of their natural timidity, phlegmatic reserve, and profound indifference to the affairs of life, he says, "They are the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of men. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and, though they will receive presents, they never ask for anything. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish, and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit will supply him with provisions, as far as their circumstances allow, and with everything else necessary for continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination."

This praise is corroborated and confirmed by Mr. Barrow, who says of the Hottentots, "Low as they are sunk in the scale of humanity, their character seems to have been much reduced and misrepresented. It is true, there is nothing prepossessing in the appearance of a Hottentot: but infinitely less so in the many ridiculous and false relations by which the public have been abused. They are a mild, quiet, and timid people; perfectly harmless, honest, faithful; and, though extremely phlegmatic, they are kind and affectionate to each other, and not incapable of strong attachment. A Hottentot would share his last morsel with his companions. They have little of that kind of art or cunning which savages generally possess. If accused of crimes of which they have been guilty, they generally divulge the truth. They seldom quarrel among themselves, or make use of provoking language. Though naturally of a fearful and cowardly disposition, they will run into the face of danger, if led on by their superiors; and they suffer pain with great patience. They are by no means deficient in talent, but they possess little exertion to call it into action."

To the north of the colony is the Bosjesmans territory, inhabited by tribes that have made a

r progress in civilization and the arts
he other natives of Caffraria. They dis-
greater degree of skill in the construc-
their houses; they are better cultivators
earth; and their government is more
and regular. They have even a con-
ble and populous town called Latakoo,
the houses are built in a circular form,
fourth part open, and the other three
valled up with clay and stones, having a
te room for keeping utensils and articles
s. Mr. Campbell, a missionary, visited
rt of the country, and was introduced to
ng of Latakoo, whose government in
neasure resembled the feudal system,
re were many chieftains to whom he
d lands in consideration of their sub-
serviency. His people were in the habit of forming connexions with individuals of other nations, making mutual presents, and residing for a considerable time at each other's houses. This practice seems to evince a friendly disposition; but, like the rest of the Boshuana tribes, they are guilty of cruel acts; for the old and infirm among them are frequently left to perish, and, when women have twins, one child is sometimes put to death. Mr. Campbell also penetrated into the Marouti kingdom, the capital of which is said to contain about 16,000 inhabitants. The ruler of this state occasionally held a sort of parliament, in which speaking and dancing were alternately practised.

THE EASTERN COAST OF AFRICA.

oast includes that part of Africa which
from Algoa Bay, in the Cape colony,
Guardafui, at the entrance to the Red
retching from about 34 degrees of south
, to about 12 degrees of north latitude,
of between 3000 and 4000 miles. Passing
northward from the Cape, we arrive at
d of Natal, which, as we have already
is occupied by four Caffer tribes. A few
nce, several thousand disaffected Dutch
migrated from the Cape, and settled
country, resolving to establish a govern-
dependent of the English; but, after
sistance, they were forced to submit.
ling still northward, we reach the Portu-
olonies, commencing at Cape Corrientes,
ling at Cape Delgado. They are divided
en governments, but consist merely of
settlements scattered along the coast,
inly peopled. The principal town is
bique, which is situated in 15. 2. S. lati-
d 40. 43. E. longitude, and has a good
, formed by a deep inlet of the sea. It
on an island, is well built, and has a
ion of about 6000 inhabitants. The
of the coast of which the Portuguese
e fullest possession is, however, that of
which lies between Sofala and Mozam-
Its chief harbour is Quilimana, on a
of the Zambizi, and its most populous
re Senna, the capital, and Tete, which
ater magnitude than Senna.
e port of Sofala, the Portuguese have
ment, consisting of a few mud huts,
s protected by a contemptible fort built
nall island near the mouth of a river.
is a somewhat better settlement at
on, to the south of Sofala. The natives
la are for the most part black, with
urled hair, there being very few tawny
m among them. *Those on the coast* speak the Arabic language; for they are not the descendants of the original natives, but the posterity of Arabs who settled on this coast. Sofala, according to the report of the Portuguese settlers, contains some gold-mines of considerable value.

To the northward of Sofala is Monomotapa, or Mocaranga, between the 15th and 20th degrees of south latitude. The climate is temperate, and the soil is not only very fertile in rice, but also in sugar-canes, which grow without cultivation. There are here vast herds of elephants, and great numbers of ostriches. This country possesses mines of gold and silver. It is watered by the great river Zambizi, which has a course of 800 miles. The inhabitants are negroes. Like most of the other nations of Africa, they admit unlimited polygamy. The army of the king consists only of infantry; for there are no horses in the country.

Beyond Mocaranga stretches the extensive country of Zanguebar, containing the kingdoms of Mozambique, Melinda, and several others. Of Mozambique we have scarcely any knowledge; but it appears that the kingdom of Melinda produces gold, ivory, ostrich feathers, wax, drugs, rice, sugar, and cocoa-nuts. Some of the natives are black, and some merely swarthy; the women are mostly of an olive complexion. The dress, among the females of a higher class, is very elegant; for they wear handsome veils, and garments of fine silk, decorated with rich gold or silver girdles, and collars and bracelets of the same, or something equally valuable. The men wear a kind of turban; in other respects their dress consists of a piece of cotton wrapped about the middle, and descending a little below the knees; their legs, feet, and the rest of the body, are quite bare. The meaner sort, and those who live farther from the coast, wear little more than a

piece of cloth round the middle. Their weapons are the shield, the bow and arrows, the broad sword and javelin. Their government is monarchical; and, with such veneration is the king honoured by his subjects, that, whenever he stirs out from his palace, he is carried in a sedan on the shoulders of four or more of the greatest nobles of the kingdom, and incense and other perfumes are burned before him, as he goes through the streets of any city, by a great number of ladies, who exert their musical talents in his praise. The population is estimated at about 200,000 persons. With respect to religion, the generality are Pagans, some are Mohammedans, and some Christians, converted by the Portuguese. The kingdom of Melinda, and other parts of Zanguebar, have been conquered by the Gallas; and the city of Melinda, once a handsome and populous place, is now only a heap of ruins. Near the coast of Zanguebar is the island of Mombasa, which, in 1824, the inhabitants, who had long before shaken off the Portuguese yoke, put under the British protection, in order to avoid falling under the sway of the imam of Muscat, who had sent a force to subjugate them. The English quitted it in 1827, after having made several improvements in the island. [illegible] large and excellent harbour, and fr[illegible] traders with grain, cocoa-nuts, ivory, [illegible] copal.

Considerable conquests have bee[illegible] along the coast by the imam of Mus[illegible] possesses the towns of Patta and Lam[illegible] continent, and the isles of Pemba an[illegible] bar. The latter is the centre of his [illegible] this quarter, and he has made it a fl[illegible] and commercial station. It is said to [illegible] 150,000 inhabitants, and to yield a re[illegible] 110,000 dollars.

The country of Ajan is the boundar[illegible] guebar toward the north. It lies b[illegible] and 12 degrees of N. latitude, exten[illegible] the river Magadoxo to Cape Guar[illegible] contains several states or kingdoms, [illegible] ing which scarcely anything is kno[illegible] geographer can state with certainty [illegible] eastern coast of Ajan is said to be [illegible] barren; but to the north the countr[illegible] fertile. The kings of Ajan are fre[illegible] war with the Abyssinians, and sell [illegible] tives. They trade in ivory, gold, an[illegible] an excellent breed.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

Of the African islands, some lie in the Eastern, or Indian Ocean, and some in the Western, or Atlantic. We shall begin with those in the Indian Ocean; the chief of which are, Socotra, the Comoro islands, Madagascar, Mauritius, and Bourbon.

Socotra, four-fifths of which is an elevated table-land, is mentioned by Ptolemy under the name of Dioscorides Insula. It lies about 200 miles from Cape Guardafui, and is 70 miles long, with an average width of 15 miles. Aloes and dragon's blood are its principal commercial products. A species of millet, beans, tobacco, cotton, and indigo, the two latter in small quantities, are the articles of cultivation. The island is inhabited by about 4000 persons, of two different Arabian races. Tamarida, which has not more than fifty inhabited houses, is the only place that resembles a town. The island is tributary to the sultan of Kisseen, who derives from it a few hundred dollars annually.

The Comoro Isles are situated at the northern entrance of the Mozambique channel, midway between Madagascar and the African coast. They are four in number; Comoro, or Angazaya, Anzuan, or Hinzuan, Mayotte, and Mohilla. Of Comoro, which is the largest of them, and about 30 miles long, little is known. It is said to be composed chiefly of mountains, which rise in the centre to an elevation of 7500 feet. Mayotte, which is said to have 1500 inhabitants, and Mohilla, are the smallest of the group. Anzuan, which is known to mariners by the name of Johanna, is the most important of these islands, though only the second in magnitude; it having good anchoring ground, and being the only one of them which is visited by Europeans. Its form is triangular, its circumference from 70 to 80 miles. The population, which consists of Arabs and Africans, was formerly 100,000, but has been much reduced by the destructive incursions of the Maratis from Madagascar. The island is mountainous, and its scenery in the highest degree picturesque. Matsamudo is the town at which European vessels touch for refreshment; but the sultan, as the ruler is called, resides at Domoni.

Madagascar, which the natives call Madecasse, is the largest of the African islands, being 960 miles in length from north to south, and between 200 to 500 miles broad. The sea rolls with great rapidity, and is extremely rough, between this island and the continent, forming a channel, called the Mozambique Passage, through which European ships in their voyage to and from India frequently sail. The population is variously estimated at from 1,000,000 to 5,000,000; the largest number would be but scanty for a territory which is larger than France.

scar is a pleasant, desirable, and fer-
y, abounding in sugar, honey, fruit-
able gums, corn, cattle, poultry, pre-
es, iron, some silver, copper, and tin.
an agreeable variety of hills, valleys,
l plains; and it is watered by nume-
s. The air is generally temperate,
:o be very healthy, though in a hot
On several parts of the coast, how-
e are extensive and unwholesome
Among the inhabitants are white
tribes, and also people of colour.
s, and those of a tawny complexion,
it the coasts, are the offspring of the
is evident from their language and
ous rites: but here are no mosques
, nor any stated worship, except that
sacrifices of beasts on particular
as when sick, when they plant
ee, when they hold their assemblies,
their children, declare war, enter
uilt houses, or bury their dead.
heir ceremonies and practices are
semble the Jewish, whence it has
:ctured that they are the posterity
.O formerly settled here. This island
'ered by the Portuguese, and the
k possession of it in 1641; but, the
liking the government, they were
in 1652; since which time the natives
with the exception of a few settle-
uropeans, the sole possession of the
ler a number of petty princes, of
re are said to be twenty-two, who
upon each other for slaves and

:arly part of the present century, it
ghly probable that this disadvan-
ate of things would be remedied by
:ion of the whole island under the
sovereign, possessed of great natural
d enlightened views. This sovereign
ma, the king of the Ovahs, a tribe
abits an extensive territory in the
of the interior. The Ovahs are
person, rather taller in general than
, and of all shades, from copper to
k. They display superior skill in
uring silk and cotton dresses, in
on, from the blade of a lance down
le, and in making, with much inge-
ld and silver chains, balances, and
:les. The capital of the Ovahs is
'o, or "the City of a Thousand
nd is supposed to contain 50,000 per-
dáma, who in energy of character
Peter the Great, introduced into
y the arts and civilization of Europe.
lished a communication with the
n the island of Mauritius. He re-
d protected the missionaries, and
the establishment of schools, the
which, at the time of his death, had
to more than 100, in which nearly
ren were instructed. Several young
re sent to the *Mauritius, and even to* England, to receive instruction. European mechanics were well received and employed by Radáma. He introduced into his army the discipline and arms of the English. At the request of the English he also abolished the slave trade. His regular troops are said to have amounted to 30,000 men, and the irregulars to 20,000. With this force he reduced many of the petty sovereigns to subjection, and was in a fair way to become master of all Madagascar, when death put an end to his career. He died in 1828, and is said to have been poisoned by his wife Ranavalona, a sanguinary and licentious woman, who succeeded him, and has since been an active persecutor of the Christian converts. Under her reign the prosperity of Ovah has been greatly decreased.

MAURITIUS (discovered by Mascarenhas) was so called by the Dutch, who first touched here in 1598, in honour of Prince Maurice their stadtholder; but it is now generally styled the Isle of France. It is about 400 miles east of Madagascar, and is surrounded by a coral reef. It is of an oval form, about 124 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, secure against any wind, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. On this harbour is situated Port Louis, the only town in the island. The climate is healthy and pleasant. The mountains, of which there are many, and some so high that their tops are covered with snow, produce excellent ebony, beside other kinds of valuable wood, two of which greatly resemble ebony in quality—one red, the other yellow; but there is no timber fit for ship-building. The island is well watered, and, though the soil is not the most fruitful, yields tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and sheep. Since it has belonged to the British, sugar has been the main article of cultivation. It was formerly subject to the Dutch; but the French gained possession of it in 1715. By the English it was taken in 1810, and is still in our possession. The population is about 100,000, of whom not more than 9000 are whites.

BOURBON, which was originally called Mascarenhas, from the name of its discoverer, is situated about 300 miles east of Madagascar, and is about 60 miles long, and 45 broad. There are only two roadsteads, both of which are very indifferent, but not a single harbour where ships can ride secure against those hurricanes which blow during the monsoons. Indeed, the coast is so surrounded with blind rocks, sunk a few feet below the water, that coasting is at all times dangerous. In the south-east part is a volcano, which continually throws out flames and smoke, with a hideous roaring noise. The interior of the island is not cultivated, the settlements not extending further than 5 or 6 miles from the sea. The climate, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreshed with cooling gales, that blow in the morning and evening from the sea and land; sometimes, however, terrible hurricanes shake the whole island almost to its foundation, but

generally without any other bad consequence than frightening the inhabitants. The island abounds in torrents, which cannot be used for irrigation, and produces aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood, and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and resins, particularly benzoin of an excellent sort, in great plenty. The exports consist of coffee, sugar, cocoa, cloves, nutmegs, and timber. The rivers are well stocked with fish, the coast with land and sea tortoises, and some parts of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergris, coral, and the most beautiful shells, are found upon the shore. The woods are full of turtle-doves, parroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds. The French first settled here in 1642: they were dispossessed of the island by the English in the last war, but regained it by the treaty of peace. The population, in 1822, was 17,037 whites, 5159 free negroes, and 45,375 slaves. The number of the latter is said to be diminishing. St. Denis, the capital, has 7000 or 8000 inhabitants.

Leaving the Indian Ocean, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa on the east, and America on the west; toward which division we now steer our course, touching in our way at various islands near the African coast.

The first island on this side of the Cape is St. Helena, which is about 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. It is a very high and steep rock, about 20 miles in circumference. On the north-west side is a small town called James' Town, in a valley at the end of a bay, well defended by forts and batteries. The inhabitants, including the garrison, nearly amount to 3000. The wind blows almost perpetually from the south-east; the air is cool, pleasant, and healthy; thunder and lightning are scarcely known; and light flying showers produce a quick vegetation: but the want of rain is sometimes a very serious grievance. The plantations afford, among other useful supplies, bananas, grapes, kidney-beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, a great part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks; so that it is necessary to import flour from England; and, in times of scarcity, yams and potatoes are used instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains; and the inhabitants have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, and poultry, with which they supply the passengers and sailors in the India ships, taking in exchange shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silk, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese, in 1502, on the festival of Helena, mother of Constantine the Great. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here; and the English India Company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprise. It was subsequently recovered, and retained by the Company, until the year 1815, when, being considered as a safe place of confinement, from which a prisoner could not escape without treachery or a want of due vigilance on the part of the garrison, it was transferred to the government for the reception of Napoleon, who died there in 1821. He was buried under a willow tree, in a small dell, near Longwood House, where he had resided. In 1840, his remains were given up to the French government, by which they were removed to France, and interred at Paris with great funeral pomp.

About 680 miles to the north-west of St. Helena, is Ascension, which received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day. It rose from the sea by volcanic force, and its precipices chiefly exhibit masses of lava, in which are veins of opal. It bears a most rugged aspect, and has no appearance of fertility. It is not more than 7½ miles in length, and its breadth does not exceed 6 miles. A small British force was stationed here, when Napoleon was a prisoner at St. Helena; and the island was retained after his death. It is now greatly improved, and will eventually be rendered still more productive. It has a good roadstead, where the India ships occasionally touch to procure turtles, which are very numerous, and of a large size.

Proceeding to the northward, we reach four islands, which are situated in the bight of Biafra, upon the African coast. These are the islands of Annobon, St. Thomas, Prince's, and Fernando Po. The first and smallest of these belongs to the Portuguese, has about 3000 inhabitants, and is situated about 80 miles to the south of the equator. It is not more than 6 miles long and 2 miles broad, and is chiefly visited by ships for supplies of sheep, goats, &c. Saint Thomas, a little to the north of the equator, is about 30 miles long and 20 miles broad, and contains 15,000 inhabitants, 3000 of whom reside in the town, of the same name. It belongs to the Portuguese, and produces sugar, millet, and rice. Prince's island, which is less than half the size of St. Thomas, belongs likewise to the Portuguese, and has 4000 inhabitants, about 1000 of whom live in the town of St. Antonio. It produces rice, tobacco, sugar-canes, and various kinds of fruits and vegetables. The most northerly and largest of these isles is Fernando Po, which originally belonged to Portugal, was ceded to Spain in 1778, and was transferred by Spain to England in 1827. The British government designed it as a station for the cruizers against the slave-ships, and for carrying on commerce with the interior of Africa by means of the Niger. But though it is fertile, and well watered, the climate is insalubrious; and the settlement which has been made, and which bears the name of

ll probably be abandoned.
24 miles long and 16 miles

ISLANDS are so called from
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Iago has 10,000, Boavista
) 6000, Sant-Antonio and
Brava 500.
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Its produce is sugar, cot-
Indian corn, cocoa-nuts,
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nuch admired in Europe.
argest island of this group,
is about 120 miles in circuit—a fruitful country, abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is encumbered with mountains. The highest point is called the Peak, or Pic. The ascent to this elevated spot is not so very hazardous or difficult as it was long imagined to be. From Orotava, a deep ravine commences; a chestnut forest then appears, covering the flank of those mountains which form a central chain across the island. A series of verdant hills follow; after which the track leads across a steep mass of lava rock, worn into ravines, and exhibiting a thin surface of yellow pumice. At length an undulated plain spreads itself, like a fan, to a great extent, until it terminates in the second region of the peak and a range of precipices. A steep mountain of pumice is next ascended, and varied masses of lava require to be passed, before the summit of this stage of the mountain is attained. The foot of the cone is then reached; and the subsequent ascent is rendered troublesome and fatiguing by the excessive steepness of the cone. The feet of adventurous visitants sink into the ashes at every step, and quantities of pumice and lava are rolled down upon them. Of the highest part, the superficial extent is about an acre and a half; and this is itself a small crater, in which sulphureous heat is observable. The height of the Pic is calculated at 11,400 feet.

Santa Cruz is the capital of Teneriffe, and the seat of government for all the seven islands; but all the law courts are held in the Grand Canary. Though not large, it is a well-built city. Laguna exceeds it in magnitude, but has a mean appearance. Out of 220,000 persons, who formed, in 1835, the whole population of the Canaries, 85,000 were assigned to Teneriffe.

This island, in November 1826, suffered severely from the fury of a hurricane, the violence of rain, and the force of swollen waters. At Santa Cruz the mischief was not very serious; but, on that side of the island where Port Orotava stands, several vessels were lost, with many of their navigators, and a well-cultivated valley exhibited a scene of desolation. The torrents from the mountains swept away a great number of houses with their inmates, destroyed vineyards, and inflicted other damage. Above 100 dead bodies were found in one district.

Fuerte Ventura is larger than the Grand Canary; but it scarcely contains 14,000 inhabitants, while the latter has about 68,000. One island is remarkable for drought: the other has a sufficient supply of moisture to produce such fertility, that there are two, and sometimes three, harvests of wheat and maize in one year: hence the Great Canary is called the granary of the insular group.

These islands were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians: but they remained, for a long course of ages, unknown to the European nations. Bethencourt, a French gentleman, endeavoured to colonize them in

1400; and a Castilian, named De Guzman, made similar attempts in 1461. Other efforts were made by the Spaniards, on a larger scale: and, at length, in 1483, the islands were subdued, after the Guanches, or descendants of the original inhabitants, who appear to have attained a considerable degree of civilization, had been nearly extirpated by the inhumanity and bigotry of the invaders.

MADEIRA, which is also reckoned among the African islands, and lies about 400 miles from the north-western coast of Africa, derived its appellation from its being formerly almost covered with wood. It is about 45 miles long and 20 miles broad, and consists of one continued basaltic hill of a considerable height, extending from east to west; the declivity of which, on the south side, is cultivated, and interspersed with vineyards. In the midst of this slope the merchants have fixed their country-seats. The chief town, named Funchal, stands on the southern side of the island: toward the sea, it is defended by a high wall with a battery: this is the only place where a boat can land; and even there the beach is covered with large stones, and a violent surf continually beats upon it. Of the bay, on which the town borders, the extremities are formed by two steep promontories, composed of volcanic rocks. It may rather be called an inconvenient road than a good harbour. "The bay," says Mr. Picken, "is surrounded by an amphitheatre of mountains, which rise nearly 4000 feet behind the city; the higher regions clothed in parts with forests of pine and other European trees, while the lower slopes are terraced into vineyards and garden-ground. Deep-cleft ravines here and there intersect these mountains, their sides starting up into bold overhanging precipices, while, in their gloomy depths, mountain streams, descending from the centre of the island, find an outlet through the town to the sea. After rains, these streams roll with tremendous force down the steep descent; but, in passing through the town, they are now prevented from doing mischief, by being made to flow in channels built with walls of the strongest masonry. The hill-sides are studded with beautiful quintas or villas; these, with the white pillars on which the trellis-work of the vineyards is supported, strike brightly out from amidst the luxuriant verdure with which they are surrounded." Though the city is the seat of the governor, bishop, and court of the inquisition, it is far from being elegant or handsome. It is irregularly built; the streets are narrow, crooked, and ill paved, and generally in a very dirty state. The churches and convents are numerous, but are not remarkable for beauty or magnificence, though some, and more particularly the cathedral, are richly decorated. The population of the town is about 20,000, and, of the whole island, 100,000. Though this island seems to have been known to the ancients, it lay concealed for many ages, and was at length discovered by the Portuguese in 1519; but others assert that it was first discovered, in 1344, by Robert Machin, an Englishman, who, eloping with a young lady, landed with her on the island after a tempestuous voyage. Be that as it may, the Portuguese took possession of it, and are still its masters. Finding it little better than a thick forest, they rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by setting fire to this wood; and it is now so fertile as to produce wine and fruit in great abundance. The wine is famous for its excellence. It is less fruitful in corn, from the rocky nature of the soil. Sugar-cane used to thrive in it; but they are not at present much cultivated. The inhabitants make excellent sweetmeats, and have the art of preserving citrons and oranges, and making marmalade and perfumed pastes, which exceed those of Genoa. The little sugar they make is very fine, and has a fragrant odour. This, indeed, is said to be the first place in the world where that manufacture was set on foot, whence it was carried to Brazil.

The climate of Madeira is very mild throughout the year, and is so salubrious that invalids resort to it from other countries: and it is remarkably free from venomous animals. It has a rainy season, which necessarily varies the temperature. Some years ago, a water-spout, as it was called, or a surcharged cloud, burst over the island, and so swelled the rivulets that dreadful inundations ensued. The country, and the environs, were ravaged by the torrents; houses and farms were washed away, and many lives were lost. The same misfortune has recently occurred. The natives are generally of a middle stature, and have dark or swarthy complexions. The peasants are hardy and active, while the gentry are prone to indolence. Persons of all ranks are sober; but those of the higher class are addicted to gourmandize. The ladies are not remarkable for beauty; but they are well bred and polite, and some have even a striking elegance of manners. They are fond of music and dancing, without suffering those diversions to engross that time which is required for more useful objects.

About 40 miles to the north-east of Madeira is the small island of Porto Santo, with a population of 1200 persons, half of whom inhabit a small town of the same name. A small quantity of wine is made here.

Leaving Madeira, with which we close the account of Africa, we continue our course westward, through this immense ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, situated between 25 degrees and 32 degrees W. longitude, and between 37 degrees and 40 degrees N. latitude, 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named St. Mary, St. Michael, Terceira, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. The population is estimated at about 200,000 souls. They were discovered

SOUTH AMERICA
PACIFIC OCEAN
SOUTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
Martinico
Santiago
Buenos Ayres
Pampas
Maldonado
Rio de la Plata
Falkland Isles
West Falkland
East Falkland I
Terra del Fuego
Staten Land
C. Horn
Strait of Magellan
Chilo I.
Blanco R.
Valdivia
Concepcion
La Palma
Juan Fernandez
Max Atuera
Santiago
Chillan
Luquin
Gulio
Sanchuta
Pto S. Antonio
Pensns de S. Josef
Pensns de 3 Montes
G. of Penas
Campana I.
Madre de Dios
Ambrose
Ohispo
Pto de Coquimbo
la Serena
Valparaiso
Quetta
Santiago
Chillan
Pampas
Buenos Ayres
Rio de la Plata
Maldonado
Monte Video
Corrientes
Paramandi
Rio Grande
Sacombury
Sta Catharina
Sta Fee
Santa Fe
Colonia
Rosario Is
Chico R.
Desire R.
C. Devolas
Chico R.
Santiago
Rio Colorado
Rio Grande
Rio Dulce
Corrientes
Santiago
Pto de Coquimbo
Valparaiso
Chilo I.
Blanco R.
Pensns de 3 Montes
G. of Penas
Campana I.
Madre de Dios
Strait of Magellan
Terra del Fuego
Staten Land
C. Horn
Aurora Is
Sta Georgia
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70
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rrounding waves. They are
wine, and fruit: they also
fowls, &c.
the largest, being nearly 100
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Terceira is the most im-
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good anchorage, though open
t wind. Its capital, Angra,
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he governor and the bishop.
ural curiosities of the Azores,
d a remarkable mountain in
of which is one of the most
perfect basins ever formed, said to be three quarters of a mile in circuit, and 600 feet deep, with two lakes at the bottom. The coast is surrounded by black rocks of lava. Pico affords another natural curiosity. It rises from the sea, in a conical form, to an elevation of 7000 feet, and its top, resembling a sugar-loaf, is so regularly shaped that it seems to be the work of art. In the island of St. Michael are sulphureous springs, which are used as warm baths for the cure of the rheumatism, while some cold mineral waters in the same neighbourhood are taken internally. The valley, in which the caldeiras or hot springs are found, is covered with sulphur, alum, and pumice-stone, and is called Boca do Inferno, or the Mouth of Hell. Indeed, the islands are evidently of volcanic origin. The last eruption on land occurred in 1808, when a volcano suddenly burst out, and effected terrible devastation. In 1811 a volcano broke out at the bottom of the sea, near St. Michael, at the depth of 40 fathoms, and formed an island 300 feet high, and a mile in circumference, which afterwards sunk gradually into the sea, leaving a dangerous shoal on the spot.

AMERICA.

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the Genoese as chimerical.
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from his *country, and applied* to the court of France; but, according to the practice of that people, his plan was treated with ridicule. The English court was his next resort; yet, if he had sufficiently known the character of the mercenary Henry VII., he would have concluded that the cautious politics of that prince were diametrically opposite to every scheme of a precarious nature. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa: they had, as yet, no idea of venturing boldly into the open sea. These disappointments did not discourage him; for he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an original genius. Spain was now his only resource; and there, after eight years' attendance, he succeeded, chiefly through the interest of Queen Isabella. In 1492, with three ships, he set sail upon the boldest attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had many difficulties to contend with; the most formidable was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered in an unknown ocean, and that the only guide

which he had was on the point of forsaking him. His sailors, who had soon become discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, and insisted on their return; but his firmness, and, much more, the discovery of land, after a voyage of thirty-three days, put an end to the commotion. He first landed on Guanahani, one of the Bahama islands; but, to his surprise and sorrow, the poverty of the inhabitants convinced him that this spot could not belong to the country which he sought. In steering southward, he found the island which he called Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, which abounded in all the necessaries of life, was inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promised to afford considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he purposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and, having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, he returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona. Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the natives, the gold, arms, utensils, and ornaments of the fine country which he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona was a species of triumph more glorious, more uncommon, and more innocent than that of conquerors. In this voyage he had acquired a general idea of the islands in the great sea which divides North and South America; but he was not aware that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the new world was ascertained, the name has remained, the appellation of the West Indies being given to the country by all the people of Europe.

Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East, and, even after the discovery, were still conceived to be a part of the eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. Seventeen vessels were quickly prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; and 1500 men, among whom were some of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, who was now appointed governor with the most ample authority. He sailed to Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the situations best calculated for securing the dependance of the natives. Having thus spent a considerable time, he proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed likely to be a rich discovery; but he knew not whether island, or a part of a great contin ascertain this point was his present o coasting along the southern shore of was entangled in a multitude of isla in the same voyage, Jamaica was d But to so many difficulties was he e an unknown sea, among rocks, sh sands, that he returned to Hispanio learning anything certain with regar

His success having excited jealousy he was obliged to reappear in Spa defence of his calumniated reputati was not without great difficulty th enabled to enter upon a third exped intended to steer to the southwa Canaries until he should reach the line, and then to proceed directly that he might discover what ope course might afford to India, or islands or continent might reward After having been long buried in a and suffered great inconvenience excessive heat and rain between t the navigators were favoured with a and went before it seventeen days t ward. A seaman then saw land: island, now called Trinidad. Hav this island and two others, in the m Oronoco, the admiral was surprise pearance which he had never before this was the frightful tumult of occasioned by a conflict between the sea and the rapid current of Sailing forward, he plainly discover were in fresh water; and, judging t it was improbable any island shoul vast a river, he imagined that he had the continent; and of this he was when, after his leaving the river, he the land continued on the westward siderable distance. Satisfied with covery, he yielded to the uneasine tress of his crew, and sailed to Hisp

About this time the spirit of disco itself widely, and many adventurers parts of Europe, without possessin ties, wished to acquire the reputatio bus. The Portuguese discovered Br for three centuries after, formed the able part of their possessions: Cab of Bristol, surveyed a part of th which afterwards composed the Bri in North America; and Americo V merchant of Florence, sailed to th continent of America, and, being addreas, had the honour of giving the new world. But no one is so on by the name: all know that Co Colon, was the first discoverer. To of the honour of giving name to a mense territory was, however, one of mortifications to which this great compelled to submit; for, such we mours of his enemies, and the ingrat court of Spain, that he was treated li

ht back to Europe in irons. He en-
rertheless, the glory of making one
e world known to the other; a glory
he more precious, as it was untainted
irit of cruelty and rapine which dis-
ll the exploits of those who came
and accomplished the execution of
He fully vindicated himself at court,
ed to favour, and, after another voyage,
ularly memorable, died at Valladolid,
the 59th year of his age.

ne advantages which Columbus had
by his good sense and humanity, the
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ed to purchase by the blood of the
These islands contained mines of
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and the extreme avarice of the Spa-
furious to work by persuasion, hur-
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concealed from them a part of their
In a few years they depopulated
a, which is said to have contained
inhabitants; and Cuba, which had
00. Bartholomew de las Casas, a wit-
ose barbarous acts, says that the
went out with their dogs to hunt
n. The unhappy savages, almost
l unarmed, were pursued like deer
orest, devoured by dogs, killed with
or surprised and burned in their
s.

niards had hitherto only had a glimpse
ntinent. From what they saw, or
r report, they conjectured that this
new world would afford a still more
onquest. Cortez was dispatched from
519, with 600 men, 18 horses, and a
ber of field-pieces. With this incon-
orce he purposed to subdue the most
state on the continent of America:
ne empire of Mexico, rich, powerful,
ted by millions of people passionately
ir, and then headed by Montezuma,
e in arms struck terror into the neigh-
ations.

istory, that was true, was more im-
and romantic than that of this war.
e had subsisted for ages, and its in-
were rather polished and intelligent
and barbarous. They knew, like the
of old, that the year consisted nearly
rs. Their superiority, in military
s the object of admiration and terror
continent; and their government,
n the sure basis of laws combined
ion, seemed to bid defiance to time
e capital, situated in the middle of
lake, was the noblest monument of
industry. It communicated with the
by immense causeways, which were
rough the lake. The city was ad-
ts buildings, all of stone, its squares
t-places, the shops, which glittered
and silver, and the sumptuous pa-
laces of Montezuma. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico. The warlike animals on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the people. Wherever the invaders marched, they spared neither age nor sex—nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of the success of opposition, entered into their alliance. To this step, however, they were prompted as much by their hatred of Montezuma as their dread of the Spaniards. Cortez, thus reinforced, advanced toward Mexico. Montezuma heard of his progress, without daring to oppose it; and, by sending a rich present of gold, which only excited the avarice of the Spaniards, he hastened their approach. No resistance was made to their entry into his capital. A palace was appropriated to Cortez; who had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of the emperor, under which he suspected that some plot for his destruction was concealed: but he had no pretence for violence. Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded; but, at last, a circumstance occurred, which afforded him a pretext for hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea for the necessary reinforcements, he had left a small garrison at Vera Cruz. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; and that Montezuma was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy the prevailing belief of the immortality of the Europeans. He now, with some of his officers, visited the emperor; and, by artful persuasion, and the influence of determined courage over weakness of mind and timidity, prevailed upon a powerful prince to put himself into the hands of a small party of invaders, who, while they aimed at his ruin, professed for him great friendship and regard. In a tumult which soon after arose, when the captive prince seemed to side with the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans immediately elected Guatimozin for their sovereign, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, they rushed against those very men whom a little before they had offered to worship. A series of desperate engagements ensued, in the city of Mexico, from which the Spaniards were at length compelled to retreat with the loss of several hundred men. Undismayed by this reverse, Cortez continued the contest in the provinces; and, as soon as he had obtained a sufficient

cient reinforcement of Spaniards and allies, he marched to recover the capital. The Mexicans, however, now made strenuous efforts for independence, and defended the city for many months; but all their valour, and despair itself, finally gave way to what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were made prisoners. This was the prince who, when he was stretched on burning coals, that he might be forced to discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high-priest, who was condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pain he endured, "Am I on a bed of roses?" The high-priest remained silent, and died without further complaining. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they obtained intelligence of another great empire, which was said to abound in the precious metals and gems. This was the empire of Peru, the only other country in America that deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. The task of subduing this territory was undertaken by Francis Pizarro, a low adventurer, who was assisted by the pecuniary contributions of Hernando Luque, an opulent priest. He commenced the enterprise with only 310 men, and 12 small pieces of artillery. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices as the Mexicans, with respect to the Spanish nation, and were, beside, of a soft and unwarlike character, we shall not be greatly surprised, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the empire. There were particular circumstances, likewise, which conspired to assist him, and which, as they disclose some traces of the history and religion of these countries, and of the state of the human mind in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Manco Capac was the founder of this monarchy. He was one of those uncommon men who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended, therefore, to descend from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this romantic story he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction: a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized the dispersed barbarous people; he subjected them to laws, and trained them to arms; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion: in short, there was no part of America where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of such mild and ingenuous manners. A race of sovereigns succeeded Manco, distinguished by the title of Inca. The twelfth prince was now on the throne, and named Atahalipa. His father, Huana Capac, had conquered the province of Quito: to secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the prince of that country, and from this marriage sprang Atahalipa. His elder brother, named Huascar, by a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connexion. A civil war had thus been kindled, which, after greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atahalipa, who detained Huascar as a prisoner. In this disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru when Pizarro advanced to attack it. The ancient predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were collected, which foretold the subjection of the empire by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded with the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances Atahalipa, instead of opposing the invaders, endeavoured to win their favour. Pizarro however, whose temper partook of the manners of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those whom he called barbarous, but who, though less acquainted with the art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in a conference with Atahalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the Inca's guards, and having murdered 3000 of them, as they were pressing forward to defend their monarch, seized Atahalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. That prince having offered a large sum for his liberty, Pizarro was bargaining with him, when Almagro, who was at first his principal associate, interfered in an authoritative manner, and claimed a moiety of the ransom. That the common cause might not suffer by a rupture between the chiefs, this arrangement was agreed to. The ransom was paid without delay; a sum exceeding all conception, but insufficient to gratify their avarice. It amounted to £1,500,000 sterling, and, even after the large deductions which were made for the king, for the two rival commanders, and the officers, each private soldier had above £2000. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would readily submit to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being dismissed, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labours. Pizarro complied with this demand, justly concluding that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that the return home of many who had been thus enriched would induce others to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold.

The magnitude of this ransom was only a

reason for detaining Atabalipa in nt, in order to discover whether nother treasure to gratify Spanish But, whether they believed that he ore to give, and were unwilling to eir troops in guarding a prince from y expected no farther advantage; or ro had conceived an aversion to him, t of some duplicity which he sus- d which he conceived might prove to his affairs, it is certain that, by nd, Atabalipa was put to death. A r the succession led to a civil war; s which ensued accustomed these people to blood; and, so preferable ethargy is a spirit of any kind raised n, that, in the course of these dis- ng themselves, the inhabitants of ned some courage against the Spa- he losses which the invaders met ne quarrels, though inconsiderable, erous, by weakening the opinion of sibility. This consideration engaged conclude a truce; and he employed l in laying the foundations of the ia, and settling the Spaniards in the But, on the first opportunity, he re- war, and, after many difficulties, elf master of Cuzco.

e was thus engaged, new grants and rived from Spain. Pizarro obtained of 200 leagues along the sea-coast, thward of that which had been be- d, and Almagro 200 leagues to the of Pizarro's government. This divi- oned a warm dispute between them, ning Cuzco within his own district; xterity of Pizarro effected a recon-

He persuaded his rival that the hich really belonged to him lay to ard of Cuzco, and that it was equal hes, and might be as easily conquered He offered him his assistance in the , the success of which he did not t to be questionable.

might have the honour of subduing a for himself, Almagro listened to e; and, joining some of Pizarro's his own, he penetrated, with great d difficulty, into Chilé, losing many a as he passed over mountains of an height, and always covered with e reduced, however, a considerable it country. But the Peruvians had o well acquainted with war, not to tage of the division of the Spanish hey made an effort to regain their which, Pizarro being indisposed, and t a considerable distance, they were cessful. The latter, however, had been informed of the siege of Cuzco, quishing all views of distant con- returned to secure the grand objects mer labours. He raised the siege, slaughter of the assailants; but, ained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy than the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, was sacrificed to the security of his rival.

Not satisfied with his success, Pizarro was still urged by his ambition to undertake new enterprises. The southern countries of America offered the richest conquest. Toward this quarter, the mountains of Potosi, abounding with silver, had been discovered. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chilé, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons; an immense navigation, which discovered a rich and delightful country; but, as it is mostly flat, and therefore does not abound in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it. Flushed with repeated success, and having no superior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, Pizarro now indulged the natural violence of his temper, and exercised the harshest tyranny and cruelty against all who had thwarted his designs. This conduct raised a conspiracy against him, to which he fell a sacrifice in his own palace. The partisans of old Almagro now declared his son their viceroy; but the greater part of the nation, though extremely well satisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not join in this declaration. They waited the orders of the king of Spain, who sent Vaca de Castro to be their governor. This man, by his integrity and wisdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place everything on the most advantageous footing, both for itself and the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of La Plata and Potosi, which were formerly private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were silenced or crushed, and tranquillity was restored to Peru. It seems, however, that Castro had not been sufficiently skilled in gaining the favour of the Spanish statesmen, by proper bribes or promises, which a ministry would always expect from the governor of so rich a country. By their advice, counsellors were sent over to control Castro, and the colony was again unsettled. Party spirit began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo Pizarro set himself at the head of his brother's partisans, with whom many new malcontents were united. It was now no longer a dispute between governors about the bounds of their jurisdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal submission to the king. He strengthened himself daily, and even went so far as to decapitate a governor who was sent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the Spanish admiral in the South Sea, by whose

means he purposed to obstruct the landing of any troops from Spain; and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the state of affairs, when the court of Spain, sensible of its error in not sending into America men whose character and virtue only, and not cabal, pleaded in their behalf, dispatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gasca, a man differing from Castro only by being of a more mild and insinuating behaviour, but with the same love of justice, the same greatness of soul, and disinterested spirit. All who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked to his standard: many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gasca, forsook their old connexions; the admiral was gained over by insinuation to return to his duty; and a full pardon was offered to Pizarro himself, provided that he would return to his allegiance. But, so intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that he was inclined to incur every hazard, rather than submit. With those, therefore, who continued to adhere to his interest, he risked a battle, in which he was defeated and captured. His execution soon followed; and thus the brother of him who had conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a sacrifice to secure the Spanish dominion over that country.

OF THE ORIGINAL INHABITANTS OF AMERICA.

The discovery of America not only opened a new source of wealth to the commercial part of Europe, but an extensive field of speculation to the philosopher. So striking seemed the disparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that some speculative men ventured to affirm, that it was impossible they could be derived from one common source. This, however, was an ill-founded conclusion. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to their different degrees of improvement, the manner in which they acquire the necessaries of life, the force of custom and habit, and other circumstances: but the great outlines of humanity are to be discovered among them all, notwithstanding the various shades which distinguish one nation from another.

When the thirst of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immersed in what they call barbarism, but which, however, was a state of honest independence and noble simplicity. The natives of America, except the inhabitants of the empires of Peru and Mexico, were unacquainted with almost every European art; even agriculture was hardly known, or sparingly cultivated. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the necessaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and forests supplied in great abundance. This exercise gave to their limbs a strength and agility unknown among other nations. The same cause, perhaps, render their bodies, in general, where the heat of t sun was not too violent, uncommonly straig and well proportioned. Their muscles we firm and strong; their bodies and heads th tish, which was the effect of art; their feature were regular, but their countenances flerce their hair long, black, lank, and as strong a that of a horse. The colour of their skin wa a reddish-brown, admired among them, and heightened by the constant use of bear's fat and paint. Their characters were altogether formed by their circumstances and modes of life. A people constantly employed in procuring by the chase the means of precarious subsistence, and who were generally engaged in war, could not be supposed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or a high flow of spirits. They were, therefore, in general, grave even to sadness; they had not that giddy vivacity which is observed among some nations in Europe, and they despised it. Ignorant of the arts of amusement, among which that of agreeably trifling in conversation is one of the most considerable, they only spoke when they had something important to communicate; and their actions, words, and even looks, were all attended with some meaning. This was natural to men who were almost continually engaged in pursuits which to them were of the highest importance. Their subsistence depended entirely on what they procured by their hands; and their fame, their honour, and everything dear to them, might be lost by the smallest inattention to the designs of their enemies. Having no particular object to attach them to one place, they hastened to wherever they expected to find a most abundance the necessaries of life. Often which are the effects of agriculture and art, they did not possess. The different tribes or nations were, for the same reason, very small, when compared with civilized societies, in which industry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vast number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders mutually useful. These small tribes lived at an immense distance from each other; they were separated by a desert frontier, and hidden in the depth of impenetrable and almost boundless forests.

Liberty was the prevailing passion of the aboriginal Americans; and their government, under the influence of this sentiment, was better secured than by the wisest political regulations. They were far, however, from despising all marks of authority: they were attentive to the voice of wisdom, which the aged had acquired by long experience; and they fought under the banners of the chief, in whose valour and address they had learned to place confidence. Among the tribes most engaged in war, the power of the chief naturally predominated, because the idea of having a military leader was the first source of his superiority; and the frequent exigences of the state, which made necessary such a leader, continued to support and even to enhance it. His power, however, was rather personal

coercive; he was revered as a father, rather feared as a monarch. He had no guards, isons, no officers of justice; and one act of iged violence would have deprived him of thority. Among some tribes a species of eracy prevailed, the elders having the chief ; while in other communities a kind of litary nobility existed, whose influence assed that of the elders. Public business conducted with the utmost simplicity, such ight recall, to those who are acquainted antiquity, a picture of the most early ages. heads of families met in a house or cabin pointed for the purpose. Here the affairs of tribe were discussed; and here those who e distinguished by eloquence or wisdom had pportunity of displaying their talents. The ors, like those of Homer, spoke in a bold rative style, with gestures apparently vio-, but often very natural and expressive. en the business was over, and they happened e well provided with food, they appointed a eral feast. The feast was enlivened with gs, in which the real or fabulous exploits of r progenitors were celebrated; and dancing also a part of the festivity.

ar and the chase were the only employ-ts of the men: every other concern was to the women. The most common motive ntering into a war, was either to revenge death of some lost friend, or to acquire pri-se. These wars were either undertaken by e private adventurers, or at the instance of whole community. In the latter case, all young men who were disposed to go out to le (for no one was compelled) gave a piece ood to the chief, as a token of their inten- to accompany him. The chief, who was ead them, fasted several days, during which conversed with no one, and was particularly ful to observe his dreams, which the pre-ptions natural to savages generally rendered favourable as he could desire. Other super-tions and ceremonies were observed. One m to place the war-kettle on the fire, as an lem that they were going out to devour their emies; which, among some nations, might in mer times have been the case. Then they patched a large shell to their allies, inviting m to come and drink the blood of their ene-s. They were of opinion that those in their lance must not only adopt their enmities, but nifest an equal resentment with themselves. d indeed, no people carried their friendships resentments so far as they: and this might xpected from their peculiar circumstances; that principle in human nature, which is the ng of the social affections, acts with the ter force the more it is restrained. The ricans, who lived in small societies, seeing bjects and few persons, became wonder-attached to those objects and persons, ould not be deprived *of them without feel-iserable. Their ideas were too confined, breasts too narrow, to entertain senti-of general benevolence, or even of ordi-*nary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it rendered them cruel to an incredible degree toward their foes, added a new force to their private friendships, and to the common tie which united the members of the same tribe, or those tribes which were in alliance.

Their wars were conducted with much art and address. The great qualities in their warriors were vigilance and attention to give and to avoid a surprise; and in these they were superior to other nations. As they were accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, as their perceptions were sharpened by keen necessity, and as they lived in every respect according to nature, their external senses had a high degree of acuteness. They could trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they could smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to a European eye, but which they could count and distinguish with the utmost facility. This, however, gave them no superiority, because their enemies were equally skilful. When they went out, therefore, they took care to avoid making use of anything by which they might incur the danger of a discovery. They lighted no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals; they lay close to the ground all day, and travelled only in the night; and, as they marched along in files, he who closed the rear diligently covered with leaves the tracks of the feet. In this manner they entered unawares the villages of their foes; and, while the flower of the nation were engaged in hunting, used to massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, making prisoners only those who had strength enough to be useful. On the other hand, when they found the hostile tribe approaching, they would conceal themselves among bushes, rise suddenly with tremendous shouts, and rush furiously into the conflict. When victorious, they would insult over the dead bodies, tear the scalp from the head, wallow like beasts in the blood, and sometimes even devour the flesh. They frequently treated their captives with the most horrible cruelty. Fixing upon one who had killed many of their friends in the battle, and whom no family would adopt, they tied him to a stake, began to torture him at the extremity of his body, and gradually approached the more vital parts. One plucked out his nails by the roots, one by one; another took a finger into his mouth, and tore the flesh off with his teeth; a third thrust the finger, mangled as it was, into the bowl of a pipe, made red-hot, which he smoked like tobacco: then they bruised the toes and fingers between stones; they pulled off the flesh from the teeth, cut circles about his joints, made gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they seared immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately: they pulled off his flesh, mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with

the blood, in the enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they had thus torn off the flesh, they twisted the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, while others were employed in pulling and extending the limbs in every way that could increase the torment. This was continued often for five or six hours. They occasionally unbound him to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they should inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety and excess of torments, would sometimes fall into so profound a sleep, that they were obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. They would then stick him all over with small matches, that easily took fire, but burned slowly; they would run sharp reeds into every part of his body, drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes: and, lastly, when they had burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires, had so mangled the body that it exhibited the appearance of a continued wound, had mutilated his face in such a manner, that it seemed to have nothing human about it, had peeled the skin from the head, and poured red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they would unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted on every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, would run hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, put an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, would even outdo the men in this scene of horror, while the principal persons sat round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the short intervals of his torments, would smoke too, appear unconcerned, and converse with his tormentors about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seemed to be a contest, which should exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost superhuman: not a groan, a sigh, or a distortion of countenance would escape him; he would recount his own exploits, relate to them what cruelties he had inflicted upon their countrymen, and threaten them with the revenge that would attend his death; and, though his reproaches exasperated them to the utmost rage, he would continue his insults even for their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquisite methods, and more sensible parts of the body, to be afflicted.

This resentful and malignant barbarity did not preclude, in the ordinary concerns of life, the greatest warmth of social kindness. To those who lived in the same district, or were in alliance with the tribe, the most friendly regard was shown: and, if any one had been unsuccessful in the chase, or had met with any misfortune, he felt no other effect from it, than that it gave him an opportunity of experiencing the benevolence and attachment of his neighbours and allies.

The feast of the dead, a periodical solemnity among the savages, exhibited the force of their friendship. All who had died during the last eight or ten years were taken out of their graves, and conveyed to a particular spot, where many tribes assembled to testify their sorrow. The bodies were cleansed, as far as it was possible to purify them; the separated bones were preserved with religious care; and, after a feast, in which no mirth prevailed, a reinterment took place.

These practices and ceremonies are not so habitual as they formerly were. European connexions have had some effect both in softening the cruelty of the savages, and in weakening the force of their unsophisticated feelings. They are still inhuman to their captives but not to the same extent of brutal ferocity, and they are still friendly and grateful, though not to that romantic excess in which they formerly indulged.

Their religious feelings claim some notice. The god of war is revered by most of their tribes. Him they invoke before they go out to the field; and, as his disposition may be more or less favourable to them, they conclude that they shall be more or less successful. Some tribes worship the sun or moon: among others there are various traditions relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods; traditions which, while they resemble the Grecian fables, are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of these barbarians: and, except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. The ministers of those beings are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These men are supposed to be inspired by the good genii most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events: they are called to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the spirits whether their patients will recover, and in what manner they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is enclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red-hot: on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own perspiration. Then they hurry him from this kind of bath, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which, even among them, often performs remarkable cures. The

ggiers have likewise the use of some specifics, wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are xterous in curing wounds by the application herbs: but the power of each remedy is tributed to the magical ceremonies which rm a part of the process.

It should be observed by the reader, that the rticulars which have been mentioned relate the natives of North America. On the first pearance of the inhabitants of the New orld, their discoverers also found those of e south to be, in several particulars, very like the generality of the people of the cient hemisphere. They were different in eir features and complexions; they were not ly averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; d, when roused by force from their native iolence, and compelled to work, they sank der tasks which the inhabitants of the other ntinent would have performed with ease. is feebleness of constitution seemed almost iversal among the inhabitants of South nerica. The Spaniards were also surprised the smallness of their appetite. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the st mortified hermits, while, on the other nd, the appetite of the strangers appeared to Americans insatiably voracious; and they rmed that one Spaniard devoured more food a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. t, though the demands of the natives for d were very sparing, so limited was their ıculture, that they hardly raised what was fficient for their own consumption. Many the inhabitants confined their industry to production of a few plants, which, in a and warm climate, were easily trained to barity; but, if a few Spaniards settled in district, such a small addition of supernerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty res, and brought on a famine. The inhaants of South America, compared with those he north, are generally more feeble in their nes, less vigorous in the efforts of their nds, of a gentle and dastardly spirit, more laved by pleasure, and more addicted to olence.

With respect to the North American Indians, re are very few remaining within the limits he United States. By treaty, and other ns, the federal government has succeeded emoving twenty-two tribes, numbering a alation of nearly 130,000 persons, to the t of the Mississippi. How long the Indians he allowed to retain their new abodes it is easy to say. It is probable that, at no ant period, all of them whom disease has ed, will be pushed still further westward, he tide of emigration from the Atlantic central states. If we may believe the rican commissioners for Indian affairs, the oval has been beneficial *to the expatriated* es. "*The removal of the Indians*," say "*from the east to the west of the Mississ has not had, as was anticipated by some,* a deleterious and discouraging influence. It has stimulated them to action, and their condition has been greatly improved. They have built themselves comfortable cabins, such as are generally seen in our new settlements; opened small plantations, and that, sometimes, without any assistance or means except their axe and their hoe. This is very perceptible, especially with the Creeks and Choctaws, who are getting fine plantations; and those who have been in the country a few years, already raise considerable produce for sale. They have also encouraged district schools, and a considerable part of this expense is borne by the Indians themselves. The influence of the gospel has also been very perceptible in elevating their moral character, and promoting habits of industry." The reader must, however, bear in mind, that this picture is drawn by persons who have an interest in representing the conduct of their government in a favourable light; and that the compulsory transfer of multitudes, from the land of their birth and their ancestors, to a remote territory, must necessarily have been productive of much grief and suffering to the reluctant emigrants.

That the Indians are not all of them quite as happy as the commissioners wish the world to believe, the following extract from Mr. Catlin's excellent work on the North American Indians will sufficiently prove. In his wanderings in the "Far West," the Puncahs was one of the tribes which he visited. "The chief of this tribe," says he, "whose name is Shoo-de-gacha, (smoke,) I painted at full length, and his wife also, a young and very pretty woman, whose name is Hee-la-'hdee, (the pure fountain;) her neck and arms were entirely tattooed, which is a very frequent mode of ornamenting the body amongst this and other tribes; which is done by pricking into the skin, gunpowder and vermilion. The chief, who was wrapped in a buffalo robe, is a noble specimen of native dignity and philosophy. I conversed much with him; and, from his dignified manners, as well as from the soundness of his reasoning, I became fully convinced that he deserved to be the sachem of a more numerous and prosperous tribe. He related to me, with great coolness and frankness, the poverty and distress of his nation; and, with the method of a philosopher, predicted the certain and rapid extinction of his tribe, which he had not the power to avert. Poor, noble chief! who was equal to, and worthy of, a greater empire! He sat upon the deck of the steamer, overlooking the little cluster of his wigwams, mingled amongst the trees; and, like Caius Marius weeping over the ruins of Carthage, shed tears as he was descanting on the poverty of his ill-fated little community, which he told me had once been powerful and happy; that the buffaloes, which the Great Spirit had given them for food, and which formerly spread all over their green prairies, had all been killed or driven out by the approach of white men, who wanted their

skins; that their country was now entirely destitute of game, and even of roots for their food, as it was one continued prairie; and that his young men, penetrating the countries of their enemies for buffaloes, which they were obliged to do, were cut to pieces and destroyed in great numbers. That his people had foolishly become fond of fire-water, (whisky,) and had given away everything in their country for it; that it had destroyed many of his warriors, and soon would destroy the rest; that his tribe was too small, and his warriors too few, to go to war with the tribes around them; that they were met and killed by the Sioux on the north, by the Pawnees on the west, and by the Osages and Konzas on the south; and still more alarmed from the constant advance of the pale faces, their enemies, from the east, with whisky and small-pox, which already had destroyed four-fifths of his tribe, and soon would impoverish and at last destroy the remainder of them. In this way did this shrewd philosopher lament over the unlucky destiny of his tribe; and I pitied him with all my heart. I have no doubt of the correctness of his representations; and I believe there is no tribe on the frontier more in want, nor any more deserving, of the sympathy and charity of the government, and Christian societies of the civilized world."

The work of extinction is, in fact, proceeding with frightful rapidity. Several tribes have, within the last ten years, been wholly swept away by the small-pox, and others have been extremely reduced in numbers. In 1832, there perished, by small-pox, more than 10,000 out of 23,000 of the Pawnee tribe. The Osages and the Sioux have equally suffered, from the same cause. Of the Minatarrees, Knistenaux, Blackfeet, Chayennes, and Crows, 25,000 died in the course of four or five months. Among the tribes which have been extinguished is that of the Mandans—a singular race, distinguished by the traders as the "polite and friendly Mandans." They differed greatly in many points from other Indians, and were more civilized. "There are a great many of these people," says Mr. Catlin, "whose complexions appear as light as half-breeds; and, amongst the women particularly, there are many whose skins are almost white, with the most pleasing symmetry and proportion of features; with hazel, with gray, and with blue eyes, with mildness and sweetness of expression, and excessive modesty of demeanour, which render them exceedingly pleasing and beautiful." Mr. Catlin conjectures, that the parent stock of these people is to be found in the Welsh adventurers, whom Prince Madoc is asserted to have led to the transatlantic shores.

It thus appears that the red race is doomed to annihilation. This will be the second time that such a terrific event will have occurred upon the American continent. One race, and that highly civilized, has already been obliterated, and not a vestige of even its history is left. Throughout a large part of North America, and extending far into South America, are found the remains of an extinct people, who must have been in an advanced stage of society, accustomed to luxuries, and not unskilled in the arts. Over some of the indications of their existence the forests have twice been renewed—a process which could be accomplished only in the course of numerous ages. We find, among many other things, the ruins of cities, mighty military works, immense tumuli, fragments of sculpture, elegantly modelled urns adorned with paintings, bracelets, silver drinking-cups gilded inside, and mummies, in the hand of one of which, a female, was a fan formed of turkey's feathers, so disposed that it might be shut and opened. Whence this people came, how long they existed, and when and how they vanished, we seek in vain to discover.

A GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.

This great western continent extends about 9000 miles in length and 4000 miles in breadth, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa; and to the west the Pacific, by which it is separated from Asia. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the south, joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a kind of isthmus 1450 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so narrow, as to make the communication between the oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles across. In the great gulf which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, a multitude of islands are found, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we proceed to treat of separate countries in their order, it will be proper to take notice of those mountains and rivers which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular kingdoms or provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. America is not, in general, a mountainous country: yet it has some mountains of stupendous height. The Andes exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe: extending from the Isthmus of Darien to the Strait of Magellan, they divide the whole southern part of America, and run a length of more than 4000 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length. Chimborazo rises to 21,600 feet; and its summit is always covered with snow. This was long deemed the loftiest point of the Andes, but recent discoveries have proved this opinion to be erroneous. The highest peaks are found in that part called the Bolivian Andes, between 14 degrees and 17 degrees S. latitude. The most elevated of them is the Nevado of

which rises to 25,250 feet. The Nevado ani is 24,200 feet high, and the volcano atieri, 22,000 feet high. Compared with des, the North American mountains, in some parts of very great altitude, gnificant.

ica is, without question, that part of ɔe which is best watered, not only for port of life, and all the purposes of fer- ıut for the convenience of intercourse ffic. In North America, those vast ıf country, situated beyond the Apala- .ountains, are watered by spacious lakes, aot only communicate with each other, : rise to several great rivers, that receive thers in their course. These streams, ag over an immense space, lay open the recesses of this great continent, and uch an inlet for commerce, as must pro- .e greatest advantages, whenever the adjacent shall be fully inhabited by an ous and civilized people. The eastern North America also possesses many f great depth, length, and commodious ion. South America is, in this respect, fortunate. It enjoys the river of ıs, the Rio de la Plata, the Orinoco, and ther noble streams.

ıntry of such vast extent on each side quator must necessarily have a variety as well as climates. It is a treasury of producing most of the metals, mine- ıts, and trees, which are found in the ırts of the world, and many of them in quantities and higher perfection. The d silver of America have supplied Eu- th such immense quantities of those that they have become much more ı; so that the gold and silver of Europe ır little proportion to the high price set em before the discovery of America.

ɔuntry also produces diamonds, pearls, s, amethysts, and other valuable stones, ıy being brought into Europe, have con- likewise to lower their value. To ay be added a great number of commo- hich, though of less price, are of much use; as, cochineal, indigo, logwood, d, fustic, lignum-vitæ, rice, ginger, co- the chocolate-nut, sugar, cotton, to- he Peruvian bark, a variety of balsams, ay other articles of traffic, to some of e were entire strangers, while we were to purchase others at an extravagant m Asia and Africa.

respect to the quadrupeds of this new world, it may be observed in general, that they are less than those of the old; even such as are carried hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, and are rarely, if ever, seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we compare the animals of the New and the Old World, we find one very disproportioned to the other. The American wild beasts seem to be divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. The cougar and the jaguar, indeed, are sometimes fierce and mischievous; but they are despicable animals in comparison with the lion of Africa, and the tiger of Asia. All the animals in the southern parts of America seem to be different from those of the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor do there appear to be any common to both, but those which, being able to bear the cold of the north, have passed from one continent to the other. Thus the bear, the wolf, the reindeer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as of Russia; while the lion and tiger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America are smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that prevails through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of its Author, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to South America, dwindles in a few generations; but it becomes at the same time more prolific; and, instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five or six. The wisdom of Providence, in making formidable animals unprolific, is obvious: had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit or the rat, all the arts of man would be unequal to the contest, and we should soon perceive them to become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

Though the savages still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America is chiefly claimed by the people of the new states, by the English, and the United States; and the West Indian islands are divided among the Spaniards, English, and French. The Dutch indeed possess several small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence; and the Danes have three; but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America.

A SUMMARY VIEW OF THE SUCCESSIVE SETTLEMENTS OF NORTH AMERICA.

Names of Countries.	*When settled.*	*By whom.*
Greenland	984	By the Icelanders.
Mexico	1521	By the Spaniards.
Florida	1524	By the Spaniards.
Virginia	May 13, 1607	By Christopher Newport.
Quebec	1608	By the French.
Newfoundland . . .	June, 1610	By John Guy.

Names of Countries.	*When settled.*	*By whom.*
New York	about 1614	By the Dutch.
New Jersey	1625	By the Danes and Swedes.
Plymouth	1620	By a part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
New Hampshire	1623	By a small English colony, near the mouth of the Piscataqua.
Delaware } Pennsylvania }	1627	By the Swedes and Finlanders.
Massachusetts-Bay	1628	By John Endicot.
Maryland	1633	By a colony of Roman Catholics, under Lord Baltimore.
Connecticut	1635	By Mr. Fenwick.
Rhode Island	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. but settled some time before this by the English.
South Carolina	1670	By Governor Sale.
California	1679	By the Spaniards.
Pennsylvania	1681	By W. Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
Louisiana	1699	By French adventurers.
North Carolina	1729	Erected into a separate government, but settled before by the English, in 1665.
Georgia	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky	1769	By Colonel Daniel Boon.
Vermont	1777	By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory N.W. of the Ohio river	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.
Indiana	1795	By a variety of colonists.
Tennessee	1796	By emigrants from North Carolina.

In the forty-six years which have elapsed since the settlement of Tennessee, several other spacious countries to the west of the United States have been successively added to the territories of that republic, as federal states, all of which will be found described under the head of "The United States."

GRAND DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

Countries.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Belonging to.
New Britain	2800	2200	4,000,000	. . .	. . .	Gr. Britain
Canada	1300	700	348,000	Quebec	. . .	Gr. Britain
Nova Scotia	350	100	19,000	Halifax	. . .	Gr. Britain
New Brunswick	140	220	26,000	Fredericton	. . .	Gr. Britain
United States of N. America	2750	486 to 1340	2,369,794	Washington	3600 S.W.	Independ.
Mexico, including California	2400	130 to 630	1,258,000	Mexico	6800 S.W.	Independ.
Texas	700	500	260,000	S Felipe de Austin	6200 S.W.	Independ.
Central America, or Guatemala	800	100 to 270	141,000	New Guatemala	4650 S.W.	Independ.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Countries.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. and bearing fr. Lond.	Belonging to.
Venezuela	900	660	403,372	Caracas	4500 S. W.	Independ.
New Granada	800	600	379,500	Bogota	5500 S. W.	Independ.
Ecuador	830	500	315,000	Quito	5700 S. W.	Independ.
Peru	1680	1000	485,000	Lima	5900 S. W.	Independ.
Bolivia	920	800	380,000	Chuquisaca	6000 S. W.	Independ.
Chili	1170	100 to 200	170,000	Santiago	6600 S. W.	Independ.
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	1180	200 to 420	276,000	. . .	. . .	Left to the Natives.
Argentine Republic, or La Plata	1320	620	726,000	Buenos Ayres	6040 S. W.	Independ.
Brazil	2600	2500	2,800,000	Rio de Janeiro	6000 W.	Independ.
Guayana	500	450	146,000	George Tn. Paramaribo Cayenne	Colonized by English, Dutch, and French.	

The principal islands of North America are Newfoundland, Cape Breton, and St. John's in the Gulf of St. Laurence; the West Indian group, between North and South America, the Bermuda and Bahama isles in the Atlantic

GREENLAND.

THOUGH this extensive country has been said to belong properly neither to America nor to Europe, it ought certainly to be referred to the former continent, whether it be an island, or united to the main land to the north of Baffin's Bay, by which it is bounded on the west. To the south it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell; on the south-east it is washed by the Atlantic; and, on the east, it is bounded by the Greenland Sea, and the strait which separates it from Iceland, from which it is distant about 200 miles: to the north its limits are not yet ascertained; nor is it decided whether it is one continuous territory, or divided into islands: there are some circumstances which seem to favour the latter supposition.

The climate is extremely severe, the greater part of the country being generally covered with ice and snow. Among the vegetables which it produces are sorrel, *angelica, wild tansey,* and *rye-grass. Europeans have sown barley* and *oats, which have grown as high as in warmer climates, but have seldom advanced so far as to* ear, and never, even in the warmest places, have come to maturity. The stunted trees are the juniper, willow, and birch. The animals are white hares, foxes, reindeer, and white bears, which last are fierce and mischievous. The only tame animals are a species of dogs resembling wolves. The shores are frequented by the walrus, and several kinds of seals; and the seas contain various species of whales, some of which are white, and others black; the black sort, the grand bay whale, is in most esteem, on account of its bulk, and the great quantity of fat or blubber which it affords. This animal is usually between 60 and 80 feet in length; its tongue is about 18 feet long, enclosed in long pieces of what is called whalebone, which are covered with a kind of hair like horse-hair; and on each side of the tongue are 250 pieces of this whalebone: the bones of its body are as hard as those of an ox, and of no use. A number of ships, chiefly English and Dutch, are annually employed in the whale-fishery. When a whale appears, the boats are sent out, of which each

ship has four or five, carrying six or eight men; and the person who stands at the head of the boat, strikes the creature with his harpoon or barbed dart. Finding itself wounded, it dives down into the deep with such velocity of motion, that, to prevent the wood of the boat from taking fire by the violent rubbing of the rope against the side of it, one man is constantly employed in wetting it. After the whale has run some hundred fathoms, it is forced to come up again for air, when it spouts out the water with a tremendous noise. On its emerging, the process of harpooning is repeated; and the vital parts of the raging victim are pierced with spears, until streams of blood are spouted out. The boats follow for some miles, and at last the dying animal turns itself upon its back, and is drawn to the shore, or to the ship, if the land be at a great distance: there they cut the fatty covering of the huge body in pieces, and, by boiling the blubber, extract the oil, if they have conveniences on shore: otherwise they barrel up the pieces, and bring them home.

The vast fields and mountains of ice in these seas, many of which are above a mile in length, and 100 feet in thickness, are truly stupendous, and, when illuminated by the sun's rays, dazzling and beautiful. Their splendour is discernible many leagues off. In one place, it is said, at the mouth of an inlet, the ice has formed magnificent arches, extending above 20 miles. But when the pieces floating in the sea are put in motion by a storm, and dash one against the other, the scene they exhibit is most terrible. The Dutch had thirteen ships crushed to pieces by them in one season.

The Greenlanders are short, few exceeding five feet in height. Their faces are broad, eyes small, noses flat, and lips thick. Their hair is long, straight, and black; but they have seldom any beards, because it is their constant practice to root them out. They have high breasts and broad shoulders, especially the women, who are obliged to carry great burdens from their early years. They are very light and agile, and use their hands with much skill and dexterity. They are not very lively in their tempers; but they are good-humoured, friendly, and unconcerned about futurity. Their food principally consists of fish, seals, and sea-fowl. The men hunt and fish; but, when they have towed their booty to land, they trouble themselves no farther about it: it would be accounted beneath their dignity even to draw out the fish upon the shore. The women are the butchers and cooks, and act as curriers, shoemakers, and tailors. They also build and repair the houses and tents, so far as relates to the masonry, the men doing only the carpenters' work. They live in huts during the winter, which is incredibly severe; yet, in the longest summer days, the weather is so hot, from the long continuance of the sun's rays, that the inhabitants are obliged to throw off their summer garments.

One Gunnbeorn, an Icelander, who had been driven out to sea in a storm, is said to have discovered Greenland, and, on his return, made a favourable report of the country, as neither too distant nor too inhospitable for colonization. but no attempts were made to plant it, or to take possession of it, before Erik the Red, in 982, proceeded thither on a voyage of exploration. He surveyed the coast and examined the country during two years, and then returned to Iceland, where he prevailed upon as many of his countrymen as filled twenty-five small vessels to put themselves under his direction. Of these only fourteen reached the spot where he fixed his colony. Settlements were multiplied along the coast; churches were built, and a man of learning and merit was appointed to direct the ecclesiastical concerns of the new establishment. This prelate resided at Gardè; and, under him and his successors, the church continued to flourish. A regular intercourse, friendly and commercial, was maintained with Denmark or Norway until the year 1406. The accumulation of ice then obstructed the continuance of correspondence, and the colony was neglected, if not forgotten. At length, in 1720, Hans Egede, minister of Vigen in Norway, conceived the idea of going in search of the remains of the ancient colony, if any existed; and having, with some difficulty, procured an approbation of his plan from the court of Copenhagen, he went to Greenland, where he continued till 1735, preaching the gospel to the natives, and making many converts. His example was followed by several other missionaries; and, about thirty years afterwards, the Moravians began their settlements, which were chiefly formed in the south-western part of the country.

East Greenland, or Spitsbergen, was long considered as a part of West or Old Greenland; but it is now known to be a cluster of islands, lying between 76 and 80 degrees of N. latitude, and 9 and 24 of E. longitude, and is generally referred to Europe. It was discovered, according to some, by Sir Hugh Willoughby, in 1553; or, as others suppose, by the Dutch navigator Barentz, in 1596. It obtained the name of Spitsbergen, or Craggy Mountain, from the height and ruggedness of its rocks. The principal island is about 300 miles in length from north to south. The products are nearly the same with those of the American Greenland. The mountains and islands of ice present the same appearance; and the whale fishery is carried on along the coast. The Russians claim this dreary country, and have settlements on some of the islands.

It having been reported, by some of the mariners who were employed in the whale-fishery of Greenland and Davis's Strait, that the northern seas were less clogged with ice than they had been for a whole previous century, the British ministers, in a time of full peace, directed their attention to the discovery of a northern passage to the Pacific Ocean. Four vessels were employed for that purpose, fortified with an additional coat of oak-plank, and strengthened within by many transverse

esist the pressure of ice; their overed with strong plates of iron; dinary accommodations of every provided for the bold adventurers. a and Alexander were sent to Baf- ider the command of Captain Ross, rothea and Trent more directly to ard, under Buchan. They reached d Isles in the spring of the year en separated. When the first two assed the 60th degree of latitude, ith many icebergs, like immense ite marble rising out of the sea. gth approached the coast of Green- ere visited by many of the natives, lad in seal-skins, and came off in d narrow canoes made of the same ins, sewed tightly together on a ne, which they managed with great When they had reached Waygat as found to be as sterile a spot as r formed: yet the ruins of huts t it had been inhabited. Near ht, on the western coast, a Danish was observed, and some of the na- seen in sledges of fir, drawn by ut the 76th degree, some of the appeared, who, though seemingly race with the other Greenlanders, w of the existence of any tribes to ard, or the use of a canoe, and astonishment at the sight of the species of whale, called the nar- ea-unicorn, furnished them with orn for various purposes; and they se of iron, as it was found in the ood. Having little or no wood, incommonly eager for the posses- They seemed to have an idea of of theft; for one of them, having sledge-hammer which he found on w it upon the ice, that he might it; but, being pursued, he left it, hamed to return. They were not ned as the southern natives, from differed also in having long beards. ot where Baffin placed the Carey otain Ross found a group, of which of considerable dimensions; and, ent part of the continent, it was imagined that an opening appeared to the westward, which might lead to an important discovery; but, after a careless search, he altered his course to the south-west. Sir James Lancaster's Sound seemed to excite strong hopes, from the swell and depth of the sea, the disappearance of ice, and the breadth of the inlet, supposed to be from 10 to 12 leagues. The captain, however, fancied that he could discern land at the end, and relinquished the search. In his southerly course, he sent a party on shore in the 74th degree of latitude; and the country, though uninhabited, seemed a less repulsive spot than any which had been seen in those parts. A wide stream of fresh water was found: its banks had a considerable stratum of soil; many shrubs and plants were observed, and limestone was seen in abundance.

In the voyage of Captain Buchan, the first appearance of ice was near Cherry Island, about 150 miles to the south-east of the Spitzbergen group. He then sailed to the west, in the hope of getting round to the north; but, his progress in that direction being impeded by ice, he tried a direct northern course; and both ships were quickly surrounded by immense masses. For ten days they remained nearly stationary, before they were extricated from their perilous situation by partial openings of the ice, through which they forced their way. They soon after anchored in Fair Haven. On that and the neighbouring islands, numerous herds of reindeer were observed, which, though it was near the end of June, had not entirely lost the whiteness of their winter dress. Resuming a northerly course, the vessels proceeded to the latitude of 80½ degrees, and were again blocked up. All hopes of advance were then abandoned, and the ships, rescued with extreme difficulty from the icy blockade, returned to England.

The ministry, not discouraged by these fruitless voyages, sent out Captain Parry in 1819, for the purpose of exploration; but our account of the three voyages of that enterprising officer, and the second voyage of Captain Ross, will be more properly reserved for the next head, as they greatly extended the boundaries of New Britain.

NEW BRITAIN.

AND EXTENT.—On these heads we k with precision or accuracy, as the o little known. We shall merely New Britain, or the country lying n's Bay, and commonly called the the Esquimaux, *comprehending d New North and South Wales, is the north, by a sea generally fro-* zen; on the east, by the Atlantic Ocean; by the bay and river of St. Laurence, and Canada, on the south; and by Russian America and the North Pacific, on the west. The most eastern part of this territory is the peninsula of Labrador, the north-west part of which is called East Maine. The country to the west of Hudson's Bay is named New South Wales.

BAYS, STRAITS, AND CAPES.—These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders by whom they were first discovered. The chief bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson and Belleisle. The passage into Baffin's Bay is called Davis's Strait; but it is too wide to be so called with propriety.

MOUNTAINS.—In the northern parts of this country are mountains covered with eternal snow: and the winds, blowing thence during three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

RIVERS—LAKES.—The principal lakes are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Coniapascaw, Churchill, and Nelson, all of which fall into Hudson's and James's Bays from the west and south. The mouths of all these rivers are full of shoals, except the Churchill, in which the largest ships may float, though, ten miles higher, the channel is obstructed by sandbanks. All, as far as they are known, have a number of rapids and cataracts. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months. Copper-mine and M'Kenzie's rivers fall into the Arctic or Northern Ocean. The valleys are in general full of lakes, formed not of springs, but of rains and snow.

METALS—MINERALS.—The mountains of Labrador appear to abound in iron ore. White spar is very common; and that beautiful kind, called, from the country, Labrador spar, is collected on the shores of the sea and lakes by the Esquimaux, or natives; for the rocks have not been discovered. Several small springs have been found, which have a weak chalybeate taste.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—The climate is intensely cold, and the country, in consequence, extremely barren. To the northward of Hudson's Bay, even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the earth has been supposed incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Almost every kind of European seed sown in this inhospitable climate has hitherto perished. This severity and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the soil occasioned by it, are experienced even in the latitude of 52 degrees, in the temperate parallel of Cambridge.

ANIMALS.—These are the moose and reindeer, bears, tigers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. The birds are partridges, bustards, geese, ducks, and all kinds of wild fowl. The chief amphibious animal is the seal; and the fish are whales, cod, and a white fish preferable to a herring; and in the rivers and fresh waters are great numbers of pike, perch, carp, and trout.

Almost all the quadrupeds of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of animals. When this season is over, which continues for three months, they all assume the snowy livery of winter, and every sort of beast, and most of the fowls, are white. This is a surprising fact, but it is yet more astonishing, that the dogs and cats from England, which have been carried to Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they originally had.

INHABITANTS.—The natives of this country are composed of different tribes: those of Labrador are called Esquimaux, or Ishimos. These appear to be a different race from the other native Americans, from whom they are particularly distinguished by a thick and bushy beard. They have small eyes, large teeth, and black and rugged hair. They go well clothed in skins, principally of bears, and are said to be mild-tempered and docile. They seem to be the same people with the Greenlanders, and resemble the Laplanders and Samoieds of the north of Europe and Asia. For the instruction of the Labrador Esquimaux, the Moravians have formed a settlement at Nain, near Unity Bay.

The only colony in that extensive country is that which was established by Lord Selkirk, who purchased the land from the Hudson's Bay Company. It is situated on the verge of New Britain, on the Red river, which falls into Lake Winnipeg, and is said to contain about 2000 or 3000 inhabitants, consisting of Scotch Highlanders, and old servants of the Hudson's Bay Company. Though the winter is severe, the soil is good, and the crops abundant. The original grant to Lord Selkirk comprised an area of more than 115,000 square miles; but it has since been discovered that a considerable part of the land is within the limits of the United States.

DISCOVERY.—In the hope of discovering a north-west passage to China, Captain Frobisher sailed to North America in 1576, and reached the coast of Labrador, but made little progress beyond that latitude. Davis, in 1585, sailed along the western coast of Greenland, gave his name to a large inland sea, and penetrated to the 72nd degree of latitude; whence he would have proceeded to the westward, if he had not been stopped by masses of ice. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, in 1607, 1608, and 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered a strait which led into a new Mediterranean, (miscalled however a bay,) a great part of which he coasted; and, his ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties with which he struggled in this empire of winter, he remained until spring, and prepared to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships without the same manly spirit to support them, mutinied, seized him and seven of those who were faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the

icy sea in an open boat. He and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned to England.

The exploration of Hudson's Bay was followed, but not immediately, by the establishment of a company, authorized to form settlements and erect forts, and to carry on trade with the natives. This corporation still subsists, and the traffic is considerable and productive. It was by the direction of the company that Mr. Hearne, in 1769, undertook a hazardous journey, for the purpose of discovering the northern limits of the American continent. He reached the mouth of a river, which derives its name from the copper-mines in the neighbourhood. He had then attained the 113th degree of western longitude, and the 70th of northern latitude; and it is evident that it was not merely an inland sea which he had reached, but the Arctic ocean. He visited one of the mines, and observed that the copper was beaten out by the aid of fire and two stones, and that the natives, who were Esquimaux, had sufficient skill to make hatchets and knives of that metal. An equally adventurous expedition was undertaken by Mr. Mackenzie, who, in 1789, proceeded to the Great Slave Lake, whence he advanced to the north-west, on a river called by his name, as far as the sea. In 1792 he renewed his researches, and traversed the continent to the coast of the Pacific, through an unexplored country, of which some notice will be taken when we treat of the United States.

After a long discontinuance of exploration in this part of North America, the abortive attempt of Captain Ross was made. As Ross's voyage was by no means satisfactory, Captain William Edward Parry sailed with two vessels and select crews to Davis's Strait. Being baffled in his attempt to penetrate the ice to the western coast, near the entrance of that strait, he pushed forward to Baffin's Bay without obstruction, until he met with a formidable icy barrier in the middle of it. Even this difficulty did not paralyse his efforts. He passed through the barrier, and reached Lancaster Sound with all the confidence of hope; which, however, was checked for some days by adverse winds. An easterly breeze at length sprang up; the ships crowded all sail, rapidly passed several headlands, and entered the Arctic, or Polar Sea. In their progress, land was observed to the northward, consisting of a series of islands; and, after a tedious navigation, from fogs and ice, they arrived at an island to which the Captain gave the name of Melville. Proceeding to the westward, they crossed, on the 4th of September, 1819, the meridian of 110. W., the latitude of 74. 44.; and thus became entitled to a parliamentary reward of £5000. Casting anchor in a roadstead, which Mr. Parry named, from the two ships, the Bay of the Hecla and the Griper, he hoisted the ensigns and pendants; and, he says, "It created in us no ordinary feeling of pleasure, to see the British flag waving for the first time in these regions, which had hitherto been considered beyond the limits of the habitable part of the world." But this pleasure was damped by the consideration of the increasing dangers and difficulties attendant on a continuance of the voyage to the westward. The rapid formation of the ice, the shortness of the day-light, and the effects which the crew of the Griper, forced on shore by the ice, began to feel from the efforts constantly necessary to work her, compelled the captain to turn his thoughts to the providing of winter-quarters, for which he fixed on the eastern side of Melville Island. The labour of cutting a canal through very thick ice, in order to place the ships in a state of safety for the winter, may be imagined, when it is stated that its length was 4082 yards. The ships at last were securely harboured, and the men made up their minds for the endurance of such a winter and such privations as they had never before experienced. A wooden housing was erected over each ship, and this frame-work was roofed over with a cloth composed of wadding-tilt, with which waggons are usually covered; and the boats, spars, running rigging, and sails, were removed on shore, in order to give as much room as possible on the upper deck, to enable the crew to take exercise on board, whenever the weather should be too inclement for walking on shore. To obviate the intrusion of the scurvy, a quantity of vinegar was allowed with the meat to each man, and lime-juice and sugar were also given; and, as the captain considered that the health of the mind has no small influence on that of the body, he found amusement for the men in reading, writing, and theatrical amusements. Even a weekly newspaper (we will not say, was established, but) was carried on for some months, under the title of the "North Georgia Gazette and Winter Chronicle;" and the weekly contributions of the officers not only agreeably employed the leisure hours of those who furnished them, but diverted the minds of the readers from the gloomy prospect which would sometimes obtrude itself even on the stoutest heart. For three months, the adventurers did not even see the sun; and for more than ten months they lingered in this dreary abode. Sometimes they varied the scene by excursions; and, when they stayed out for a night, they took tents, fuel, and provisions with them, in a light cart, to which blankets were appended as sails. The animals which they saw on these occasions were deer, musk-oxen, swallows, geese, ducks, plovers, and ptarmigans; the vegetables were the dwarf-willow, sorrel, poppy, and saxifrage; and, in one spot, they were surprised at finding a ranunculus in full flower.

We may easily suppose, that, to persons thus circumstanced, the return of the summer (which, to the Esquimaux, may be said to comprehend all our seasons except the winter) must have been exceedingly agreeable.

natives were seen amidst the Georgian group of islands; but, on the return of the ships, four canoes were seen paddling toward the Hecla, in Baffin's Bay, and the persons who were in them, says the captain, "approached with great confidence, without the least appearance of fear or suspicion. While paddling toward us, and indeed before we could plainly perceive their canoes, they continued to vociferate loudly; but nothing like a song, or even like any articulate sound which can be expressed by words, could be distinguished. Their canoes were taken on board at their own desire, plainly intimated by signs, and with their assistance; and they at once came up the side without the least hesitation. These people consisted of an old man, apparently much above sixty, and three younger, from nineteen to thirty years of age. As soon as they came on deck, their vociferations seemed to increase with their astonishment, and, I may add, their pleasure; for the reception which they met with seemed to create no less joy than surprise. Whenever they received a present, or anything was shown to them which excited fresh admiration, they expressed their delight by loud and repeated ejaculations, which they sometimes continued till they were quite hoarse and out of breath with the exertion. This noisy mode of expressing their satisfaction was accompanied by a jumping which continued for some minutes, according to the degree of passion which excited it, and the bodily powers of the person who exercised it, the old man being rather too infirm, but still doing his utmost to go through the performance."

The behaviour of another tribe of the natives seemed still more to amuse and interest the strangers. While the officers were employed in astronomical observations, the Esquimaux amused themselves in the most good-natured manner with the crew of one of the boats. Lieutenant Hoppner endeavoured to take a likeness of a young native; but, such was his inclination to jump about, when pleased, that it was exceedingly difficult to make him sit still for a few minutes. His activity was still more manifested, when a looking-glass was shown to him: he jumped for joy, and was quite in raptures; while an old man, having had one smile at his own queer face, looked uncommonly grave on the occasion. In an interview with some women, the word pilletay (give me) resounded from every one; all wished to get buttons, or other ornamental trifles. A woman who was the owner of a sledge, readily gave it in exchange for some pikes, which she licked as soon as she had received them: another female gave a dog for an axe; and various bargains were subsequently adjusted without any wish, on the part of the natives, to practise that dishonesty which is very frequent among savage tribes.

At the end of the long winter, the ships were in perfect condition; the seamen were zealous in the cause of discovery; and the captain eagerly hoped to profit by the return of favourable weather. On the 1st of August, 1821, he set sail to the westward, and continued his course, amidst temporary obstacles, during one half of the short season which is allowed for the navigation of that part of the Polar Sea—a period not exceeding seven weeks. He had almost reached the longitude of 114 degrees when the consideration of the increasing peril induced him to return to Baffin's Bay, as he had then no chance of penetrating to Behring's Strait. He carefully explored the western side of that bay, and met with some whale-fishing vessels, in a latitude previously deemed inaccessible. He then returned to England, and, after an absence of about eighteen months, safely arrived in the Thames.

Hardened against intense cold, by which none of the voyagers had very severely suffered, the captain, in 1821, undertook another voyage to the north, but did not return to the Georgian islands. He passed the short summer chiefly in an examination of Repulse Bay, (a peninsula extending from about 66 to 70 degrees,) and of some inlets which proved to be merely channels running deep into the land; and, when the winter commenced, he chose Winter Island for his station, situated in a comparatively low latitude, yet to the north of the Arctic Circle. For almost three-quarters of a year, the ships were ice-bound in this spot; and, during four months of that time, the adventurers saw no human beings except their own party: but, in addition to their own exercises and amusements, their solitude was at length enlivened by the appearance of a body of natives, who had never before seen any Europeans. Pleased rather than alarmed at the sight of strange machines and strange men, they boldly entered the vessels, and one of them carried an old man upon his back, to show him the amazing sight. Some of the sailors quickly returned the visit, and were received in the huts of the Esquimaux, with marks of the most friendly joy. These huts were formed of blocks of hard snow, fitted to each other like courses of masonry, to the height of about eight feet, the upper part having the form of a cupola. Doors were cut out of the solid wall, and plates of clear ice were inserted as windows. The bed-place was formed of snow-blocks, with neatness and regularity: the covering of the couch consisted of the smaller branches of the pine-tree, and sometimes of skins; and at each end was a block for the reception of a lamp, and of those garments which the sleeper might not want during his repose. The ordinary dress was composed of a coat of skin, surmounted by a hood, and trimmed with fur; and both sexes wore very high boots, which served as pockets, tool-boxes, and cupboards. They made use of bows, arrows, and spears, of wood or of horn; and, with the last, fish were caught when the ice [illegible] many used to eat fresh in a raw state.

ers, and more particularly the women, ked it in the following mode. A pot-stone, embling a kitchen ash-shovel, was filled h oil: in this, wicks of moss floated, and e lighted for the fuel. The oil was gra- lly supplied from strings of fat hung up ve the flames, the heat of which melted m into so many reservoirs of grease. Ano- r stone utensil, formed like a trough, was ed over the fire thus made, and in it the t was stewed. The people were not very cate in their mode of eating, nor were they t or clean in their persons. Their com- ions were of a dirty-looking yellowish te; their general stature was short, and r forms were apparently not robust.

he quadrupeds of the country were rein-, dogs, wolves, bears, foxes, ermines, mar- s, and hares; the birds were ducks, gulls, buntings, ptarmigans, hawks, owls, and as; the insects were bees, mosquitoes, ha, spiders, and flies. Of plants or flowers, species were observed; yet some grew in usion. The wild tansy, of which the roots e eaten, the poppy, andromeda, saxifrage, nd of cowslip, and a bright yellow moss, e seen with some degree of surprise; and, Winter Island, where the sailors had gar- , vegetation was, for a short season, very t.

n the renewal of the voyage, a large bay was d to the eastward of that island, in the ude of 69 degrees, and within it was an in- ted island, called Igloolek. After fruitless lering, the captain, when he could only ive a frozen sea, returned to that island, e the ships were secured for the winter. rsions were frequently made, during that and dismal season, in sledges drawn by ; and the occasional society of the natives d to amuse the seamen, who admired the purple tinge of health which appeared on road faces of the girls, gazed on the ex- ive eyes of many of them, and smiled at grunt which they uttered when they were y pleased.

er endeavouring, in vain, to proceed in a rly direction, the captain returned to and in the autumn of 1823. In the sum- of the following year, he sailed from the en coast of Greenland, and proceeded t icy obstacles to Barrow's Strait, whence led to the Prince Regent's Inlet. At Port n, in the latitude of 73 degrees, he passed inter. On emerging from that station, he ned the inlet to the southward, but made portant discovery. During the survey, ary, being near the shore, where the only t was then to be found, was driven by a k of ice upon the lower accumulations, hrown into such serious danger, that all pts to repair the damage which the vessel uffered, and to bring it *again into play,* fruitless; *its crew and stores were there- moved to the Hecla, and it was abandoned* as unserviceable. Thus deprived of his consort, the captain desisted from his search, and re- turned to Great Britain.

In these voyages, the atmospherical and meteorological observations, and the variations of the magnetic needle, were in some degree curious, but not so important as to require de- tail in a compendious work. The greatest de- gree of cold that was experienced was less intense than what is sometimes felt in Russia, not being more than 55 degrees below the freez- ing point. Not one of the crew of either ship perished by cold, unless we attribute to that cause the fate of an unfortunate man, who fell through a chasm in the ice, and could not be extricated.

While Parry was employed in his first voyage, Captain John Franklin undertook the task of penetrating from Hudson's Bay to the Arctic Sea. So slow were necessarily the movements of this officer and his associates, and so long were they detained at different stations, by the inclemency of the weather and by various diffi- culties, that almost two years had elapsed from the commencement of the journey, ere prepa- rations were made for a voyage down the Cop- per-mine river. In consequence of those inter- ruptions of navigation which were occasioned by the rapids in that river, the canoes and bag- gage were dragged over snow and ice, at different portages, for 117 miles; but this labour, and other inconveniences, seemed to be forgotten when the Polar Sea appeared. On that ocean the party eagerly commenced a coasting voyage to the eastward. Little or no ice was seen, and nothing opposed the progress of the boats for five days. A cape was then weathered, and an extensive inlet found, to which the name of Coronation Gulf was given. Checked by the want of supplies, the captain now returned to the land, and marching was substituted for navigation. Some of his native attendants fell victims to the combined pressure of famine, cold, and fatigue. Subordination ceased; de- spair succeeded; Lieutenant Hood was mur- dered by an Iroquois, who in his turn was shot by Dr. Richardson; and only three companions, feeble and nearly exhausted, were left with Mr. Franklin at Fort Enterprise, when some natives arrived with provisions. On their return to York Factory, it was calculated that they had jour- neyed, by land and by water, (the navigation of the Polar Sea being included,) about 5600 miles. In the country through which they passed they met with some barbarian tribes, differing from the Esquimaux, but resembling the ordinary tribes of the North American wilds. In the valleys among the Copper Mountains, they found native copper in the beds of rivulets; and, on the coast, near the great gulf, they discovered a vein of lead ore, traversing gneiss rocks. The trees were chiefly the spruce, larch, and poplar. Among the animals were deer and musk-oxen, which attracted great numbers of ravenous bears and hungry wolves.

The succeeding voyages of Parry, Franklin, Back, Beechy, Ross, Simpson, and Dease, by which the outline of the northern coast of America was completed to the east as far as Boothia Felix, have already been described in one of the introductory chapters of this volume.

CANADA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Breadth, 700	between	42. and 52. N. lat.
Length, 1300		57. and 90. W. long.

Containing 348,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.—This country is bounded by New Britain, on the north; by New Brunswick, Labrador, and the Gulf of St. Laurence, on the east; by the territory of the United States, on the south; and by Lake Superior, and the lands of savage tribes, on the west. It was, till recently, divided into the Upper and Lower provinces; but they are now united. The former lies to the north of the Lakes Huron and Ontario, and the latter on both sides of the river St. Laurence.

MOUNTAINS.—There are some mountains in the northern part of this country, and others between Quebec and the sea; but they are not entitled, by their height or importance, to particular notice.

RIVERS. — The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are the Outtauais, or Ottawa, St. John, Saguenay, Desprairies, and Trois Rivières; but they are all swallowed up by the St. Laurence, which issues from the Lake Ontario, takes its course north-east, and at Montreal, 560 miles from the sea, is navigable for vessels of 600 tons burden. At Quebec, 400 miles from the sea, it is so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the year 1760, to the reduction of that capital. It falls into the ocean at Cape Rosières, where it is 80 miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and fruitful islands.

LAKES.—On the borders of Canada are five lakes, which will be described in the account of the United States. All are navigable by large vessels; and all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by the Falls of Niagara. The St. Laurence is the outlet of these lakes, by which they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the straits by which the lakes are connected with each other, as well as where the last communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence over all the nations of America which lay near them.

METALS AND MINERALS.—Near Quebec is a fine lead-mine, and in some of the mountains silver has been found. This country also possesses coal; but it is not of the best quality. In Upper Canada there is abundance of iron ore and limestone, but no coal has yet been found.

CLIMATE.—The winter, in this country, continues with such severity from December to April, that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet in depth; but the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants are so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor so unpleasant as might be expected. The excessive cold is attributed to the prevalence of north-east and north-west winds, which, coming from the bleak regions of Hudson's Bay and Labrador, and sweeping over snowy mountains and frozen lakes, acquire a penetrating severity, which they carry with them into the lower latitudes. The spring opens suddenly, and vegetation is surprisingly rapid; the summer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot. The climate in Upper Canada is milder than in the lower province, many fruits ripening in the former which will not ripen in the latter.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.—The soil of Lower Canada is in many parts fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, and other sorts of grain, fruit, and vegetables; tobacco in particular thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the St. Laurence and other rivers, are remarkable for the richness of their soil. The meadow grounds, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and breed vast numbers of great and small cattle. In Upper Canada, the soil is at least as good; and, indeed, Mr. Hewson recommends this province to British emigrants as superior to the lower division of the colony, in the advantages both of soil and climate.

The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greatest forests in the world. They are a continued wood, in all appearance as old as the world itself. Nothing is more magnificent; the trees lose themselves in the clouds; and there is such a prodigious variety of species, that few are acquainted with one half of them. Canada produces two sorts of pines, white and red; four sorts of fir; two species of cedar and oak; [illegible]

rom which a great quantity of sugar is
hree sorts of ash-trees, the free, mon-
l bastard; three sorts of walnut-trees;
nbers of beech-trees and white wood;
id red elms, and poplars. The savages
the red elms into canoes, some of
made out of one piece, will contain
ersons; others are made of the bark,
rent pieces of which they sew toge-
h the inner rind, and daub over the
vith a bituminous matter resembling
prevent their leaking; and the ribs of
noes are made of boughs of trees.
e also found cherry-trees, plum-trees,
gar-tree, the fruit of which, infused in
produces vinegar; an aquatic plant,
laco, the fruit of which may be made
nfection; the white thorn; the cotton-
the top of which grow several tufts of
which, when shaken in the morning
he dew falls off, produce honey, that
boiled up into sugar, the seed being a
aining a very fine kind of cotton; the
t, which resembles a marigold, and
the height of seven or eight feet;
corn; French beans; gourds, melons,
e, and the hop-plant.

ALS.—The quadrupeds that find shelter
ishment in the Canadian forests, and
deed traverse the uncultivated parts of
ontinent, are buffaloes, elks, reindeer,
rs, foxes, martins, wild cats, racoons,
es, badgers, opossums, ferrets, wea-
irrels of a large size and greyish hue,
pekans, hares, and rabbits. The
parts in particular breed great num-
ild bulls, deer of a small size, various
roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The
, lakes, and pools, which in this coun-
very numerous, swarm with otters
vers. The American beaver is near
in length, and weighs sixty or seventy
they live from fifteen to twenty years,
females generally bring forth four
nes at a time. It is an amphibious
d, that continues not long at a time
ater, and yet cannot live without fre-
athing in it. The savages, who wage a
l war with this animal, believe it to be
l creature, that it lives in society, and
ed by a leader resembling their own
or prince. It must indeed be allowed,
curious accounts given of this animal,
anner in which it contrives its habi-
rovides food to serve during the win-
always in proportion to the conti-
nd severity of the season, are suffi-
show the near approaches of instinct
1. Beavers are of different colours—
rown, white, and yellow; but it is
, that the lighter the colour is, the
ntity of fur they are clothed with, and
rmer climates. *The furs are of two
e dry and the green; the dry fur is
before it is applied to any use; the
the furs that are worn, after being*
sewed to one another, by the savages, who smear them with unctuous substances; which not only render them more pliable, but give, to the fine down that is manufactured into hats, the oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with dry fur. Excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, are made from the beaver fur. Beside the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a delicious food, except when it is boiled. The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver, which affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the size of a horse or mule. Its flesh is very agreeable and nourishing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. Elks love cold countries; and, when the winter affords them no grass, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he sometimes springs furiously on his pursuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him; and, while the deluded animal spends his fury on these, he finds an opportunity of killing him.

The buffalo is a kind of wild ox, of much the same appearance with those of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly esteemed. The flesh of the female is very good; and the buffalo-hides are as soft and pliable as chamois leather, but so very strong, that the bucklers which the savages make of them are hardly penetrable by a musket ball. Wolves, which are not very common in Canada, afford the finest furs in all the country. The black foxes are greatly esteemed, and very scarce; while those of other colours are common: some are of a silver hue, and very beautiful. They live upon water-fowl, which they decoy by antic tricks, and then spring up and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat, or skunk, has a fine black fur, marked with longitudinal bands of white. Nature has given this animal no defence but a secretion, contained in a small bag at the root of the tail, the smell of which is nauseous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it sprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the assailant. This fluid it can eject to a distance of several feet. There are two sorts of bears here—one reddish, and the other black; the former is the most dangerous. The bears are not in general fierce, unless when wounded, or oppressed with hunger. During the winter they remain in a kind of torpid state. Scarcely anything is undertaken with greater solemnity than the pursuit of the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear-hunter, who has killed several in one day, is more eagerly sought than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chase supplies the family both with food and raiment.

With regard to the feathered creation, eagles,

falcons, goshawks, tercols, partridges, grey, red, and black, (with long tails, which they beautifully spread out as a fan,) are among the wild birds of Canada. Woodcocks are scarce; but snipes and other water-game are found in abundance. Here are blackbirds, swallows, larks, many species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, cranes, and other large water-fowls; but always at a distance from houses. The Canadian woodpecker is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind of ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird, or humming-bird, is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all its plumage it is not larger than an English beetle, or May-bug, and makes a noise with its wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattlesnake chiefly deserves attention. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring or row of scales; so that its age may be known by its tail, as we know that of a horse by its teeth. Its bite is fatal, if a remedy be not immediately applied. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattlesnake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against its venom, even with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied to the wound. The rattlesnake seldom, if ever, bites passengers, unless it is provoked, and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chase it, and find its flesh very good: it also possesses medicinal qualities. The black snake, though venomous, is not so mischievous as the rattlesnake; and, in one respect, it is a friend to the Canadians, "if," as Mr. Talbot says, "it embraces the rattling reptile within its ample coil, and with its tail whips the creature to death." It is also said to possess the power of fascination more strikingly than any other species of snake.

Some writers are of opinion, that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains, perhaps, the greatest variety of fish of any in the world, in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Beside a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea-plaise, salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourason, sturgeon, achigan, filthead, tunny, shad, and lamprey. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature, some are said to weigh 2000 lbs.: their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning, and dressing leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and, though not so fine as morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less apt to crack. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, form very good coverings for seats. The Canadian sea-cow is larger than the sea-wolf, but resembles it in figure; it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoises of the river St. Laurence are said to yield a hogshead of oil; and of their skins waistcoats are made, which are excessively strong, and musket-proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle-fish, quite round or rather oval: there are three sorts of them, which differ only in size; some being as large as a hogshead, and others only a foot long. they catch only the last, and that with a net. The goberque has the taste and smell of a small cod. The sea-plaise also supplies palatable food. It is usually taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaourason is an armed fish, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh; resembling a pike; it is covered with scales that are proof against a dagger; its colour is a silver-grey; and there grows under its mouth a long bony substance, ragged at the edges. It may easily be conceived, that an animal so well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few instances of fish making prey of the feathered creation; which this fish does, however, with much art. He conceals himself among the canes and reeds, in such a manner that nothing is to be seen beside his weapon, which he holds perpendicularly above the surface of the water; the fowls which come to take rest, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they have no sooner alighted, than the fish opens its throat, and makes such a sudden motion to seize his prey, that it seldom escapes him. This fish is an inhabitant of the lakes. The sturgeon is both a fresh and salt-water fish, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionally thick. There is a small kind of sturgeon, the flesh of which is very tender and delicate.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—These are the vast lakes, rivers, and cataracts of the country. Among the last, the principal is the stupendous fall, or cataract, which is called the Fall of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half-moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 100 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great a height, upon the rocks below, from which it rebounds to a very great height, in

is white as snow, being all converted
n, through those violent agitations.
e of this fall is often heard at the dis-
ten miles. The vapour arising from
ay sometimes be seen at a great dis-
pearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke,
biting the resemblance of a rainbow,
the sun and the position of the ob-
our the view. Many beasts and fowls
their lives, by attempting to swim, or
stream, in the rapids above the fall,
ound dashed in pieces below. Some-
e savages, through carelessness or
on, have met with the same fate.
w of the falls is still more terrific
n from below. "You must descend,"
Richard Bonnycastle, "to the very
he trembling rocky brink of the cal-
e British side, immediately under the
160 or 70 feet below the narrow plat-
ock, on which you have stood when
reached the last of these stairs. This
e effected without some trouble, risk,
e; but it repays all your exertion; for
have reached the edge, close to the
r split rock, you are, as it were, in a
l—chaos seems there to have been
arbed by the regularity of nature, but
mn and supreme. Place your back
e projecting, blackened, and slime-
cks, and look towards the mighty
pour and water before you, beneath
above you. Hearing, sight, feeling,
s it were, blended and confounded.
nsible that you exist, perhaps; but
se of existence has, for a few minutes,
from your imagination. The rocks
der your feet; the milk-white boiling
ting surge advances, swells up, sub-
ils, lashes, and mingles with the
ur. An indescribable and terrific,
eafening sound, shakes the air; your
l the concussion, and the words of
hich at length escape from your lips
ble, even to yourself, so awfully stern
ar of the contending air and water
nflict for mastery. The ideas which
e me when I had recovered from this
astonishment, were those of being
ay by the foaming mountains, bub-
seething in the huge caldron at my
eing on the point of losing my sense
, for my temerity in venturing to pry
into the unattainable mysteries of
nd of instant annihilation, from the
verhanging, black, and beetling rock
head, at an absolute height of nearly
In fact, I experienced the same sen-
beautifully described by Shakspeare
but from a reverse cause; so true is
xtremes meet. I became dizzy and
led by looking at and up to the dizzy
stead of from glancing the *eye down*
an unfathomable abyss of air and water

ns—Population—Inhabitants.—

Lower Canada is divided into three principal districts—Quebec, Trois Rivières, and Montreal; and two small ones, Gaspé and St. Francis; which are subdivided into 40 counties. Upper Canada has 26 counties and 6 ridings, which comprise 277 townships. The inhabitants of Canada, of French and English descent, and indeed all except the scattered savages, were, in 1830, 511,917 in Lower Canada; and, in 1835, 336,000 in Upper Canada; but in consequence of the extensive immigration which has taken place, the number of inhabitants at present in Canada is supposed to be at least 1,200,000. Those of the first description indicate their descent by that presence of mind, address, and politeness, which in general they display. They have dark complexions, small and sharp eyes, and are generally thin, though strong. Those of the second class have more agreeable countenances, but are less courteous and accommodating in their manners. Both classes are fond of sensual indulgence, card-playing, dancing, music, and gaiety. The savages nearly resemble those tribes which are dispersed over the whole country between the towns of the United States and the Rocky Mountains. Mr. Howison speaks of the farmers of the upper province as a different set of men from any other body or class in the colony. "After surmounting the difficulties which at first checked their course, these men," he says, "now reap the full produce of their labour, being neither burdened by rents, nor encumbered with taxes. Many of them possess thirty or forty head of cattle, and annually store up 2000 or 3000 bushels of grain in their barns; but this melioration in their condition, unfortunately, has not produced a corresponding effect on their manners, characters, or modes of life. They are still the same untutored incorrigible beings that they probably were, when, being the ruffian remnant of a disbanded regiment, or the outlawed refuse of some European nation, they sought refuge in the wilds of Upper Canada, aware that they might neither find the means of support nor be countenanced in any civilized country. Their original depravity has been confirmed and increased by the circumstances in which they are placed. Possessing farms which render them independent of the better classes of society, they can, within certain limits, be as bold, unconstrained, and obtrusive as they please, in their behaviour to their superiors; for they neither look to them for subsistence, nor for anything else. They now consider themselves on an equality with those to whom, in former times, the hope of gain would have made them cringe like slaves; and tacitly avow their contempt of the better part of society, by avoiding the slightest approximation towards them, so far as regards habits, appearance, or mode of life." This, however, is an accurate picture of only the earliest and humblest class of emigrants. Since Mr. Howison wrote, large numbers of emigrants of a

nigher class have settled in Upper Canada, and the tone of society is greatly improved.

CHIEF TOWNS.—Quebec, the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, and, beside the upper and lower town, has the two large suburbs of St. Roche and St. John, and the smaller one of St. Louis. The St. Laurence, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, suddenly narrows to three-fourths of a mile. The haven, which is opposite to the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions that are raised twenty-five feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox. The fortifications on the land side are very elaborate and complete; and, in other parts, the natural strength of the place is sufficient for defence. Substantial stone buildings line the streets both of the upper and lower towns; and in the former are the French and English cathedrals, the Jesuits' college, (now a barrack,) and the convent of the Ursulines, the latter of which was founded in 1639, by Madame de Peltrie, chiefly for educational purposes. The population of Quebec is about 30,000.

From Quebec to Montreal, in sailing up the St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms are very numerous; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages.

The town called Trois Rivières, in the midway between Quebec and Montreal, has its name from the three mouths of the St. Maurice, which join their currents here, and fall into the St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by the savage tribes, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The population is between 4000 and 5000. The country is pleasant and fertile, and many handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montreal (that is, Mount Royal) stands on an island at the confluence of the Ottawa river with the St. Laurence, which is 32 miles in length, and 11 miles in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and the isle belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island became a most delightful spot, and produced everything that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and, when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner: and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill falls gradually to the water. The new cathedral, which was commenced in 1824, and completed in 1829, is one of the finest buildings in North America. It is 255 feet in length, can accommodate 10,000 persons, and has six towers, three of which are 220 feet high. The city is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch: and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Notwithstanding the number of English residents, the population of the city has still an aspect decidedly French. The population is about 35,000.

York Town, which is now called Toronto, near the lake Ontario, is considered as the capital of Upper Canada, and has risen rapidly into importance. It has now about six thousand inhabitants. The next town in this province is Kingston, which, however, has not above two thousand inhabitants. Most of the houses are built of limestone, of which there are extensive quarries in the vicinity. The bay affords so fine a harbour, that a vessel of 120 guns might ride close to the quay. The place is strong, both by nature and art, and might be rendered almost impregnable. The opening of the Rideau canal will probably increase its trade.

TRADE.—The exports consist of timber, wheat, flour, biscuit, flax-seed, fish, pearl, and various medicinal roots, but principally of peltry. The imports consist of rum, brandy, coffee, sugar, wine, tobacco, salt, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

GOVERNMENT.—By the Quebec bill, enacted in 1791 by the parliament of Great Britain, it was ordained that there should be, in each of the Canadian provinces, a legislative council and an assembly, which, with the consent of the governor appointed by the king, should have power to make laws; but that the king might declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council was to consist of not fewer than 7 members for Upper, and 15 for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the governor, who must be authorised by the king. They held their seats for life, unless they forfeited them by an absence of four years, or by transferring their allegiance to some foreign power. The house of assembly was to consist of not less than 16 members from Upper, and 50 from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly were to be called together at least once in the year; and every assembly was to continue four years, unless it should be sooner dissolved by the governor. Subsequent to the abortive revolt in 1837, this constitution was abolished, and another substituted in its room. By an act, passed in 1840, the two provinces were united, and were thenceforth to have only one council and one legislative assembly. The members of the council, not fewer than 20, which number might be increased, were to be nominated by the governor, who also nominates the speaker. With respect to the legislative assembly, all places which returned

s to the former local assemblies are to
iembers to it, subject to certain regu-
By these regulations three Upper Ca-
:ounties are divided into six ridings,
: member each, and eight Lower Cana-
nties are consolidated into four, with
ıber each. Toronto, Quebec, and Mon-
urn each two members, and Kingston,
le, Hamilton, Cornwall, Niagara, Lon-
own, Three Rivers, and Sherbrook, one
assing of acts to be as before. Legis-
› dispose of the provincial revenue,
exception of £75,000 for the expenses
ıment.

TON.—A considerable majority of the
ats of the lower province are Roman
s; in Upper Canada, on the contrary,
body of the people are Protestants of
ects. The former, it may be observed,
attentive to religious duties than the

AGE.—The general language of Lower
s the French, English being confined
itish settlers, who are fewer in num-
the inhabitants of French descent.
r Canada English is the generally
nguage, there being but a small pro-
f foreigners.

Y.—This country was first discovered
glish, as early as 1497; but the first
it in it was made by the French, in
› retained possession of it till 1760,
was conquered by the British arms,
he treaty of Paris, in 1763, ceded by
the crown of Great Britain.

upt introduction of the English laws
da, and of the English language into
roceedings, excited, and not unnatu-
ae dissatisfaction among the French
s. This cause of discontent was, how-
loved, in 1774, by the passing of the
ct, which restored the civil law of
but, as the people were by this time
ed to the English criminal law, it was
› remain unaltered. This timely con-
ad such a good effect, that the Cana-
re in vain solicited to join the re-
ıericans. But the close of the contest
colonies was productive of another
: legitimate complaint to the Cana-
The expatriated loyalists, from the
tates, flocked into Canada, and were
rewarded for their past exertions, by
roduced into the principal offices in
The Canadians had also another
e, which yearly became more ob-
to them: this was their being deprived
resentative government. At length,
vance was done away with. In 1791,
stitutional act was passed, which di-
nada into two provinces, and gave to
legislative body, consisting of two
partly elective, partly nominated for
the crown. Though some bickerings
ce between the two houses, in Lower
nothing of importance occurred for
about fifteen years. "In 1807, apprehensions being felt of war with America, Sir John Craig, an officer of distinction, was sent out to superintend the affairs of the colony. About this time began those internal dissensions which have since so generally agitated the colony. The house of assembly, (the elective body,) though meeting regularly, do not seem previously to have aimed at the exercise of any high powers, or to have obstructed the governor in the discretionary exercise of his authority. But at this epoch they appear to have formed the design of rendering themselves independent, and even of controlling the executive. With the former view they demanded that the judge should be expelled from their body, as being dependent on and removable by government. To gain the latter object, they offered to defray, from the funds of the colony, the whole expense of the civil administration. Although this was a boon, and unasked for, yet, on account of its apprehended purpose, it was repelled with indignation, and the assembly was soon afterwards dissolved. The novel exercise of a free press by a newspaper called 'The Canadian,' in attacking the measures of government, was severely checked; the printer was sent to prison, and all his materials destroyed. Six individuals were also taken into custody, though never brought to trial. These proceedings gave to this period the appellation of 'The Reign of Terror.'"

In 1811, a new assembly was called, which did not show itself more compliant. In the autumn of that year, however, Sir George Prevost, a more popular governor, assumed the reins of administration; and circumstances soon afterwards occurred which induced the Canadians to suspend their complaints, and to make displays of loyalty as ardent as if they had never been dissatisfied. This change was produced by the invasion of Canada by the forces of the American states. The circumstances and result of the contest have already been noticed in the sketch of English history.

With the termination of hostilities came the renewal of internal disputes. From 1815 till 1833, however, they were not of a nature to excite any serious alarm. The legislative council and the house of assembly did, indeed, often come into collision, and the supplies were sparingly granted, or absolutely refused, by the latter body. The British government was disposed to conciliate, and to concede to the house of assembly, on certain conditions, the control over the public revenue. But this concession only generated a desire to extort more. In 1833, the house of assembly came forward with a new claim: it imperiously demanded, that the existing legislative council should be abolished, and replaced by another chosen by the people. This was, in fact, nothing less than a proposal to convert the constitution into a pure democracy. The proposition having been negatived by the British government, the house, in 1834, declined to

vote any supplies, passed various violent resolutions, and declared that the granting of an elective legislative council was a *sine qud non*. The British ministers were disposed to yield on all points but the latter; and a commission, consisting of the earl of Gosford, Sir Charles Grey, and Sir George Gipps, was accordingly sent out to Canada, to endeavour to arrange all matters in dispute; Earl Gosford succeeded Lord Aylmer as governor. The commissioners reached Canada in the autumn of 1835. At first, it seemed likely that an amicable arrangement would be effected; but, in the following year, all hopes of a favourable settlement were destroyed by a violent declaration of the house of assembly, in which that body claimed to be considered as the sole organ of the people, refused to vote any supplies, and threatened to suspend its sittings altogether, if its demands were not conceded. When intelligence of this measure arrived in England, the British parliament, in March, 1837, passed a series of resolutions, to serve as the basis of acts, by one of which the governor was authorized to appropriate the public funds to the payment of arrears due to the judges and civil officers. In the hope, however, that the Canadian assembly might be induced to act less contumaciously, an interval was allowed between the passing of the resolutions and the carrying them into effect; and, accordingly, the assembly was once more called together. The hope, however, was a fallacious one: the assembly refused to give way, and it was consequently prorogued. The British ministry, in the meanwhile, looking to a different result, and anxious to avoid proceeding to extremities, had relinquished the idea of immediately paying the arrears from the Canadian revenue, and had advanced the money, by way of loan, from the British treasury.

There is no doubt that some of the members of the Canadian opposition were only desirous to secure their constitutional rights, which had certainly, in some instances, been infringed upon; but there can be as little doubt that many were actuated wholly by a wish to throw off the British supremacy, and establish Canadian independence, and that, for the accomplishment of their purpose, they looked for support from the restless and violent part of the American frontier population. Foremost among the latter division of the Canadian members was Papineau, the speaker of the assembly. To these men the redress of grievances was not a boon, but an impediment.

Encouraged by the growing strength of their party, and perhaps, also, by the scanty number of British troops in the Canadas, the separatists began to talk and act with increased violence. Meetings were held, at which the most seditious language was used; the people were advised to discontinue the wearing of British manufactures, and the consumption of taxable articles; the calling of a national convention was determined upon, and a secret central committee was formed at prepare for an outbreak. To p offenders was in vain, as neithe petty juries would perform their d that many magistrates and militi been present at the obnoxious governor called upon them to exp duct; and, the replies not being he dismissed eighteen of the form five of the latter. Papineau wa dismissed officers, his answer couched in terms of the utmost defiance. To manifest their con government, the people of Tw county immediately determined the new magistrates, appointed in that capacity, reorganized a militia, reofficered it, admitting been dismissed, and finally comp tral and the loyal to join them country. This example was spe by six counties on the rivers Yamaska. At the same time, club at Montreal, called the Sor paraded the streets in a menacin issued a proclamation full of the perate expressions. The Sons not, however, enjoy a lengthened loyal club was formed in opposi two parties came to blows, the de routed, and many of them seriou the office of the "Vindicator" n destroyed by the victors. Pap narrowly escaped the same fate.

As it was manifest that furthe have no other effect than to en spirators to mature their plans their means, the colonial govern to adopt decisive measures. Havi applied to Sir Neil Campbell ments, and accepted the services ists as volunteers, the governm warrant against twenty-six of th leaders, seven of whom, among w pineau and Viger, were members of assembly. Only nine were tak neau, the ringleader, was not one first blood which was spilt in thi was at St. John, to which a we been dispatched to apprehend tw tive leaders. The party was de insurgents, and the prisoners wer

Having learned that Papineau, Neilson, were at the villages of St. Charles, on the Richelieu, an country in that neighbourhood wi the colonial government sent under Colonels Gore and Wethera the insurgents. Gore, who adva St. Denis, was unsuccessful. H tigued by a long march through were knee-deep, were unable to for fortified storehouse, in which th posted, and were obliged to retire of a cannon and twenty men. W more fortunate. After having ove

lculties, he reached St. Charles, which he nd stockaded, and defended by 1500 rebels, der the command of Browne, an American. e British leader resolved to storm the posi- n; and, in an hour's time, the intrenchment s carried, and the rebels were flying in all rections, leaving 300 dead on the field. Ano- er body of them, which attempted to inter- pt his homeward march, was scattered at the rst onset. The peasants in this quarter were e dispirited by these defeats, and the want of urage displayed by some of those in whom ey had put their trust, that they were little clined to persevere in their revolt. Colonel ere, who had been strongly reinforced, took ssession of St. Denis and St. Hyacinthe, ithout resistance. The chiefs of the insur- ction had taken flight; Neilson was cap- ured, but Browne and l'apineau escaped. The tter, the great instigator of the revolt, proved mself as much a coward as a traitor: through he whole of this brief contest, he appears to ave been of opinion that "the better half of alour is discretion," and to have kept himself ut of the way of those "vile guns," which he ad been so ready to call into use. An attempt as made to assist the insurgents, by 200 mericans from Vermont; but these impudent truders were scourged back with some loss, y the volunteers of Missisqui county. Thus ended the insurrection in the six counties on he Richelieu.

It now only remained to put down the insur- ection in its strongest hold, the counties of wo Mountains, and Terrebonne, to the north f Montreal. Sir John Colborne, the com- mander-in-chief, proceeded in person with 1300 eops, against St. Eustache, where the re- ellions were collected. On his approach, the ajority of them, with their leader, Girod, fled recipitately; but about 400 of the more deter- ined occupied a church and the adjoining uildings, which had been fortified. They ntrenched themselves with much spirit, till e fire, which was raging, reached the post hich they held, and further resistance be- ame impossible. St. Benoit and St. Scholas- ique were subsequently occupied by the British eops, and the revolt was thus brought to a se. Unable to escape, Girod put an end to s own existence: several of the other leaders re captured.

Upper Canada, meanwhile, was not exempt om the revolutionary infection. For several ars there had been, in that province, a vio- nt opposition party, headed by Mackenzie, ecombe, and others, who were desirous to ow off the authority of the mother country, join the American union. It was not, how- r, till 1834, that this party obtained a jority in the house of assembly. The same tem of political tactics was thenceforth opted that was followed in the Lower Cana- a assembly. At length, in 1837, the supplies e stopped. Sir Francis Head was then armed, and he boldly determined to appeal to the people against their representatives. The elections were strenuously contested; but a decided majority of the supporters of govern- ment was ultimately returned—a result which the spirited addresses of Sir Francis Head to the people contributed largely to secure.

Affairs were in this situation in the upper province, when the rebellion broke out in the lower. The conduct of Sir Francis Head, on this occasion, was daring, even to the verge of rashness. Being asked what force he could spare, he replied that he could spare all; and, to show how confident he was that nothing was to be apprehended from the machinations of the revolutionists, he ordered all the arms to be deposited in the city hall of Toronto, without even placing a guard to protect them. The opportunity thus afforded for attack seemed to Mackenzie to be so favourable that it ought not to be neglected. He had already small parties scattered throughout the pro- vince, trained to arms, and ready for action. These he summoned to join him in the neigh- bourhood of Toronto, for the purpose of mak- ing himself master of the city by surprise. Their number has been variously estimated, at from 500 to 3000. But Sir Francis Head luckily obtained intelligence of the design, and rallied a sufficient force to make head against the rebels. On the 7th of December the royalists attacked, and utterly routed them, taking pri- soners two of the chiefs: Mackenzie escaped. Duncombe, meanwhile, had collected a force in the district of London; but Colonel M'Nab being sent against it, the leaders ran away, and their followers laid down their arms, and ex- pressed regret for their past misconduct. By this time, 10,000 militia had flocked in to succour Sir Francis, who now dismissed them to their homes, their services being no longer required.

Here would have ended the struggle in Upper Canada, had not Mackenzie found allies in some turbulent and unprincipled citizens of the state of New York. After his discomfiture he fled to Buffalo, on the western frontier of that state, where, by promises of grants of land, and by other means, he contrived to ob- tain supplies from some opulent persons, and to gather round him about 1000 volunteers, some of whom were acquainted with military service. Van Rensselaer, Sutherland, and others of the latter valuable auxiliaries, were intrusted with command. He then led his freebooting band to Navy Island, situated in the Niagara river, between the Canadian and American shores. This island he fortified with thirteen pieces of cannon, and thence he issued a proclamation, in the name of the provisional government of Upper Canada. His motions were closely watched by Colonel M'Nab, at the head of 2000 militia; who, however, had not the means of passing the river to assail him. Stores and reinforcements being regularly con- veyed to Mackenzie, from the American terri- tory, by the Caroline steamer, M'Nab detet-

mined to put an end to this intercourse. The Caroline was accordingly attacked near the American bank of the river, by Captain Drew, who killed and captured some of the rebels, put all unarmed persons on shore, and then set the vessel on fire, and sent her drifting over the cataract of Niagara. This incursion upon what was ludicrously called a neutral territory, excited a violent clamour among the Americans, and is still a subject of controversy between the two governments. That the federal government was laudably anxious to preserve a neutrality there can be no doubt; but its efforts were counteracted by the furious demagogues of the state of New York. Soon after the burning of the Caroline, the British army was considerably augmented, and it received a train of artillery from Lower Canada. So hot a fire was now kept up against Navy Island, that Mackenzie and his followers evacuated it on the 14th of January. He and Van Rensselaer were arrested by the American authorities; but Sutherland, with a portion of the men, fled far to the west. He endeavoured to maintain himself in the island of Bois Blanc, and afterwards on Sugar Island; but his horde was eventually dispersed.

When the news of the Canadian insurrection reached England it produced great excitement. There were not wanting those who rejoiced in it; but the general and more patriotic feeling was of an opposite nature. The Christmas holidays were shortened by more than a fortnight, that parliament might lose as little time as possible in taking measures; and, when it met, it suspended, for the present, the constitution of Lower Canada, and gave to the queen the nomination of a council, which, in conjunction with the governor, was to exercise the powers hitherto intrusted to the legislative bodies. This step Sir John Colborne, who was the temporary governor of Lower Canada, was instructed to take without delay. But, in order to investigate thoroughly the cause of the evil, and discover a remedy, it was necessary to have on the spot a man of talent, political experience, and liberal principles, intrusted with a kind of dictatorial authority. The earl of Durham was the person selected for this arduous task by the British ministers. He was invested with the title of Governor-general of the British Possessions in America; and was authorized to form a council, consisting of thirteen members from each province; who, however, were to act only as advisers, and might be convoked and dismissed by him whenever he thought proper. He reached Quebec at the latter end of May, was cordially received, and immediately proceeded to make a progress through the provinces, that he might obtain a personal knowledge of the state of affairs, and of the public feeling. His government was, however, abruptly broken up by one of his early measures. Several of the leading rebels were in custody, charged with *high* treason. As various circumstances rendered it impolitic to try them, while, at the same time, it would be equally impolitic to let them escape wholly unpunished, they were induced to confess their guilt, and were then by an ordinance of his lordship, sentenced to be transported to Bermuda, and kept there under strict superintendence. This ordinance was attacked, in the House of Peers, by Lord Brougham, as being illegal; and a considerable majority of the House voted that it was so. It was accordingly annulled. Stung to the quick by this unexpected censure of his conduct, the earl of Durham, without waiting for permission to resign, relinquished his high office, and sailed from Quebec on the 1st of November.

Lord Durham had scarcely departed before the smouldering embers of rebellion again blazed forth. During the summer there had been various circumstances which indicated the likelihood of such an event. One of these was the insolence and activity which were displayed by the American Sympathizers, as they were pleased to denominate themselves. The American government was impotent to repress them, but it honourably disclosed their designs to the British ambassador. On the night of the 3rd of November, the insurrection broke out. It was intended to be general through all the southern counties of the Montreal district, but, fortunately, the instigators of the revolt had neglected to furnish arms to their partisans along the Richelieu river. The outbreak was, therefore, confined to the country further west, between that river and the St. Lawrence. There, Dr. Nelson, Côte, and Gagnon, three of the principal rebel leaders, had collected about 4000 men, with whom they took post at Napierville. A detachment of 400 men, whom the rebel chiefs had sent towards the frontier, to open a communication with the American Sympathizers, having been defeated by a body of 200 British volunteers, Nelson himself marched with 900 men against the victors, but was put to flight with the loss of 100 men. Sir James M'Donnel, with seven regiments of the line, had meanwhile crossed the St. Lawrence, and was marching upon Napierville. His approach so alarmed the insurgents at that place, that they fled without firing a shot. A few of them attempted, but in vain, to hold the position of Beauharnois: they were dispersed, and, in little more than a week, the revolt was at an end in Lower Canada.

As early as June, the peace of Upper Canada had been disturbed by the attacks of the American Sympathizers and the fugitive rebels, but chiefly the former. In that month, 800 or 1200 of them crossed the Niagara, and a smaller party passed the St. Clair, but were easily routed. In the middle of November another body of about 400 landed at Prescott, all of whom were eventually made prisoners. The captives on both these occasions were treated with extraordinary forbearance: which seems to have had no other effect than to encou-

the insolence of the Americans. In mber, about 350 of these disgraceful ıbours landed at Detroit, and, after burn- steamer and the barracks, they murdered al individuals in cold blood. On the first k made upon them by a party of militia, fled in all directions, leaving 26 killed, 25 prisoners. It having been found that y was thrown away upon such persons, ingleaders on this occasion were hanged, the rest severely punished. A stop was put to the practice of making descents in r Canada.

July, 1840, the British parliament passed ct for the uniting of Upper and Lower da, and providing for the future administration of the province. The changes made have been already described under the head of "Government." On the 3rd of February, 1841, the union of the two Canadas was proclaimed at Montreal, and the oath of office, as governor, was taken by Lord Sydenham. The result of the subsequent elections for representatives was generally favourable to the union party. Lord Sydenham, who seemed to have gained much popularity in Canada, did not long hold his elevated station: he was thrown from his horse, and died of lock-jaw, on the 17th of September, 1841. His death, however, was not followed by any fresh attempts at rebellion, and Canada has since continued in a tranquil state.

NOVA SCOTIA AND NEW BRUNSWICK.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length of Nova Scotia,	350	between	44. and 49. N. latitude.
„ New Brunswick,	140		
Breadth of Nova Scotia,	220		60. and 67. W. longitude.
„ New Brunswick,	140		

Containing 45,000 square miles.

UNDARIES—DIVISIONS.—In the original more extensive application of the name, A SCOTIA, or NEW SCOTLAND, is bounded e river St. Laurence, on the north; by the which connects that stream with the sea, the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the ocean, south; and by Canada and New and, west.

is country, in 1784, was divided into two nces or governments: Nova Scotia Proper, New Brunswick. Nova Scotia Proper is a nsula, joined to the continent by a narrow ıus, called the Isthmus of Chignecto, at orth-east extremity of the Bay of Fundy: separated, on the north-east, from Cape n, by the Gut of Canso; on the north, it part of the Gulf of St. Laurence, and the t of Northumberland; on the west, it New Brunswick, and the Bay of Fundy; he south and south-east, the Atlantic n.

w Brunswick is bounded, on the westward e river St. Croix, by the said river to its e, and by a line drawn due north, to the ern boundary of the province of Quebec; e northward, by the same boundary, as the western extremity of the Bay de ur; to the eastward, by the said bay, to Gulf of St. Laurence, to the bay called ert; to the south, by a line in the centre e Bay of Fundy, drawn from the river St. to the mouth of the Musquat river; by aid river, to its source, and thence by a ne across the isthmus into the Bay Vert. ra Scotia is divided into twelve counties, viz. Halifax, Pictou, Colchester, Sydney, Cape Breton, King's, Queen's, Lunenburg, Annapolis, Shelburne, Hants, and Cumberland. These are divided into above 40 townships. In 1827, the population was 123,848: it is supposed to be now between 170,000 and 180,000, not including Cape Breton.

New Brunswick is divided into eleven counties, viz. St. John, King's, Queen's, Sunbury, York, Carleton, Charlotte, Kent, Westmoreland, Northumberland, and Gloucester; which are subdivided into parishes. The population, in 1834, was 119,557.

RIVERS.—Nova Scotia has numerous streams, which, though none of them have a long course, are commonly navigable for a considerable distance above their mouths. The principal rivers in New Brunswick are St. John's, which is navigable for small vessels about 60 miles; St. Croix, which divides this province from the district of Maine; and Miramichi, which falls into the Gulf of St. Laurence.

METALS — MINERALS.— Copper has been found at Cape D'Or, on the north side of the basin of Minas; and there are extensive mines of coal at Cumberland, at Cape Breton, and on the east river, which falls into Pictou harbour, and in other places. Iron is also found in Nova Scotia, and gypsum forms a considerable article of export.

CLIMATE.—The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are involved in the gloom of a

which do not yield to the best land in New England, and, by the industry and exertions of the loyalists from the late colonies, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flourishing. In general the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is very proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Of the two provinces, New Brunswick is decidedly the most fertile.

ANIMALS.—These provinces are not deficient in the animals of the neighbouring countries, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl, and all sorts of game, and many kinds of European fowls and quadrupeds, have, from time to time, been introduced, and thrive well. At the close of March the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland is the Cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod-fishing banks, navigable rivers, basins, and excellent harbours.

CHIEF TOWNS.—The capital of Nova Scotia is Halifax, which stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land-carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour. It carries on also a considerable commerce. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. A town of less note is Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the Bay of Fundy, and was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing 1000 vessels at anchor in the utmost security. Among the other towns are Truro, Pictou, and Chester.

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In October, 1825, t
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ressing occasion; and, so ample, in-
re the subscriptions, that, after reliev-
sufferers, they left a surplus, which
loyed in founding a school in the chief
seat of the calamity. The towns which were destroyed have since that time completely recovered, and are now better built and somewhat larger than before."

BRITISH ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

ands belonging to Great Britain in
merica are Newfoundland, Cape Bre-
ace Edward, and the Bermudas.

OUNDLAND, which is of an irregular
ar form, the south forming the base,
north the apex, is situated on the east
he Gulf of St. Laurence, and is separated
abrador by the Strait of Belleisle, and
nada by the Bay of St. Laurence. Its
length, from Cape Race to Cape de
420 miles, and its greatest width, from
ay to the northern entrance of the Bay
avista, is 310 miles. Its population, in
as 73,705. Of the interior little is known.
asts are extremely subject to fogs, at-
with almost continual storms of snow
et, the sky being often overcast; the
, nevertheless, is favourable to health.
ld of winter is here long-continued and
and the summer heat, though sometimes
, is not sufficient to produce anything
luable, the soil being rocky and barren.
owever, watered by several good rivers,
as many large and excellent harbours.
sland seems to be rather hilly than
ainous, with woods of birch, small pine,
; but on the south-west side are lofty
nds. It is chiefly valuable for the great
of cod carried on upon those shoals,
are called the banks of Newfoundland.
umbers of cod, both on the great and
r banks, are inconceivable; and several
species of fish are also caught there in
abundance. This fishing ground is not
ss 600 miles long, and 200 miles broad.
al fishery is likewise exceedingly pro-
e.

chief town is St. John, which is situated
part of the island called the province of
i. It consists of a single narrow street,
a mile long, with some smaller cross
. Newfoundland has now a resident
or, and, since 1832, has had a representa-
sembly, elected by a nearly universal
e.

Island was discovered by Sebastian
in 1497; and both the French and Eng-
id made settlements there in the be-
g of the 17th century. After various
s and disputes, it was entirely ceded to
id by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713: but
ach were left at liberty to dry their nets
northern shores of the island; and, by
ty of 1763, they were permitted to fish
in the Gulf of St. Laurence, with a proviso that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to the English. These privileges were confirmed by the treaty of Amiens, and, in 1814, by the pacification of Paris.

CAPE BRETON.—This island, which forms a portion of the government of Nova Scotia, is about 100 miles in length, and 80 miles in breadth. The soil in several parts is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Lonisbourg, which is nearly four leagues in circumference. The French began a settlement here in 1714; of which, however, they were dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, it was restored to the French, who spared no expense to fortify it. It was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops, and has since remained in our possession. It was for many years neglected; but in 1800 the Scotch Highlanders began to emigrate to it, and emigration thither has since continued to a considerable extent; so that the island has now between 20,000 and 30,000 inhabitants. Louisbourg no longer exists; it was destroyed by the British. Sydney, a small place, is the present capital Coal is found in abundance near Sydney.

PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND, in the gulf of St. Laurence, is about 140 miles in length, and 35 in breadth, and has an area of 2133 square miles. It has several fine rivers; and, though situated near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. It was discovered by Cabot, in 1497. On the reduction of Cape Breton, the inhabitants of this island submitted quietly to the British arms. It was so improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada. Charlotte Town is the seat of government, and contains 300 houses and 2000 inhabitants; but Georgetown is the intended capital. The total number of inhabitants is estimated at about 40,000. The colony has a house of assembly, consisting of eighteen members, and a council of nine; grammar-schools; and a college.

BERMUDAS, or SOMMERS' ISLANDS.—These received their first name from their being discovered, in 1522, by Juan Bermudez, a Spaniard; and were called the Sommers' Islands, from Sir George Sommers, who was ship-

wrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They were settled by the English in 1612. Their distance from the Land's End is computed to be near 1400 leagues, from Madeira about 1100 leagues, and from Carolina about 250 leagues. The Bermudas are very numerous, but some of them are mere rocks, and the whole of them are small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and they are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, "walled with rocks." The inhabited islands are St. George, St. David, Bermuda or Long Island, Somerset, and Ireland. The chief island has several ports, two fortresses, and a town consisting of 500 houses, and 2500 inhabitants. The whole insular population amounts to about 10,000 persons, of whom almost one half are negroes or mulattoes. The air has been always esteemed healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions a delightful; but frequent storms of thunder and lightning, and dreadful hurricanes, in some degree counterbalance those advantages. Though the soil is adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief business of the inhabitants who are not fond of agriculture, is the building and navigation of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West Indies. The vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

THE UNITED STATES OF NORTH AMERICA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1360	between	{	29. and 48. N. lat.
Breadth, 1100		{	68. and 92. W. long.

Containing 950,000 square miles.

This measurement does not include the peninsula of Florida, which stretches to the south as far as the 25th degree of N. latitude.

The breadth of this territory might be made far more considerable, by extending it, as some do, to the Rocky Mountains; or, as others have done, to the Pacific: but we have avoided the inclusion of an immense mass of unsettled country. The extent of the whole territory claimed by the United States is, however, given in the Table of Grand Divisions.

The progress of this republic excites universal attention. The rapid increase of its population, the great augmentation of its territory and power, the extraordinary extension of its commerce, and the enterprising spirit of its people, are calculated to make a strong impression, not only upon the minds of reflecting politicians, but even upon the feelings of ordinary observers.

We shall first enumerate the component parts of the rising state; and then, as it sprang from colonial establishments, regularly trace its history, before we enter into a geographical and statistic survey.

The United States are twenty-six in number, having separate governors, constitutions, and laws, cemented by a general federal constitution, administered by an elective head, and by a proportional number of representatives of the people from all the states. They may be classed in four grand divisions, namely, 1. The *New England* or *North-Eastern States*.—Massachusetts; Maine; New Hampshire; Rhode Island; Connecticut; and Vermont. 2. The *Middle States*.—New York; New Jersey; Pennsylvania; Delaware; and Maryland. 3. The *Southern States*.—Virginia; North Carolina; South Carolina; and Georgia. 4. The *South-Western*.—Alabama; Louisiana; Mississippi; Tennessee, and Arkansas. 5. The *North-Western*.—Missouri; Kentucky; Illinois; Indiana; Ohio, and Michigan.

To these states we may add the following territories:—the district of Columbia, including the city of Washington; the territories of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Florida, and the extensive space between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. The last, indeed, can scarcely be called an integral part of the republic; but it is peremptorily claimed by the congress, and neither the high pretensions of the Spaniards will invalidate the claim, nor can their feeble power prevent its enforcement.

The districts called Territories are such as are not yet sufficiently advanced in population, &c. &c. to be admitted as regular states of the Union. They are allowed a local legislature, and send a delegate to congress, who has the privilege of speaking, but not of voting. In the meanwhile, they are administered by a governor, who is appointed by the federal executive.

HISTORY.—In an age of enterprise, it was reasonable to expect that the discovery of a new quarter of the world would be followed by occupancy and colonization: yet a long period was suffered by the English to elapse before they appropriated any portion of America to the purpose of habitation. As early as the year 1497, Cabot took possession of a part of North America in the name of King Henry VII. but no steps were taken for settling it, till Sir Walter Raleigh sent a small body of adventurers to that part of the coast which is now included in North Carolina. The next attempts were abortive. At length, in 1606, [illegible]

N.TH AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
CARIBBEAN SEA
GREENLAND
West or New
East
Old Greenland
Cuba
Jamaica
Hayti
Pinos
Havanna
Providence
Turks I.
Inagua
Bahamas
Bermuda
Tortuga
Bay of Honduras
Vallodolid
Campeche
Yucatan
Mexico
Tonamarca
Zuratula
Acapulco
Guatamala
Guevetian
Truxillo
Leon
Granada
C. Blanco
Panama Bay
Coyba
Old Providence
St. Andrews
Porto Bello
Cumcoa
Rio del Norte
Linares
Durango
Zacatecas
Guadalajara
Marias
C. Corrientes
Revillagigedo Is.
S. Margaritta
C. Lucas
Georgian Is.
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were at variance, the members of different sects kept at a distance from each other, and established separate governments. Hence it happened that several slips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themselves in a new soil, and spread over the country. New Hampshire was one of these scions; and another was Rhode Island, whose inhabitants were driven from the Massachusetts colony, for supporting the freedom of religious sentiments, and maintaining that the civil magistrate had no right to control the speculative opinions of mankind. These liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed upon their own principles; and, in consequence of the connexion between justness of sentiment and external prosperity, the territory of Rhode Island, though small, became populous and flourishing. Another colony, driven out by the same persecuting spirit, settled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of such as were dissatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America, indeed, became the main resource and resort of all discontented and enterprising spirits; and, such were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that, in 1637, a proclamation was published, prohibiting any person from sailing thither, without an express licence from the government. The want of this licence is said to have prevented Cromwell, Hampden, and others of the party, from going to New England; but this statement appears to be erroneous.

During the progress of the New England colony, a party of Swedes, arriving on the banks of the Delaware, purchased a great tract of land from the natives, and began to erect and fortify a small town. The Dutch afterwards obtained possession of this spot; and from them it was transferred to the English, in consequence of an authoritative demand, supported by an armament.

Protestants had hitherto been the colonial leaders and founders; but when, on account of the indulgence with which they were treated by the court, the Catholics became the objects of increasing hatred in England, Lord Baltimore obtained from King Charles I. the grant of a part of the Virginian province; and, in honour of the queen, the name of Maryland was given to the subtracted portion. About 200 Catholics, some of whom were of considerable distinction, embarked with the conscientious peer, to enter into possession of this territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguish gentlemen of every religion, bought their lands at an easy price from the natives; and they even lived with them for some time in the same town. Harmony continued to subsist between the nations, until the savages were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popula-

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tuted for him; but, at the Restoration, he was reinstated, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters; the colony increased and flourished; and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of ease and comfort, flocked into Maryland.

The territories near the Hudson and Delaware rivers, called by the Dutch colonists the New Netherlands, were granted immediately after their seizure, in 1664, to the duke of York, who, in the sequel, transferred a considerable part of them to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. The appellation of New York was given to the northern division, and New Jersey to the southern; and the Delaware counties, considered at first as dependencies upon the former, at length became a separate colony, governed by its own representative assembly.

In the original grant to Sir Walter Raleigh, Carolina was comprehended; but, as his schemes of colonization did not take effect, Charles II. assigned that territory to Lord Carteret, and other distinguished persons; and a constitution was framed for it by the celebrated Locke; whose plan, however, being too aristocratic for the popular spirit of the colonists, and also adverse to religious freedom, led to discord and confusion, which did not entirely subside before the crown rendered the government more conformable to the general wish.

To the west of New Jersey, a spacious and fertile territory had been planted, first by the Swedes, and afterwards by the Dutch. Charles II. promised a grant of it to Admiral Penn, the conqueror of Jamaica; on whose death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Through an

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and his ministers, that, in addition to the small duties which had hitherto been exacted from them, they ought to pay for the protection which they had received. They were willing to contribute to the exigencies of the state; but they insisted on the privileges of their own assemblies, and denied the right of the British parliament to tax them, as they were not represented in that body. The court persisted in its impolicy; a rupture ensued, and the consequence was the formation of an independent state. The most remarkable incidents of that memorable contest we have already related. It was on the 4th of July, 1776, that the congress published a declaration, assigning continued tyranny and oppression as the reasons for withdrawing allegiance from the king. In this manifesto, the inhabitants of the United Colonies of New Hampshire, the Massachusetts Bay, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, declared that they were free and independent states; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They also published articles of perpetual union, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted reciprocal obligations for their common defence, the maintenance of their liberties, and their general and mutual advantage; binding themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be made upon all or any one of them on any pretence whatever. Each colony reserved to itself the exclusive right of regulating its internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But, for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined that delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No state was to be represented in congress by less than two, or by more than seven members; and no person was capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years: nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the government, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any emolument. In determining questions in the congress, each state was to have one vote, and to abide by the determination of that assembly. The articles of confederation were to be inviolably observed by every state, and the Union to be perpetual; nor was any alteration thenceforth to be made in any one of them, unless previously adopted in a general congress, and afterwards confirmed by the legislature of that state. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the Thirteen United Colonies, as independent states. Holland acknowledged them as such, in 1782; and, on the 30th of November, in that year, provisional articles were signed at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the late colonies to be free, sovereign, and independent states; and these articles were, in due time, ratified by a definitive treaty.

It being found by experience that the government of the new republic was not sufficiently compact and strong for all the purposes of the Union, it was the advice of General Washington, that the ties of the confederation should be drawn closer. With this view, the constitution was superseded, in 1789, by a new code. It was ordained that a president, chosen for four years, should command both the army and navy; that he might conclude treaties, and appoint ambassadors, ministers, and the supreme judges, with the assent of two-thirds of the senate; that this assembly should consist of two delegates, chosen once in six years by each state; that popular representatives, not exceeding the number of 200, should be elected in every second year; and that no particular state should assume any kind of general authority, but that each must confine itself to the mere concerns of ordinary administration within its own boundaries, according to the separate constitution which had been framed for every component part of the confederacy. Upon this basis the government was ably administered, first by Washington, and subsequently by Adams, Jefferson, and Madison. During the sway of the last president, a war arose from disputes which had long subsisted with the British court. The causes and chief incidents of that war having been already stated, we proceed to take notice of the gradual augmentation of the territories of the republic. To the west of New Hampshire, settlements had been formed at different times in a district to which the colonists gave the name of Vermont, from the green aspect of the mountains. The inhabitants were among the first who opposed the British government: but they were not admitted into the federal Union before 1791. In the following year an extensive territory to the west of Virginia was added to the Union, under the name of Kentucky, which had excited the notice of adventurers in 1754, and, after a long contest with the savage claimants, had been secured by colonists. To the south of Kentucky, the Cherokees had been gradually dispossessed of their lands; and a new state, named Tennessee, was thus formed in 1796. The next state that was annexed to the Union extends from the Ohio to Lake Erie: it was

not regularly colonized before the year 1788. Eleven years afterwards, in consequence of that increase of population which included 5000 free male inhabitants of full age, it was declared to be a distinct state; but the advantage of a separate constitution was delayed till the year 1802, when the growing amount of the whole colony reached 60,000. Still intent on territorial aggrandizement, the congress purchased from the French, in 1803, the province of Louisiana, and thus extended its dominion to the Gulf of Mexico. As, between this state and Georgia, a very spacious tract remained nearly unoccupied, it was resolved, in 1817, not only that the Alabama territory should be declared to be an independent state of the republic, but that the country extending 150 miles from the left bank of the Mississippi, and reaching the borders of Tennessee on the north, should form an integral part of the Union—an honour which, in 1816, was also granted to Indiana, between Lake Michigan and Kentucky. Four states were subsequently added to the number: Illinois, in 1818; Missouri, in 1821; Arkansas, in 1836; and Michigan, in 1837. The territory of Florida was added to the Union in 1819, in consequence of a treaty with the king of Spain.

Since the contest with Great Britain, which was terminated by the treaty of Ghent, the United States have been engaged in no war, except with the Florida Indians. That, however, was tedious, harassing, and expensive, and has only been recently terminated. In 1832, circumstances occurred which threatened to dissolve the confederacy, by producing a contest between the northern and southern states. In the former states extensive manufactories had been established; and, for the purpose of protecting them against competition, a tariff, nearly prohibitory, was enacted. To the southern states this measure was a serious injury, as it doubled the price of articles of the first necessity, while, at the same time, it depreciated the value of southern produce. The dispute arose to such a height, that the southern states had serious thoughts of taking up arms to resist the enforcement of the law, and of separating from their northern brethren. The quarrel was at last ended by a modification of the tariff. The spirit which originated it still, however, exists, and may one day be productive of serious consequences. In the two succeeding years, much bitter contention was excited in congress and among the people, by the hostility which was manifested to the bank of the United States by President Jackson, who refused to sanction the renewal of its charter, and withdrew from it the deposit of national money with which it was intrusted, to the annual amount of more than £2,000,000 sterling. The subsequent failure of that bank, and of numerous others in the Union, to the utter ruin of many thousand persons, furnished a justification of his antipathy to them.

Among the events of the last seven years may be mentioned the commercial and financial embarrassment, which has been so widely spread, and which has affected not only the mercantile and other classes, but even many of the states themselves. There is no state in the Union which is not deeply indebted, and some of them have recently taken the disgraceful step of repudiating, under flimsy pretences, their just debts, and laughing at those who had the folly to believe in their good faith. It is but justice to add, that this conduct is reprobated, in the strongest terms, by a vast majority of the American people: and it is to be hoped, that those who have been guilty of it, though they may be incapable of shame, will at least so far recover their senses as to remember that honesty is the best policy.

One important affair, which has for many years been a subject of controversy and danger to Great Britain and the United States, has at length been settled. The question of the boundary line between the British and American territory, on the side of Nova Scotia, has more than once, since 1815, brought the two countries to the brink of a war. A treaty signed this year, by Lord Ashburton and the American President, has at length happily removed all cause of quarrel, and thus prevented a sanguinary contest between two kindred nations, whose true interest it is to be firmly united.

Face of the Country—Climate—Soil—Produce.—The most prominent feature is a mountainous range, the length of which is estimated at 900 miles, while its breadth varies from 50 to 150 miles. It extends from the river St. Laurence, in the north, to Georgia, in the south; and its highest ridge preserves nearly an equal distance of 250 miles from the Atlantic shore, and an almost uniform elevation above it of about 3000 feet. These mountains form the Apalachian chain, or rather two chains, the eastern being called the Blue Ridge, and the western known by the name of the Cumberland and Gauley Mountains, and afterwards by that of Alleghany. The most elevated point of the whole mass is Mount Washington, which soars more than 6000 feet above the level of the sea. The other parts of the country form chiefly an immense level, spacious plains and valleys, extensive forests, prairies or meadows, and savannahs or swamps.

So extensive a country must have great varieties of climate. The coldest is that in the north-east, where the winter is usually very severe for three months, and the summer, though hot for a time, is very short: a more temperate climate is felt in the middle states, and the heat is so great to the south of Virginia, that frost is unknown beyond the 29th degree of latitude. The winds which chiefly blow are the north-west, south-west, and north-east. The first, when it blows from the elevated country, is particularly dry and cold. On the coast of the Atlantic, where it meets warm clouds and warm currents of air, it produces

ow, hail, and sometimes rain; and, along the
nks of the Mississippi and Ohio, it is often
ompanied with rain in winter and storms in
mmer. The south-west is chiefly a summer
nd, and is more constant on the western than
the eastern side of the Apalachian moun-
ns. The north-east, crossing a great extent
sea, brings cold and humidity on the whole
lantic coast; and, at the vernal and autumnal
uinoxes, it produces disastrous hurricanes.
The maritime parts of North America are
fected in their climate by what is called the
lf-stream. This immense current runs from
orida to Newfoundland, at the rate of 4 or 5
iles in an hour, with a breadth of 45 or 50
iles, and at the distance of 23 leagues from
e shore. Its temperature is from 8 to 10
egrees warmer than the contiguous water,
id the warm vapours which ascend from it
e condensed into mists or fogs.

More rain falls in the United States than in
e European regions. Gentle showers are
re, and the rains resemble the torrents of
opical climates. On the other hand, these
tates enjoy a greater proportion of sunshine
id unclouded weather than most parts of
urope: but, that the climate in general is not
ry salubrious, may be inferred from the pre-
alence of many diseases which are most fatal.
The yellow fever sometimes rages with intense
alignity; and it rather appears to be gene-
ated by the miasmata of the atmosphere, by
eat and moisture, than to be imported from
opical countries. Intermittent and bilious
vers are also frequent; and the former disease
ccasionally assumes the appearance of the
ellow fever. It was generally supposed that
he country became more healthy as it was
ore cleared and cultivated: yet it appears,
hat, in the state of New York, the borders of
he lakes and rivers have become subject to
n intermittent fever since cultivation com-
enced; the good effect of which, therefore,
s slow and gradual. Pulmonary phthisis or
onsumption is not uncommon; rheumatism
s prevalent in many parts; and dysentery often
lows itself after very warm weather followed
y coolness and moisture. There is another dis-
rder which, though not dangerous, is particu-
rly injurious to female beauty; it is a prema-
re decay of the teeth, or scurvy in the gums.

Volney divides the soil into five regions;
amely, that of granite, including secondary
cks, extending from Long Island to the
outh of the St. Laurence; the transition
cks near Hudson's River; the calcareous or
estone districts; the region of sea-sand;
nd the alluvial soil. In such a wide extent of
untry, the productiveness of the soil neces-
rily varies. That of New England is most
rtile where it consists of black mould upon
d loam or clay. The soil of New York is
ore fruitful than that of Maryland or New
rsey. Pennsylvania has every kind of soil.
he states of Ohio and Kentucky contain the
ost fertile parts of the whole country; and
the climate is favourable even to the culture of
the vine. The Indiana and Illinois states are
also distinguished by general fertility; and
in that of the Mississippi, the lands near the
rivers are remarkably productive.

Maize seems to be more generally cultivated
than any other species of corn; it being adapted
to a greater variety of soils and situations than
wheat, and usually yielding double the produce.
In the middle and western states, wheat of a
very good quality is raised; but, in other parts,
the crops often fail. Oats, rye, and barley
grow in all the northern and in the upper dis-
tricts of the southern states; and, of the last
grain, two crops in a year are sometimes ob-
tained. In the western parts of the country,
very good hemp grows naturally, and it is
cultivated, as well as flax, in all the states.
Hops also grow in many parts, but do not
seem to meet with that attention which they
certainly deserve. The sugar-cane is more
particularly cultivated in Georgia, the Missis-
sippi state, and Louisiana. Rice also thrives
in those provinces, and in Carolina. Tobacco
flourishes in Virginia and Maryland, more than
in the southern states. From the Roanoke to
the Mississippi, cotton is so abundantly pro-
duced, that, after the full supply of domestic
consumption, vast quantities are exported; and
the spontaneous growth of the mulberry-tree
liberally furnishes the basis of an ornamental
manufacture.

Though great progress has been made in
clearing the land, very extensive forests still
cover the territory of the United States. Many
abound with oak-trees, of which twenty-six
species are reckoned. The white oak is the
best wood; what is called the rock chestnut
oak holds the next rank, and the live oak,
being hard and durable, is much used in ship-
building. Of pines, the best and most abundant
species is that which has long leaves, growing
in the low grounds of the southern states.
The white pine is a lofty and magnificent tree,
found in the northern states and mountainous
parts. The silver fir is chiefly esteemed for its
resinous produce, which is considered as salu-
tary in pulmonary disorders. The cypress and
white cedar afford a light but useful wood for
the construction of houses. That which is
particularly styled the sugar maple is a com-
mon tree in the northern and middle states: it
is the sap which furnishes the saccharine juice.
The hickory, or the American nut-tree, is very
frequently seen; but the wood is seldom used
except for fuel, and few species supply palatable
fruit. Of the birch, the ash, and the beech,
some species are rarely used, while others
supply useful wood for various purposes. The
wild orange-tree, a magnificent evergreen, em-
bellishes the southern states. The wood of the
wild cherry-tree is much employed for furni-
ture, and that of the red mulberry in ship-
building. Little use is made of the poplars or
the willows, nor are the bays or laurels very
serviceable as timber; but the white and the

red elm afford very good materials to the artisan. The fruit of the cucumber-tree, steeped in brandy, is used as a febrifuge. A more beautiful and useful tree is the magnolia, which rises to the height of 80 feet: its white blossoms are succeeded by crimson cones, containing red seeds, which, falling from their cells, remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a long silky thread.

Rivers and Lakes.—Few countries are better supplied in this respect than the territory of the United States. The streams of the greatest extent are the Missouri, Mississippi, Ohio, Potowmac, the James, Delaware, and York rivers, the Savannah, Hudson, and Connecticut; but these and other rivers will more properly be noticed in the surveys of particular states. The great lakes are the Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario. "The first," says Mr. Warden, "is the greatest body of fresh water on the face of the globe." Its length from east to west is about 360 miles, and its breadth 150 miles. The navigation is, in many parts, rendered dangerous by rocks, and it is not well furnished with bays or harbours. It contains a number of islands, one of which, Isle Royale, is 100 miles long; but they are not desirable spots for habitation. It receives the waters of forty streams, which it discharges into Lake Huron by the strait of St. Mary; but the quantity which escapes by evaporation is so great, that not more than a tenth part, perhaps, passes through this channel. Lake Huron is 240 miles in length, and 100 miles in breadth; and it is so deep near the middle, that its waters are unfathomable. Near the strait which connects this lake with that of Michigan, is the isle of Michilimackinac, a fertile spot, defended by a fortress, which is the most northern military post in the United States. The length of the Michigan lake is about 260 miles, and its breadth 50 miles; it has, on its north-west side, an extensive bay, which affords a fine harbour. Lake Erie is 265 miles long, with a mean breadth of 40 miles; and Ontario is 172 miles in length, and 60 miles in breadth. These two lakes are connected by the Niagara river.

Over the northern parts of the country many smaller lakes are dispersed; among which it will be sufficient to mention those of Champlain and George. The former had on its shores several forts well known during the revolutionary war, which have been since demolished; but Fort Frederick remains, commanding the passage of the lake; and Plattsburg also, near the lake, is a place of some strength.

Canals and Railroads.—That the people of the United States have not been backward in availing themselves of the modern artificial modes of communication, the following list of canals and railroads will show. *Maine.*—Canal from Portland to Sabago Pond, 20½ miles. *Massachusetts.*—Middlesex canal, connecting the Merrimack with Boston, 27 miles; Blackstone canal, Worcester, to Providence in Rhode Island, 44 miles, of which 16 are in Rhode Island; Quincy railroad, 3 miles; Boston and Lowell railroad, 25 miles; Boston and Providence railroad, 42 miles; Boston and Worcester, 43 miles; Western railroad, Worcester to the New York line, 118 miles (in progress). *Connecticut.*—Enfield canal, round the falls of Connecticut river, 5½ miles; Farmington canal, from Northampton in Massachusetts to New Haven, 78 miles, of which 22 miles are not begun. *New York.*—The great canal which connects the Hudson with Lake Erie, 363 miles, with several branches of considerable length; Champlain canal, Albany to Whitehall, 73 miles. Railroads, from Albany to Schenectady, 16 miles; Schenectady to Saratoga, 22 miles; four others in progress, 200 miles; and 25 projected. *New Jersey.*—Morris canal, Hudson to the Delaware, 94 miles; Delaware and Raritan, 38 miles. Railroads, Camden and Amboy, 61 miles; Patterson and Hudson, 14 miles. *Pennsylvania.*—Philadelphia to Pittsburg, 394 miles, of which 77 are railroad, and the rest canal; Conestoga canal, 18 miles; Codorus canal, 16 miles; Lehigh canal, 46 miles; Lackawaxen canal, 25 miles; and many others of less length. Several more are in progress. Many short railroads communicate with mines, one of the most remarkable of which is the Mouch Chunk, which is a continual inclined plane of 9 miles, from a height of 936 feet. The cars are drawn up again by mules. *Delaware.*—The Chesapeake and Delaware canal, 14 miles; Newcastle and Frenchtown railroad, 16 miles. *Maryland.*—Ohio and Chesapeake canal, 341½ miles, of which 114½ are completed. Railroads, Baltimore and Ohio, of which 28½ miles are completed. Baltimore and Susquehanna, 76 miles. There are various shorter railroads. *Virginia.*—Dismal Swamp canal, 23 miles; James River canal, 31½ miles; and several shorter. Railroads, Petersburg and Roanoake, 60 miles; Manchester, 13; and Portsmouth and Roanoake, 80. Some others are in progress or contemplation. *North Carolina* has some short canals, and several railroads are projected. *South Carolina.*—Santee canal, 25 miles; Wingaw canal, 10 miles. Charleston and Hamburg railroad, 135 miles. *Georgia.*—Savannah and Ogeechee canal, 16 miles; Alatamaha to Brunswick railroad, 2 miles. *Alabama.*—Canal from Tennessee river to Florence, 37 miles; Hunterville and Tennessee, 16 miles; railroad from Tuscumbia to Decatur (in progress,) 62 miles. *Louisiana.*—Carondelet canal, from Lake Pontchartrain to New Orleans, 2½ miles; New Orleans and Teche canal, 100 miles; New Orleans and Pontchartrain railroad, 4½ miles. *Kentucky.*—Louisville and Portland canal, to avoid the falls of the Ohio, 2½ miles; Lexington and Ohio railroad, 90 miles. *Indiana.*—Wabash and Lake Erie canal, 211 miles, partly completed. Eight railroads are in progress or projected. *Ohio.*—Portsmouth canal to Lake Erie, 306 miles, with

anches; Miami canal, from Cincinyton, 66 miles.

, MINERALS, &c.—Iron ore may be every province; and mines of that worked with great effect in New New York, New Jersey, and other opper has been found in many parts, ly in the north-western territory; v of the mines are worked, that supis metal are required, and obtained ico. The Missouri districts afford st quantity of lead. Silver exists in rts. Gold is found in Virginia, North h Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama; ularly in the Carolinas and Georgia. s a rare product; but Kentucky is ord it, as well as plenty of iron and ith coal, lime, and salt, few countries amply provided than the western

s.—The American zoology is varied rtant. Of the mammoth, a much mal than any of those which now ie United States, no traces are found ttered bones. The bison, or buffalo, in the vast and woodless plains of The cougar is not often found in es; and the mountain cat, which is fierce and strong, is of rare occurars, likewise, are now uncommon in l parts, as their ravages in corn-fields ations roused a general zeal for their tion. Wolves, for the same reason, ing in number; and, probably, they be seen only in the unsettled parts tward. They are taken by log-traps, h they are decoyed by baits. Wole more common, particularly in the parts: they steal beavers from the kill the deer by tearing the jugular her wild animals are the lynx, fox, , ermine, racoon, skunk or pole-cat, Elks are rarely seen to the easthe Mississippi; but, in the Missouri y appear in great numbers, feeding aloes and red deer. The moose is s confounded with the elk; but the he former are palmated and spreadround or cylindrical. The horns, grown, are four or five feet from the ie tip, and have shoots or branches, ietimes spread about six feet. When al goes through a thicket, or under is of a tree, he lays his horns back k, to place them out of his way; and digious horns are shed yearly. He pring or rise in going, like an ordi; but a large one, in his common been seen to step over a gate five feet en unharboured, he will run a course 0 miles before he takes to bay; but, sed, he generally runs to the water. woody country, from Vermont to . abounds with deer of a light-brown have slender round branched horns ward, and are about the size of the European fallow deer. A small and beautiful species of antelope, of great fleetness, is found in the Rocky Mountains, and to the westward of them. The beaver is now met with only at the sources of the Mississippi, and the waters to the west of that river. The opossum still is common in the oldest settlements. The tame quadrupeds resemble those of Great Britain. Among the birds of prey are eagles and vultures; and the more common sorts are in general mere varieties of the European species: but Mr. Wilson speaks of six genera as peculiar to the country; viz. the grakle, tanager, turkey, parrot, manakin, and humming-bird. He also claims for the American birds which nearly resemble those of Europe, not only the praise of superior beauty, but greater musical merit. The mocking-bird, he says, can excel the nightingale in her own song, as he excels all other birds in their different melodies.

While the woods and fields display the beauties of plumage or resound with melody, they are rendered dreadfully insecure by the venom of the serpent tribe. The rattlesnake of North America is well known, and we have already described it; and many other serpents are found, sometimes in the middle states, but more frequently in the more southern. Not only, however, will medicinal applications occasionally cure the bites of those reptiles, but Providence has kindly diminished the danger to which the inhabitants are exposed from their venom, by furnishing an enemy in the wild hog, by whom they are attacked and destroyed.

In consequence of the possession of a long range of coast, and many lakes and rivers, the American ichthyology is abundantly varied. Whales appear on the north-eastern coast; and there is a great fishery for those animals off the isle of Nantucket. The cod, salmon, halibut, sturgeon, pike, cat-fish, shad, black-fish, rock-fish, sheep's-head, perch, mullet, all sorts of shell-fish, and a great number of other tenants of the waters, are taken by the inhabitants. But, while these stores are poured out for their gratification, the southern rivers infest the country by harbouring alligators, or American crocodiles, which sometimes grow to the length of twelve feet, and, not satisfied with devouring inferior animals, venture, in the rage of hunger, to attack human beings. The caiman of Louisiana is an animal of the same species; but it very rarely assaults men, and is only dreaded by dogs and hogs.

POPULATION—MANNERS.—It has been frequently remarked, that population, if not materially checked by war, pestilence, or famine, will double itself in twenty years. In 1753, the thirteen colonies comprehended about 1,046,000 persons; and, though that number was not doubled even in twenty-seven years, yet, from 1780 to 1800, the increase far exceeded the ratio of mere duplication, proceeding from 2,000,000 to 4,500,000. In 1810, above 6,000,000 were officially enumerated; in 1820, the amount reached

8,000,000; and, in 1830, it was 10,856,977. It is probably not less than 17,000,000 at the present time. The most populous states are Virginia and New York.

With regard to the character and manners of the people, it may seem invidious to speak freely; yet we cannot employ the language of unalloyed panegyric. Vanity, presumption, and an overweening confidence, are too often prominent features, which excite the notice of almost every stranger. An ungracious demeanour, illiberal selfishness, a cold disregard to the feelings of others, and a want of social urbanity, are also prevalent. Undoubtedly, amidst such a varied population there must be numerous exceptions, detracting from the universality of these characteristic remarks; but they seem to be true in their general application. It must, however, in justice be added, that these defects are gradually becoming less obvious.

Religion.—In the United States there is no state religious establishment; it having been thought more just and prudent to leave religion to its own operations, than to endeavour to influence conscience by holding out a prospect of distinction or emolument to those who exercise the state religion. Yet, the people in general are as religiously disposed as in most other countries. The Congregationalists and Presbyterians are the most numerous classes: both profess the Calvinistic doctrines; but the former have independent congregations, while the latter are subject to the government of synods and presbyteries. The Baptists are the next in point of number; and, in general, they are Calvinists in persuasion, and Independents in discipline. The Episcopalians are an increasing and respectable class, following the system of the Church of England; and their affairs are regulated by a convention of two houses, one consisting of bishops, the other of clerical and laic delegates. Methodists, Quakers or Friends, members of the Dutch reformed church, German Calvinists and Lutherans, Moravians or United Brethren, Roman Catholics, Universalists or advocates of universal salvation, and other followers of varied schemes of Christianity, are dispersed over the republican territories. Jews are found in some parts of the country; but their number is inconsiderable.

Government and Laws.—Having mentioned the grand outlines of the federal government, we may remark, that its system of polity is apparently calculated to secure the advantages of liberty; and that such abuses as gradually undermine freedom in other free states, have not had sufficient time for mischievous operation. Cabal and corruption are said, nevertheless, to prevail in all parts of the Union; and a factious spirit is more observable than even in Great Britain—the native soil of party: but this will appear to many to be the mere offspring of freedom.

The judicial part of the constitution is apparently correct in its frame, if it be not altogether pure and incorrupt in practice. The code principally followed consists of written law; namely, the constitution of the United States, the acts of congress, and treaties. The unwritten law of a particular state may be adopted; but it is only by virtue of the written law that the adoption can be accomplished. The laws seem in general to correspond with those of England. Mr. Pearon says, upon what he terms good authority, that great corruption exists in the minor courts; and, as some of the judges are of a low stamp, there is probably some foundation for the charge. There are very few countries in which justice is administered with that integrity which prevails in Great Britain.

Army, Navy, Commerce, Manufactures and Revenue.—When the peace of the republic seemed to be fully secured, after the contest which established its independence, a very small regular force was maintained: but, when the nation rushed into a war, in the year 1812, the troops were so far augmented, that the charges of the military department became 12,000,000 instead of 2,000,000 of dollars: and, in 1814, 20,500,000 dollars did not prove more than adequate to the demands of the state. In that year, the regular army amounted to 63,420 men; and it was proposed that 25,000 more should be raised; but the peace of Ghent prevented that alarming requisition. The present establishment is about 8000 men. The militia amounts to nearly 1,500,000 men.

The navy, at the beginning of the year 1812, consisted only of seven frigates, a few sloops, and some smaller vessels; but it was increased, in three years, to sixty-nine, including several ships, without reckoning schooners and gun-boats. Only five of the ships had 74 guns, but the frigates were constructed upon so large a scale, as to be almost on a par with ships of the line. It now consists of eleven sail of the line, one ship of 54 guns, fourteen of 44 guns, two of 36 guns, and fourteen sloops of war. There are also on the stocks four ships of the line, six frigates, and two steam vessels.

In commerce and navigation, the Americans have made a great progress since their acquisition of the advantages of independence. They have multiplied their trading vessels with the most sedulous zeal, and have visited every coast, without regard to distance or danger. From 1791 to 1793, the annual exports, on an average of three years, amounted to 20,81[illegible] dollars; from 1810 to 1812, to 55,534,013 dollars, and from 1831 to 1833, to 86,212,653 dollars. In 1837, the domestic exports had risen to 95,564,[illegible] dollars. The exports are flour, Indian corn, rice, flax-seed, cotton, tobacco, potash, timber, naval stores, animal products, &c.

Manufactures are in a flourishing state. Their total annual value is supposed to be about 340,000,000 of dollars. Their internal trade also flourishes, in consequence of the number of navigable rivers, with the frequent aid of canals and railroads; by which means

e transported from Boston even
in territories, with surprising

rcial duties the greatest part of
venue arises. That of the year
l at 36,743,574 dollars, of which
ormed three-fourths, the rest
by light and easy taxation, and
ublic lands. Most of the taxes
r the war have been repealed,
has been discharged. During
rs the revenue has varied from
,000,000 dollars. In 1841 there
more than 16,000,000 dollars.

AND THE FINE ARTS.—By lite-
ientific profundity, the subjects
States are not remarkably dis-
t they are improving in both
ks of some merit occasionally
e transactions of societies and
periodically published. Among
an writers, Washington Irving
ient place. The wholesale pi-
works is highly injurious to the
erican literature. In no coun-
e more diffused by newspapers,
which far exceeds the number
ced in the British dominions:
we may add, is greater atten-
e government to general educa-
polite arts there are a few cele-
West, the painter, is claimed
icans for their countryman.
have no good sculptors, they
nious and skilful architects.

STATES, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.

NORTHERN STATES.

SETTS STATE, which is divided
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of British America. The only
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runs through the country, from
; and the latter, rising in New
ns for some distance within the
er. The country is mountainous
; but the greatest elevation,
ddle Mountain, does not exceed
re is found in great quantities in
f this state; copper ore, black
yellow and red ochre, alum, and
among its products; and some
s have been discovered at Sim
s.

tory are to be found all the
l: it is capable of yielding, in
dian corn, rye, wheat, barley,
ax, hops, potatoes, field beans
es, pears, peaches, plums, cher-

uated on a peninsula of irre-
he extremity of Massachusetts
ed to the main land by an isth-
h end of the town. It is two
miles long, but of unequal breadth. In 1790 it contained 18,000 inhabitants; but the increase has since been so considerable, that, in 1830, it was 61,392, among whom there are no slaves, as the rulers of this state, many years ago, abolished slavery within its boundaries. The harbour will allow 500 vessels to ride at anchor in good depth of water, while the entrance will scarcely admit two ships abreast. The wharfs and quays are about 80 in number, and very convenient for vessels. The Charles river and Boston bridges are highly useful and ornamental to the town: one is 1503 feet long, 42 feet broad, and stands on 75 piers; while the other, which is more elegant, rests on 180 piers, and is 3480 feet long. The view of the town, from the sea, is picturesque. It lies in a circular and pleasingly irregular form round the harbour, and is ornamented with spires, above which the monument of Beacon Hill rises pre-eminent; on its top is a gilt eagle, bearing the arms of the Union, and on the base of the column are inscriptions commemorating some of the most remarkable events of the revolutionary war. On a rising ground, at the upper part of the Mall, stands the state-house, a structure, says Mr. Duncan, "of humbler pretensions, as to size and materials, than the city-hall of New York, but in situation and architectural outline greatly superior." The same writer speaks favourably of the general character of the Bostonians. In a literary point of view, he says, "their city is far before any other American town."

The other towns which contain the largest population are Salem, a thriving commercial port, with 14,000 persons; Charleston, with 8783, and a government dock-yard; New Bedford, with 7592, and an extensive whale-fishery; Gloucester, with 7518, who are principally engaged in the fisheries; and Lowell, a recently created manufacturing town, which has 6474 inhabitants, and is rapidly increasing its numbers. From 12,000,000 to 14,000,000 yards of cotton fabrics are annually produced at Lowell. Plymouth, which has 4751 inhabitants, was the first town built in New England, and is peopled principally by the descendants of the first settlers. The rock on which their forefathers landed was conveyed, in 1774, from the shore to a square in the centre of the town, where it remains as a national monument. The situation of the town is pleasant and healthful.

Many important manufactures are carried on by the people of this state. Ship-building is eagerly prosecuted; arms are skilfully fabricated; cabinet-work, tin-plate-work, earthenware, various articles in brass and steel, optical and musical instruments, clocks and watches, are well prepared both for foreign and domestic trade. Amidst this attention to profitable employment, literature and science, as we before hinted, are not neglected. At Cambridge, four miles from Boston, which has 6000 inhabitants, there is a university,

called Haward College, which has 30 professors or tutors, and generally from 250 to 300 students; and, as to its library, philosophical apparatus, and professorships, it is the most distinguished literary institution on this continent. It takes date from the year 1638. There are two other colleges in the state, and two theological seminaries.

In May 1780 the Massachusetts legislature passed an act for incorporating and establishing an academy for cultivating and promoting arts and sciences. Other societies that tend to enlighten the state, are connected with the pursuit of natural history, the improvement of medicine, the diffusion of polite learning and general knowledge, and the propagation of religious truth.

MAINE, the most northern state of the Union, was long a part of Massachusetts, and did not take rank in the confederacy till 1820. On two of its sides it is bounded by New Brunswick and Lower Canada, and on another by the Atlantic. It is divided into ten counties, and, in 1830, had 400,000 inhabitants. Its area, if it should consent to be satisfied with that part of the disputed territory which was awarded to it by the king of the Netherlands, will be at least 30,000 square miles; but its claims are much more extensive. On the north and north-west stretches a mountain-chain, called the Highlands, from which branches a ridge, called the Bald Mountain, 24 miles in length. Maine has several insulated mountains, the loftiest of which is Katahdin, which is 5385 feet high.

The chief rivers of Maine are the St. Croix, the Penobscot, the Kennebec, the Androscoggin, and the Saco; and it has numerous lakes, some of which are of considerable magnitude. In the number and goodness of its harbours it surpasses all the other states. A natural result of this is, that it carries on an extensive commerce. Its tonnage is 162,000 tons, and its annual exports are estimated at 8000 dollars. A large profit is derived from its fisheries.

The climate, though cold and raw, rainy in spring, and stormy in winter, is healthy. Between the Kenuebec and the Penobscot the soil is fertile; along the coast it is the contrary. Wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, potatoes, and flax, are the principal productions. Cultivation has, however, as yet, scarcely cleared away more than a thirtieth of the forests. When the axe has made greater progress the climate will probably be ameliorated. There is an abundance of iron in Maine, and some lead.

The largest town in Maine is Portland, which was formerly the capital; it has a good harbour, an extensive trade, and at least 13,000 inhabitants. Augusta, which is now the seat of government, has a population of about 4000. There are a great number of other towns, with from 1100 to 4000 persons.

Maine has two colleges, Bowdoin and Waterville, beside two theological seminaries, twenty-eight incorporated academies, and numerous common schools, supported by a public fund, and giving instruction to three-fourths of the children of the state.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, which is divided into eight counties, and has an area of 9496 square miles, is situated to the westward of Maine, and is intersected by several ridges of mountains, among which are the Blue Hills, and those which divide the Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated the Height of Land, but the White or Snowy Mountains, which run through this state, are undoubtedly the highest in all New England. The most elevated point, which makes a majestic appearance along the shores of Massachusetts, is called Mount Washington, and is 6234 feet above the level of the sea. Other summits are more than 5000 feet high. Iron, lead, and copper are found in this state. It also produces red and yellow ochre, steatites or soap-rock, the best lapis specularis, a kind of talc, commonly called isinglass; crystal, alum, vitriol, freestone, and black lead.

The air is healthful, and the weather is commonly serene, and not so subject to variation as in the southern states: but it is extremely cold in winter, and in summer the heat is great, though of short duration. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining to which are salt marshes, intersected by creeks, which produce good pasture. The wide-spreading hills are warm and rich; cattle thrive on the rocky moist land; the drained swamps have a deep mellow soil, and the valleys are generally very productive. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. Corn, hops, and hemp, are raised in great quantities, and the uncultivated lands are covered with forests of pine, cedar, oak, &c.

Portsmouth is the chief town, and has more than 8000 inhabitants. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden, and being so well defended against storms, that ships may securely ride there in any season. Concord is a flourishing town, pleasantly situated on the Merrimack. It is the seat of government, and contains nearly 4000 inhabitants. At the small town of Hanover is Dartmouth College, which has ten professors and tutors, 200 students, and a library of 14,000 volumes.

The constitution of New Hampshire, like that of the Massachusetts state, provides for the existence of a senate and a body of representatives, and for the election of a governor and a council of state by the people. This, indeed, forms the government of every one of the North American states; but, in the territories which are not yet admitted in due form into the Union, the president and the congress depute a distinguished citizen to exercise the administrative functions. Slavery is not prohibited in this state; but there are no slaves, and those who remain in that condition

are treated with humanity. The population, in 1830, was 269,328, and is said to increase somewhat more than 10 per cent. in ten years.

RHODE-ISLAND, including Providence plantation, consists of five counties, and is the smallest member of the confederacy, possessing only an area of 1228 square miles. The chief rivers are the Pawcatuck, Pawtuxet, and Providence. Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of this state; there is also a mine of copper, mixed with iron, strongly impregnated with loadstone. Limestone, marble, and anthracite coal are also found here. It is as healthy a country as any in America. The winters, in the maritime parts, are milder than in the inland country. The summers are delightful, the heat being allayed by the sea-breezes.

The principal towns are Providence and Newport. The former is situated at the head of Narraganset Bay, and is a large, handsome, and wealthy town, containing several elegant buildings, and about 17,000 inhabitants. It had two philosophical societies, which are now united. Newport stands at the south-west end of Rhode Island, and has between 8000 and 9000 inhabitants. A fine harbour spreads westward before the town, and the entrance is easy and safe.

The town of Bristol prosecutes a considerable trade with Africa, the West Indies, and different parts of the United States: but the chief commerce of Rhode Island is at present carried on by the inhabitants of Providence. The exports are flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, grain, provisions of various kinds, cotton, and linen; and the imports consist of European and West Indian goods, and logwood from the bay of Honduras.

CONNECTICUT, which is divided into eight counties, and has an area of 4664 square miles, is situated to the south of the Massachusetts state, and stretches 90 miles along the coast. Its population is about 300,000. The river of that name traverses the province, and the country is also fertilized by the Housatonic and the Thames. Ores of iron, copper, and lead; native silver, containing arsenic, and united with bismuth; marble, and fine red stone; dolomite, or magnesian lime-stone; cobalt and plumbago; jasper, beryl, and garnets, are found in this state. The climate and vegetable produce are nearly the same as in Massachusetts. The soil is generally good, and in some cases very fertile. The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent; there are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scottish or Irish people, in any part of the state.

There are many pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, which have extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. *Two of these, Hartford and New Haven, are alternate capitals of the state. The former is regularly built, and the streets intersect each other at right angles. It has about* 10,000 inhabitants; New Haven has more than 11,000. The other cities are New London, Norwich, and Middletown. In the small towns and villages, the houses are generally built of wood, sometimes with only one story; their sides are painted white; their sloping roofs are covered with shingles, and painted of a slate colour; and, with sash windows, green Venetian shades on the outside, and neat rails and steps, they make a pretty appearance. The country is well cultivated, and the people seem to enjoy competence and comfort.

All religions that are consistent with the peace of society are tolerated in Connecticut; yet there are few sectarian varieties in this state. The bulk of the people are Congregationalists, and there are also Episcopalians and Baptists.

Yale College, at New Haven, is a respectable seminary of learning: it was founded in the year 1701, and has generally more students than any other seminary in the Union. At Hartford there is a college, called Washington College, which is under Episcopalian direction. Academies have likewise been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and other places. Almost every town is divided into districts, and each district has a public school during a greater or less part of every year. A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks; and more young men, in proportion to their number, receive a public education, than in any other state.

VERMONT is an inland country, and is hilly, but not rocky. It lies between Lower Canada, New Hampshire, New York, and Massachusetts, is divided into thirteen counties, and has about 285,000 inhabitants. To the westward of the mountains is a very spacious tract, well adapted for tillage. The streams are small, but the land is well watered, and affords the best pasturage. Very fine oxen are reared in this state; horses also are bred for exportation. Birch, sugar-maple, ash, butter-nut, white oak of an excellent quality, and many other trees, are abundantly furnished. The maple furnishes annually 6,000,000 lbs. of sugar. The soil is well fitted for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c.

Mines of iron are worked in this state with skill and effect. Jasper, pyrites, fine porcelain clay, and beautiful marble, are found in various parts; and among the curiosities may be mentioned a natural stone bridge, affording a passage over the river Lamoille.

There are few towns in this state. Montpellier, though it has only 1800 inhabitants, is the capital of the state. The towns are generally small; the largest being Burlington, Middleburg, and Bennington; the first of which has 3600 inhabitants, and each of the two others nearly the same number. With regard to the manners and habits of the people, Mr. Warden says, "Every member of the family is actively employed. The labours of the field are performed only by the men, except in hay

when the women assist. Mothers nurse their own children, and the young daughters cook, spin, weave and knit. In winter, the favourite amusement is dancing. The farmer and day-labourer partake of the same fare. Like the inhabitants of most new countries, they are hardy, industrious, frugal, and jealous of their freedom." There are public schools in every parish, and two universities, at Burlington and Middleburg.

MIDDLE STATES.

New York is an extensive and flourishing province, divided into fifty-six counties, with at least 2,000,000 of inhabitants. Its length, from east to west, is about 340 miles, and its breadth 304 miles. Its area is about 46,000 square miles. It boasts of the Hudson, or North River, which rises in an elevated spot to the west of Lake Champlain, and flows into the sea after a course of 250 miles. It is navigable for sloops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ships to the city of Hudson. On the Mohawk, which, after a course of 130 miles, joins it above Albany, is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which falls 30 feet perpendicular; but, including the descent above, the fall is 60 feet.

Great quantities of iron ore are found in this state; a silver-mine has been worked at Philipsburg; and tin, lead, antimony, and various other minerals, are found, some of them in abundance. The mineral springs of Ballstown, Saratoga, and New Lebanon, are in great repute. The springs of Onondago produce excellent salt; and a spring has been discovered in the Susquehannah county, impregnated with nitre.

This province enjoys a favourable temperature, and the air is healthy. Though the face of the country is low, flat, and marshy toward the sea, yet, as you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruit in great abundance and perfection. The timber is nearly the same with that of New England.

The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York Island, which is 12 miles long, and near 3 miles in breadth, admirably situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is 3 miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany and many other inland towns toward Canada and the lakes. The city extends about 3 miles on the Hudson river, and about 4 miles on the East river. It is defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant, and there are several handsome buildings, the most conspicuous of which is the city hall: but most parts of the town are irregularly built. A great proportion of the inhabitants, who, in 1830, amounted to 213,000, and are rapidly increasing, are the posterity Dutch families which remained here surrender of the New Netherlands English. The state of society and in this city, may thus be sketched. are fond of social meetings, and pro dulge in eating and drinking, partic the latter practice: they are more polite, more good-humoured than The ladies are possessed of consider sonal attractions; their manners a able, and they dress with neatness gance.

Albany, which is the seat of go being situated on a fine river, at th sloop-navigation, surrounded with a try, and the storehouse of the trade nada and the lakes, cannot but d wealth and consequence. Twelve it had nearly 25,000 inhabitants.

New York possesses numerous towns, some of which are thickly Troy has 17,000 inhabitants; Brooklyn Utica, 10,200; Rochester, 15,000; and 16,000.

The situation of New York, with foreign markets, has decidedly the to any of the states. It has, at all the year, a short and easy access to It commands the trade of a great of the best settled and best cultivate the United States. It contains a gre of persons who are employed in vario factures, particularly wheel-carriages, cabinet-work, cutlery, glass, clocks, mathematical and musical instrume

The university of the state is in New York, and has 17 professors 230 students. A college was erecte York, by act of parliament, in the but, as the assembly was at that ti into parties, it was formed on a plan, and has, for that reason, never the encouragement which might na expected for a public seminary in s a city. It is now called Columbia Union College was established at Sh in 1794; and, in 1812, that of Ha Oneida county, was founded. There college at Geneva. Besides these, two medical colleges, and three th seminaries. There are also, in differ of the state, eleven incorporated ac and it is provided that schools shall blished, one at least in every distric square miles. A respectable society, rary and philosophical description, wa in the capital, in 1815; history is cultivated by another association; an has been formed for the promotion o arts, and another for natural history.

New Jersey extends, along the coast, about 150 miles to the east of vania; contains fourteen counties, area of 7500 square miles, with a more than 300,000 souls. Its

censac, Rariton, and Passaic; on the hich is a cataract: the height of the a which the water falls is about 70 endicular. The climate is nearly the h that of New York: the soil is va- least one fourth part of the province sandy land, producing pines and he other parts in general are good, uce excellent wheat, barley, rye, and orn. In this state are many iron id there formerly was copper, but the ve been exhausted.

a is the capital of New Jersey; but it lourishes in trade nor in population, ot more than 4000 inhabitants. New- h has manufactures of carriages, sad- shoes, has a population of 11,000. is next in importance are New Bruns- h 8000 inhabitants, and Patterson, same number. The chief manufac- those of iron, leather, glass, woollen, n. Agriculture is the most prevalent at the same time, learning is not or disregarded; for there are two col- e at New Brunswick, and the other at , and sixteen incorporated academies; erary and philosophical society was l in 1825.

RLVANIA is in the form of a parallelo- miles long, and 170 miles broad, and ea of 47,500 square miles. It is divided one counties, and, in 1830, had a po- of 1,348,233 souls, which was increas- e rate of 28½ per cent. in ten years. are the Delaware, which is navigable n 200 miles above Philadelphia; the nnah, Schuylkill, Juniata, Alleghany, ongahela; which, with the numerous Delaware Bay, capable of containing st fleets, render this state admirably r inland and foreign trade. Iron ore and copper and lead are found in ces. Limestone is common, as are al kinds of marble; and in the middle rn parts there is abundance of coal. of the country, air, soil, and produce, aterially differ from those of New there be any difference, it is in favour rlvania. The air is sweet and clear. ters continue from December till nd are so cold, that the Delaware, ry broad, is often frozen over. The f July, August, and September, are ntolerably hot; but the country is by frequent cool breezes.

be remarked, in general, that in all the states, from New York to the extremity, the woods are full of wild ree or four species, all different from have in Europe. But, whether from it in their nature, or in the climate, il; or, what is much more probable, ult *in the planters, they have yet o good wine. It may also be ob- e timber of these states, that toward is not so good for shipping* as that of the more northern countries. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, however, while it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves. In point of manufactures, Pennsylvania ranks high among the states.

The Pennsylvanians are principally the descendants of English, Irish, and Germans, beside the posterity of Scots, Dutch, Swiss, Swedes, and Danes. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly of English extraction, and compose about one-third of the inhabitants. They live chiefly in the metropolis, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish are mostly Presbyterians, but some are Roman Catholics. The Germans compose almost one quarter of the inhabitants: they are of various persuasions, but resemble each other in the habits of temperance, sobriety, industry, and economy. The Baptists are chiefly the offspring of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the national prejudices, manners, customs, religious and political sentiments of all these, may be said to form the Pennsylvanian character.

Pennsylvania contains several considerable towns, such as Lancaster, Carlisle, and Pittsburg; the latter of which has 50,000 inhabitants, and is called the Birmingham of the west; but Philadelphia eclipses the rest. This city was built according to the plan of the famous William Penn. It is situated 126 miles from the sea, by the course of the bay and river, and 55 in the south-east direction. It forms an oblong square, about one mile from north to south, and two from east to west; lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus, between the Delaware and Schuylkill, about five miles in a right line above the confluence of those rivers. It is intersected by a great number of streets crossing at right angles. Of these there were originally nine, which were crossed by twenty-three, running north and south. The squares thus formed, in the original plan, were 194; but, as several have lately been intersected by new streets, the number now exceeds 300. The greater part of the city is well paved with brick, and furnished with common sewers and gutters; so that the streets are in general kept very clean and neat. The houses are generally of brick, three stories high, constructed in a plain decent style, without much display of ornament. The public buildings are numerous, and surpass those in most of the other states. The state-house is a magnificent building; an elegant court-house, or town-hall, stands on the left of the state-house, and on the right, a philosophical hall; and two public banks, one merely provincial, the other for the United States, have been erected in a fine style of Grecian architecture. The population of this city is about 170,000, and it contains 90 churches.

Philadelphia abounds with useful institu-

tions. The university was organized on a plan proposed by Dr. Franklin, which has since been improved. The medical school belonging to this seminary has long enjoyed great celebrity. There are also eight free schools, a philosophical society, an academy for the fine arts, and many charitable institutions There are eight minor colleges in other parts or the state. The penitentiary, at Philadelphia, which covers ten acres of ground, is celebrated for its admirable regulations; for, instead of being a scene of idleness, debauchery, and profanity, it is a place of well-conducted labour, and a school of reformation. In this state, by a very proper and laudable regulation, no offences are capitally punished, except murder and the burning of a house; and crimes have since declined both in frequency and in atrocity.

The DELAWARE state, which consists of three counties, and has a population of about 80,000, is a small tract along that river, comprehending only 2200 square miles, and, with the exception of Rhode Island, is the smallest of the states. The air is in general healthy, except in some parts, where there are large quantities of stagnant water. The soil along the river, and as far as eight or ten miles in the interior, is a rich clay, adapted to agriculture: thence to the swamps it is light, sandy, and of inferior quality. Wheat grows in such perfection as not only to be particularly sought by all native dealers in flour, but also to be preferred for its superior qualities in foreign markets. This territory also produces abundant crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, and potatoes.

Dover, being the seat of government, is considered as the capital; but Wilmington is the most considerable town in the state; yet it is said to contain only 6628 inhabitants. It is regularly laid out in squares, like Philadelphia. The Delaware canal, which connects the river of that name with the Chesapeake, is navigable for small sea vessels. It is only 14 miles long, but cost 2,000,000 dollars. In one part it was cut, for 4 miles, through a hill 90 feet high. A bridge crosses it of a single arch, which has 255 feet span.

MARYLAND is divided by the bay of Chesapeake, which is 180 miles in length, and has on each side many navigable branches. The greatest branch is the Potowmac, forming the western boundary of this province. The climate is warm, and the soil in general fertile. Annapolis, the capital, exhibits many elegant mansions, and a noble state-house; but it has not more than 2700 inhabitants. It has a college, with a library of 3000 volumes. Baltimore is the largest town in this state, and has a population of 80,000: it stands on the north side of the Patapsco, at a small distance from its junction with the Chesapeake, around one of the finest harbours in America. It boasts of a university, medical college, and various other public institutions. The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from this town with the other states, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. In 1807, the mercantile tonnage was nearly 70,000 tons. The planters and merchants export tobacco, wheat, flour, pig-iron, lumber, and flax-seed; and receive, in return, clothing for themselves and their slaves, wine, spirits, sugar, and other commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

The Catholics, who have a cathedral and a college at Baltimore, continue to predominate in Maryland; but they tolerate all the Protestant sects. The Episcopalians and Presbyterians are next to them in point of number.

From the states of Virginia and Maryland, a small tract, containing 100 square miles, was withdrawn, in 1790, for the formation of a distinct territory, called COLUMBIA, which became the seat of the federal government, in 1800. It is divided into two counties, and, in 1830, had a population of 40,000 persons, which was increasing at the rate of 30 per cent. in ten years. A stately edifice, called the Capitol, had been previously erected for the meetings of the legislature, at the confluence of the Potowmac with the Eastern Branch; and a considerable town quickly rose into existence, which received the name of Washington. It was built on a regular plan, upon such portions of land as were ceded to the state by private proprietors, who expected to reimburse themselves by the augmented value of the remaining part. The private houses are neat and commodious: but there are few particularly handsome. The public buildings were exposed to hostile outrage, in 1814, by the success of a body of British invaders, who, in revenge for American ravages in Canada, set fire to the hall of assembly, the president's house, the treasury, war office, navy yard, and other useful and ornamental parts of the new city; but the mischief has since been repaired, in a better style of architecture. The city is said, without the suburbs, to contain about 19,000 inhabitants. It extends from the north-west to the south-east about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and from the north-east to the south-west, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles; but the houses are thinly scattered over this wide space. The Pennsylvania-street is 160 feet in breadth, and a mile in length. Columbia college, in Washington, has eight professors and a library of 4000 volumes. A canal has been cut through the city, on which passage-boats ply; and a strong but not elegant bridge connects the town with the western side of the river. It is said, that the chief object of this change of the capital was, to secure the legislature from insult or intimidation, by fixing its meetings in a place which is under the immediate control and authority of the congress. There are two other towns in the district George-Town, which is the port of Washington, with 8000 inhabitants; and Alexandria, with more than 8000 inhabitants. The latter town has a Catholic college, with nineteen teachers, and a library of 12,000 volumes.

SOUTHERN STATES.

IA, which in shape is an irregular pa-
m, of about 350 miles by 230 miles,
ea of nearly 70,000 square miles, and
112 counties, with a population, in
211,405 inhabitants. This state pos-
eat natural advantages. It abounds
erals; it has a multitude of rivers, and
oil; but the climate is not the most

In the summer the heat is exces-
gh not without refreshing sea breezes.
her is changeable, and the changes
n and violent. The frosts come on
the least warning. A warm day is
s succeeded by such an intense cold
ening as will freeze over the largest
he air and seasons depend much upon
, as to heat and cold, dryness and

In winter, the air is usually clear
The spring is about a month earlier
England; in April there are frequent
May and June the heat increases;
ummer is, for some weeks, like that
enjoy; but, in July and August, the
ies stagnant and violently hot. In
r the weather generally changes, and
as ensue, which occasion all the train
s incident to a moist climate. Thun-
ightning are here frequent, but not
hievous.

the Virginian rivers are the James,
Rappahannock. The first has many
branches; and the three streams, at
aces, approach within a mile of each
Where the navigation is interrupted
and falls, short canals supply the
ntinuity. The Potowmac, which rises
leghany mountains, has a course of

There are several other streams of
ble magnitude. In mineral springs
surpasses all the other states. The
this country abound with all sorts of
s, and no underwood or bushes grow
em; so that people travel with ease
hem on horseback, under a fine shade,
fends them from the sun; the plains
nelled with flowers and flowering
f the richest colours and most fra-
nt. Medicinal herbs and roots, par-
the snake-root and ginseng, are here
plenty; and there is no sort of grain
t be cultivated to advantage. Mine-
nd in Virginia. Mines of gold, iron,
coal, are already wrought, and copper
in the Blue Ridge.

the curious works of nature in Vir-
the natural bridge, 270 feet above the
er Cedar Creek; the passage of the
e, through the Blue Ridge; two magni-
alactitical caves; and the Blowing
ence issues a continual current of air,
ough to beat down the weeds at a
of sixty feet. Some of the works of
t *American race are also to be seen*
t. *That state contains one of the*
rows in the valley of the Ohio. Its
base is 300 feet in diameter, its apex 60 feet, its perpendicular height 70 feet, and it encloses several thousand skeletons.

Unfavourable accounts are given of the generality of the people. The young men are said to be gamblers, jockeys, and fond of brutal sports. At almost all the taverns or inns on the public roads, there are billiard-tables and back-gammon boards, cards, and other implements for various games. A passion for the barbarous diversion of cock-fighting is particularly predominant. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery. Mr. Warden makes no mention of these diversions; but says, that "the amusements of the Virginians are hunting the deer and the fox, also horse-racing, ball-playing, fowling, and dancing." He also affirms that the "horrible practice of gouging, or scooping out the eye by an artful exertion of the thumb, has entirely ceased."

The principal towns of Virginia are Richmond, the capital, and Norfolk. Richmond contains about 17,000 inhabitants. Norfolk is one of the most considerable commercial towns, and has a safe and commodious harbour, and about 10,000 inhabitants. The houses in the towns are generally of scantling and boards, lathed and plastered within, and painted on the outside; and the roofs are covered with shingles. The habitations of the poor are log-huts, the interstices of the wood being filled up with mud; but the rich planters build more substantially, of brick or stone.

There is a college at Williamsburg, founded by King William III., who gave £2000 toward the building, and 20,000 acres of land for the endowment. It has a president, five professors, and other officers. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college, by the name of Hampden Sydney College; but it will only accommodate sixty students. There are also the colleges of Randolph Macon, in Brunswick county, and Washington, in Rockbridge county.

Mr. Jefferson, who was for some years president of the United States, and distinguished himself by his ability and public virtue, resolved to devote a great part of his property to the erection of a university, on a better plan and with more judicious arrangements than those of the collegiate seminaries of Virginia. It is situated at the foot of a mountain, near Charlotteville, and consists of four parallel ranges of handsome buildings in the Grecian style, comprehending pavilions, as the lodgings of the professors are called, hotels, and chambers for 212 students; and, for the promotion of health, a gymnasium has been added. This great undertaking has been promoted by the liberality of the government, and promises to flourish in utility and in fame.

NORTH CAROLINA is about 420 miles in length, and 120 in breadth; has an area of

49,500 square miles, and contains 63 counties. Its population, in 1830, was 737,987 souls, of which one-third were slaves. In its whole width, for 60 miles from the sea, it is perfectly level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forests, and is barren; but on the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile. The western hilly parts are also fruitful, abounding with springs and rivulets; and through the other parts are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of good oak-land. Sixty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains. Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly settlements; Indian corn in all parts. Cotton and hemp are also considerably cultivated, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly; for the stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce 1000 lbs. in the seeds, or 250 lbs. fit for manufacturing. The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almost universally pitch-pine, which is a tall handsome tree, far superior to the pitch-pine of the northern states. The swamps abound with cypress and bay-trees. The principal rivers of the state are the Cape Fear, the Roanoke, and the Pamlico. Iron is also abundant in one part of the state, and lead and plumbago have also been found. But its most singular produce is gold. Through the tract of country which runs parallel with the mountain ranges, there runs a sort of auriferous zone, in some places more than 40 miles wide, which extends northward into Virginia, and southward through South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama. It seems, however, to be most productive in North Carolina. About thirty years ago several lumps of gold were found in this state, one of which weighed 28 lbs. Since then, the search for this metal has been steadily pursued, and large quantities have been annually procured. It is imagined that the amount obtained has been declining since 1833; but this is not certain. "No shafts," says Mr. Buckingham, "have yet been sunk deeper than 120 feet; and great numbers of the owners and renters of land work their several lots without the use of machinery, merely digging, raking, and washing the earth; though others of large capital have mills worked by steam, with water-power for grinding the ore, and crucibles for fining it. What is especially remarkable is this, that in excavating the earth, old shafts are sometimes opened, and machinery and tools used by some former race, who worked their mines before the Europeans had a footing on this continent, are discovered. Among these are crucibles, which are so superior to any now made, that the Messrs. Bissels, who are at the head of a large mining establishment there, assert that they have tried them, and found them to last twice or three times as long as even the Hessian crucibles, the best of modern use and manufacture." These vestiges, and others which we have mentioned, of a highly civilized but now extinct race, are calculated to excite wonder and sorrow. Whence came that race? How did it perish?

Newbern is the largest town, and was formerly the residence of the governor: its population is 4000. Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville have, each in its turn, been the seats of the general assembly. Raleigh, which stands near the centre of the state, has lately been established as the capital, though it is an insignificant town in point of extent and population, having only 2000 inhabitants.

Before the American Revolution, the inhabitants were attached to brutal diversions and barbarous practices, particularly boxing, gaming, and cock-fighting; but this is not now the general character. From the charge of intemperance, however, they cannot so easily be vindicated. They are fond of drinking spirits undiluted, particularly whisky and peach brandy; and, indeed, in almost every state of the Union, this practice is shamefully prevalent.

North Carolina has the honour and the advantage of a university. It is situated on Chapel Hill, in Orange county, and has seven professors, and a library of 5000 volumes. A medical society was incorporated in 1830; and there are academies of considerable reputation at Warren Town and other places.

South Carolina, divided into 29 districts, is about 275 miles long, and 120 miles wide, and has an area of 32,000 square miles, with a population, in 1830, of 581,185 souls, of whom considerably more than half were slaves. It is traversed by finely-wooded mountains; and the coast is bordered with a chain of islands. the soil of which is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo and cotton than the main land, and less suited to rice. The land, to the extent of eighty miles from the sea, is low and level, and little better than an unhealthy salt-marsh: but the country, as you advance, improves continually; and, at the distance of one hundred miles from Charleston, where it begins to grow hilly, the soil is of prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpose of human life, nor can anything be more pleasant to the eye than the variegated disposition of this back country. Here the air is pure and wholesome, and the summer heat much less violent than on the flat sandy coast.

This province is watered by many navigable rivers, the principal of which are the Savannah, Santee, Edisto, Pedee, and their branches. The first forms the boundary on the side of Georgia. It rises from two sources in the Apalachian mountains, and pursues a south-east course to the Atlantic. The Santee flows in the same direction through the middle of the state. It is remarkable that the great branches of this river are each wider than the channel of their united streams.

South Carolina abounds with lead, copper, and iron, and has gold, though not in such

ındance as North Carolina; but it is the sfortune of the operators, that they are defi- nt in the knowledge of metallurgy. There likewise rock crystal, pyrites, marble beau- ılly variegated, abundance of chalk, crude m, nitre, and vitriol.

'he climate, as in all this part of America, nits sudden transitions from cold to heat, ; not to such violent extremities as in Vir- ia. The winters are seldom so severe as to eze any considerable water, affecting only mornings and evenings: the frosts have er sufficient strength to resist the noonday , so that many tender plants, which do not nd the winter in Virginia, flourish in South rolina; for they have oranges in great plenty ır Charleston, and excellent in their kinds, h sweet and sour. The salubrity of the air ies in different parts. Along the coast, ious diseases, and fevers of various kinds, prevalent between July and October; one ıse of which is the low marshy country, rflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. e upper country, being in the medium be- een extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as y part of the United States.

The vegetable productions are wheat, rice, dian corn, barley, oats, hemp, flax, cotton, bacco, indigo, olives, oranges, citrons, cy- ess, saxifrage, oak, walnut, cassia, and pine- ses; and white mulberry trees for feeding lk-worms. There is a kind of tree from hich runs an oil of extraordinary virtue in ring wounds; and another which yields a lm thought to be little inferior to that of ecca. Nothing surprises a European more first sight than the size of the trees here, as ell as in Virginia, and other American pro- nces. Their trunks are often from fifty to xty feet high, without a branch or limb; and metimes above thirty-six feet in circumfe- nce. Of these trunks, when hollowed, the ople of Charleston, as well as the savages, ake canoes which serve to transport provi- ons from one place to another; and some of em are so large, that they will carry thirty forty barrels of pitch, though formed of one ece of timber. Of these are likewise made rious pleasure-boats.

"Among the novelties in nature which we w at Charleston," says Mr. Buckingham, was a small worm, called the trinket-worm, haracterized by this peculiarity, which gives e to its name. On the leaves of a wild vine, lled the trinket-vine, is found a small worm, hich looks at first like a short piece of white read, and is almost motionless. If the leaf taken off, and placed under a glass case in a om, this little thread will, in the short space twenty-four hours, grow into a good-sized terpillar, beautifully coloured, and studded ith golden spots. When matured, it will imb up the glass, fasten one of its extremities the glass roof, and, having the other depend- g in the air, will curl itself into a great va- ty of forms, presenting exquisite patterns for gold trinkets, such as earrings, brooches, clasps, &c. &c.; varying these from time to time in great diversity—whence its name."

Charleston, the capital, is situated at the confluence of two rivers, one of which is navigable for ships twenty miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near forty miles. The harbour is good in every respect but that of a bar, which excludes vessels of more than 200 tons burden, loaded. The streets intersect each other at right angles; and those which run east and west extend three-quarters of a mile from one river to another. In some of the streets the houses are lofty, handsome, and spacious, with balconies and verandas; but, in other parts, the habitations are of a very inferior description. Trees, of that species which is called the Pride of India, are planted along the paths, and afford, by their large leaves and spreading branches, shelter from the solar heat, while the poisonous qualities of the leaves prevent insects from harbouring upon them. About 31,000 persons, among whom are more people of colour than whites, compose the population.

Columbia is a small town in Kershaw county, on the east side of the Congaree. It is now the seat of government; but the public offices have, in some measure, been divided for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each is retained in Charleston.

Since the Revolution there have been no disputes among religious sects. They all agree to differ. The upper parts of this state are settled chiefly by Presbyterians, Baptists, and Methodists. The Episcopalians and Independents are also scattered over the province.

Literature is not very flourishing; but the desire of education rapidly increases; and, though there are some colleges which are not encouraged, others, particularly that of Columbia, are well frequented. A literary and philosophical society was formed at Charleston in 1814, which promises to be useful to the community.

Georgia, the most southern part of the Union except Florida, is about 300 miles long, and 203 miles wide, on an average, and is divided into ninety counties, with a population of 517,000 souls, nearly one-half of which are slaves. Its coast is bordered with fertile islands, and its chief rivers, beside the Savannah, are the Ogeechee, Alatamaha, Flint, and Chatahoochee. The climate is warmer than that of South Carolina; and winter is the most pleasant season. The eastern part is level, without a hill or stone; but, at the distance of forty or fifty miles from the salt-marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven, until they gradually rise to mountains. The termination of the Apalachian chain is in Georgia; and, from its lower part, a spacious plain of the richest soil extends, in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of the productions of the south of Europe, and of the East Indies.

A considerable quantity of gold is found in Georgia. Iron and copper also exist, but the mines have not yet been opened. Rice is at present the staple commodity of the state; tobacco, wheat, and indigo are the other great articles of produce. Beside these, the country yields cotton, silk, Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, olives, and pomegranates; and the south-western parts, with the neighbouring territory of Florida, will probably become the vineyard of America. The forests chiefly consist of oak, hickory, mulberry, pine, and cedar.

The principal towns are Savannah and Augusta. Savannah, formerly the capital of the state, is commodiously situated both for inland and foreign trade, seventeen miles from the sea, on the river of the same name, which is navigable for boats above 200 miles. Ships of the burden of 300 tons can lie within six yards of the town, and close to a steep bank, extending nearly a mile along the river-side. The town is regularly built, in the form of a parallelogram: it contained, in 1787, only 2300 inhabitants; but in 1810 it had 5200, and has now 7303. Augusta was for some time the seat of government: it is the medium of trade between the lower and upper parts of the state, and has about 7000 inhabitants. Milledgeville, a small town on the river Oconchee, is the seat of government.

With regard to the religion of the Georgians, it appears that the Presbyterian system has the predominance; and the Methodists are the next in point of number; but there are very few regular ministers among the different sects. The task of general education is not neglected by the rulers of the state. There is a university called Franklin College at Athens, in Clarke county; a medical college at Augusta; and academies are established in various parts of the country.

SOUTH-WESTERN STATES.

Bending our course to the westward, from Georgia towards the lower part of the Mississippi, we enter the south-western states; all of which have been added to the Union at a comparatively recent period. They consist of Alabama, the most southerly of them; Louisiana, Mississaippi, Tennessee, and Arkansas.

Alabama, which is divided into forty-seven counties, extends about 280 miles from north to south, and 210 miles from east to west, and has an area of 53,000 square miles, with a population, rapidly increasing, of 310,000 persons, of whom more than a third are slaves. As the ground rises gradually from south to north, in which latter part it is even mountainous, there is a great variety of climate. In the lower part of the state the heat is sometimes intense. Towards the hills, and in the alluvial valleys of the rivers, the soil is fertile. The principal rivers are the Alabama and the Tombeckbee, both of which, after a long course, flow into Mobile Bay. There are several other streams of considerable magnitude. Iron, gold are found in the state, but h been turned to account by mining. the principal product of the state of government is Tuscaloosa, a sm the centre of the state, on the Bl river, with a population of betwe 3000 souls. Mobile, which is the port, is in a prosperous condition, a than 3000 inhabitants. There is in Alabama, and various incorpor mies.

Louisiana is bounded on the Mississippi, on the south by the Gu on the north by Arkansas, and on Mexico and Texas. It is about 240 varies in width from 172 miles to has an area of 49,300 square miles into 34 parishes; and, in 1830, ha habitants, more than half of whom Beside the great river which we tioned, the Missouri, the St. Franci the Sabine, the Black and Red river other fine streams, increase the nat of the soil. The Mississippi (t mother of the waters) rises with degree of northern latitude, and and 96 degrees of western longitu various windings are supposed to miles; but its course is much s that of the Missouri, which origi Rocky or Stony Mountains, and j the town of St. Louis. As the M longer, broader, and deeper rive Mississippi, and, after the junctio its muddy turbulence, without part clearness of its companion, it ma perly be said to receive than to f and, therefore, the grand stream w the gulf ought rather to be called t though established custom has g name of the Mississippi.

The whole sea-coast of Louisian salt-marsh, treeless, and growing o coarse grass. The land, within 40 Mississippi, is also made swampy by inundation of the river. The clim extensive country is necessarily various parts. In the north, the col than that of Europe under the sam but the air is in general serene and except where the rivers diffuse t exhalations. In the south, the h violent and oppressive than in the c ing portions of Africa. The soil is p adapted to the culture of hemp, fl bacco; maize and other species c raised with facility; the cotton thrives in the province; rice is a produced; indigo is cultivated with cess; and the sugar-canes luxuriant the banks of the Mississippi. In s mines of iron and lead are found; have not yet been wrought with ef pits are not uncommon; alum and abundant; and coal in sometim

etable matter in its progress to the
of that useful substance. From a
near the Washita, hot springs issue,
o arise from the proximity of bitu-
l by the effect of martial pyrites.
e natural curiosities we may reckon
upon the Red river. These are
driftwood, brought down by every
le swell, covering the stream for a
ber of miles, and even supporting a
of plants and trees. Near the
:he Washita is an eminence called
l or Shining Mountain, from the
of hexagonal prisms, of very trans-
l colourless crystal, found on its

vage tribes of different denomina-
scattered over Louisiana at the time
discovery. Most of them are now
act or driven westward. It is not
at more than 1000 red men are now
in the state. A few wandering
and Pelousas roam over the prairies,
a great measure by hunting. The
the northern frontier, are few in
he Choctaws, who dwell on the
d Red rivers, are the only tribe who
ly numerous. They have become
, and reside in villages, which are
l to those of the white men.
Europeans who encroached on the
f these rude tribes, by colonization,
ench. Louisiana, indeed, had been
discovered by the Spaniards; but
ot form any settlements in that
I. de la Salle, having sailed down
ver which bounds it on the east-
82, was so pleased with its appear-
e recommended to the ministers of
the formation of such an establish-
ght serve to employ enterprising
, and promote the commercial in-
mother-country. Returning from
a small squadron, he was driven,
nce of the wind, from the mouth of
nd, landing to the westward, was
ered by the savages, or fell a victim
bery of his own followers. Another
made, under the conduct of Iber-
ith some difficulty formed a settle-
, for a long course of years, did
. The French at length ceded the
Spain, when the family compact
he two courts in the most amicable
; but it was subsequently restored
ch. In 1803 the first consul of
it to the United States for 15,000,000

al is New Orleans, so called in
to the regent duke, under whose
on it was erected in 1718. Almost
city was destroyed in 1788 by a
lagration; and, in the town which
s ruins, such havoc was made in
ner fire, that it was necessary to
iderable part; a task which was

performed with neatness and dispatch. Before it was transferred to the American government, it contained less than 6000 inhabitants; but an important augmentation of the number has since been effected by the eagerness of colonization; for it now appears that the amount is not less than 50,000. It carries on a most extensive commerce: the port is generally crowded with merchant vessels, and has seldom less in it at once, than from thirty to fifty of the largest steam-vessels.

The Mississippi state extends from north to south about 330 miles, and 140 from east to west, having that river for its western boundary, and the Tennessee to the north-east. From north to south its length is 333 miles, 150 is its average breadth, and its area is about 48,000 square miles. It is divided into 56 counties, and, in 1830, had 131,621 inhabitants, of whom 65,659 were slaves. Its population has, since then, increased at an uncommonly rapid rate. The Pascagoola runs to the south through the province, about 230 miles, and forms a wide bay in the Gulf of Mexico. Among its other streams are the Pearl river, the Yasoo, and the Tombeckbee. The soil is in many parts sandy, and fit only for hardy forest trees; but, toward the north, it is adapted to corn, sweet potatoes, indigo, cotton, esculent vegetables, and fruit. As the country in general is low and watery, bilious complaints are prevalent, while the usual disorders of cold climates are rarely experienced in so warm a latitude. The number of mischievous animals, such as cougars, wolves, bears, and alligators, combined with other disadvantages, might be expected to deter adventurers from settling in this country; but the commercial prospects of the colony, and the exemption of all the navigable streams from toll, have attracted many emigrants.

The towns in this state are scarcely worthy of the name. Even Jackson, which is the seat of government, is a very small town. Natchez, an unhealthy place, which has nearly 3000 inhabitants, is chiefly occupied by cotton-planters and slaves; and, from this place, the chief trade of the colony is carried on. There is a college at Washington.

Tennessee has the form of a parallelogram, with the south-eastern angle cut off. Its dimensions are about 120 miles by 350 miles; it has an area of about 42,000 square miles, and is divided into sixty-two counties. The population, in 1830, was 682,000, of whom nearly one-fourth were slaves. It is so well watered, that scarcely any part of it is distant above twenty miles from a navigable stream. It is crossed by various branches of the Apalachian chain. One of them is the Cumberland range of mountains, which exhibits amazing piles of craggy rocks. In one place particularly, near the summit, there is a remarkable ledge of rock, about 25 miles in length, and 200 feet thick, showing a perpendicular face to the south-east, more noble and grand than any artificial fortification, and nearly equal in point of apparent

regularity. It contains many limestone caves, some of which are of great extent, and well worthy of examination. Through this stupendous pile, the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee must have forced their way.

Iron ore abounds in several districts, and some lead mines have been discovered. The savages say that there are rich silver mines in Cumberland mountain, but cannot be tempted to discover any of them to the white people. Gold has been found here; but the particular spot is not pointed out. Springs, strongly impregnated with sulphur, are found in various parts, and nitrous earth is abundant.

The climate is in general healthful. The summers are cool and pleasant on the eastern side of the mountainous range; while, on the other side, the heat is much greater, which renders that part better calculated for the production of tobacco, cotton, and indigo. The soil is luxuriant, and will afford every production which is the growth of any of the United States. The usual crop of cotton is 800 pounds to the acre, of a long and fine staple; and of corn, from 60 bushels to 80 bushels.

A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of bisons, but the improvident or ill-disposed colonists destroyed multitudes out of mere wantonness. They are still to be found near some of the southern branches of Cumberland river. The elk and the moose are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. Too many bears and wolves yet remain; and alligators have been seen in a branch of the Cumberland.

The Enchanted Mountain, about two miles south of Brass Town, is famed for the curiosities on its rocks. There are, on several rocks, a number of impressions resembling the tracks of turkeys, bears, horses, and human beings, as visible and perfect as they could be made in snow or sand. The last was remarkable for having uniformly six toes each, one only excepted, which appears to be the print of a negro's foot. One track is very large—the length of the feet 16 inches, the distance of the extremities of the outer toes 13 inches. One horse-track is of an uncommon size. The transverse and conjugate diameters were 8 inches by 10 inches;—perhaps the horse which the great warrior rode. What seems to corroborate the opinion of their being the real tracks of the animals which they represent, is the circumstance of the horses' feet having slipped several inches, and recovered their position, and the figures having all the same direction. Similar appearances have since been discovered in other parts of the world; and there can be no doubt that the impressions were made when the rocks were yet in a soft state. The texture of each rock is soft: the part on which the sun had the greatest influence, and which is the most indurated, can easily be cut with a knife, and appears to be of the nature of the *pipe*-stone. Some of the Cherokees entertain an opinion that it always rains when any person visits the place, as if sympathetic Nature wept at the recollection of the dreadful catastrophe which these figures were intended to commemorate.

The chief towns are Nashville and Knoxville; but both of them are small. The first is appropriated to the deliberations of the senate and representative body, and has 5600 inhabitants, while Knoxville has only 3000 inhabitants. Four colleges have been endowed: they are at Nashville, Greenville, Knoxville, and Maryville.

ARKANSAS, the last of the south-western states, is in form nearly a parallelogram of about 240 miles by 210 miles, with an area of nearly 55,000 square miles. It is divided into thirty-four counties, and, in 1835, had 56,134 inhabitants, of whom about a seventh were slaves. Its rivers are the Mississippi, by which it is bounded on very nearly the whole of its eastern side; the Arkansas, one of the largest tributaries of the Mississippi; the White, Black, and Red rivers, the St. Francis, and the Washita. The soil in many parts is tolerably fertile, especially in the vicinity of the streams; but in others it is indifferent. The swamps of the eastern district render that portion of the state unhealthy; but elsewhere the climate is not insalubrious. Iron ore, lead, coal, and salt, particularly the latter, are found in considerable quantities. Near the Masserne mountains there are hot springs, the temperature of some of which is nearly that of boiling water. Little Rock, or Arkopolis, which is situated on the right bank of the Arkansas, is the seat of government.

NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

THE MISSOURI state, of which the Mississippi forms the whole eastern boundary, is, on an average, 280 miles long, and 225 miles wide, and has an area of 66,000 square miles. It is divided into thirty-four counties, and contained, in 1830, a population of 140,455 persons, nearly a sixth of whom were slaves. The most fertile portion is that which stretches above the Osage, on each side of the Missouri, over an area of 30,000 square miles, three-fifths consisting of undulating meadow ground, the rest of woodland, watered by various streams, and the whole surface susceptive of cultivation. The climate, in summer, is hot and subject to rapid changes of temperature, and in winter is extremely severe, the Mississippi being sometimes frozen over for more than two months. Beside the great rivers which we have mentioned, the chief stream is the Arkansas, which flows into the Mississippi, after a winding course of 1500 miles. The White river is also a fine stream, navigable through a space of 750 miles. St. Peter's river, in the northern part of this state, has a course of about 600 miles, but is not altogether convenient for navigation. Lead, iron, copper, zinc, pyrites, marble, gypsum, alum, nitre, coal, salt, and other mineral

es, abound in this extensive tract. he wild animals are bears, wolves, xes, buffaloes, elks, antelopes, porcu- l beavers; and the feathered tribes are s and varied.

are not many towns in this wide ex- country. The chief town is that of , below the mouth of the Missouri. the houses are built of limestone, gardens or paddocks. It has rapidly in magnitude and importance. In ad only 6694 inhabitants; in 1839 it e than 20,000. The next towns, in consequence, are St. Charles, Frank- lew Madrid: the trade of the latter is ncreasing. Jeffersonville, which as y exists, is to be the capital of the

ajority of the people in the interior be hunters, divided by their com- into the red and the white. The who still dwell near the head waters er from which they derive their name, permanent villages, and cultivated are fierce warriors and bold hunters, e they molest the white Missourians ay, rival them in the other pursuit. excursions they form remarkable hich they arrange in the neatest or- he form of each of their tents," says olcraft, "may be compared to an in- rd's nest, or hemisphere, with a small left in the top, for the escape of the nd a similar but larger one at one passing in and out. It is formed by a number of slender flexible green qual length, sharpening them at each sticking them in the ground like a hat they cross at right angles at the e the points of entrance into the orm a circle. Small twigs are then mixed with the leaves of cane, moss, s, until the structure is perfectly warm. These tents are arranged in les, one within another, according to er of persons intended to be accom- In the centre is a scaffolding for n which all are supplied every morn- the inspection of a chief, whose tent cuously situated at the head of the ent, and differs from all the rest, g a half-cylinder inverted. Their nd children generally accompany these excursions, which often occupy nths." The white hunters, we may re not so addicted to rambling, and erect substantial log-houses; and he same time, keep some acres in a ltivation.

ky, which is divided into 83 counties, 300 miles long, and 100 miles wide, in area of 40,500 square miles, with a n of 638,000 souls, of which one-fourth . It is well watered by many branches io, without being rendered unhealthy ich humidity. Among its numerous rivers are the Ohio, which bounds it for 600 miles; the Mississippi, the Kentucky, the Green river, and the Cumberland. The people do not experience the extremes of heat and cold, none of the neighbouring states enjoying so constant a temperature.

There are many iron mines in this state; but the metal is of an inferior quality. Lead ore is found in some parts; and there are many caverns which afford large supplies of nitre. The soil is so fertile, that the lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50, 60, and, in some instances, 100 bushels of corn for every acre. In common, the land will produce 30 bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds, common in this climate, yield abundantly. Cotton is with difficulty brought to perfection; but the soil appears to be peculiarly suitable to tobacco.

The banks, or rather precipices, of the rivers Kentucky and Dick, may be reckoned among natural curiosities. Here the delighted eye beholds 300 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts of the limestone kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously chequered with strata of astonishing regularity. In various parts caves are found amazingly large, in some of which you may travel several miles under a rock, supported by extraordinary arches and pillars. In most of them run rapid streams. Near Lexington are to be seen curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen, or petroleum, near Green river, which discharge themselves into a common reservoir; and, when used in lamps, it answers all the purposes of the finest oil.

Kentucky, the first settler of which, in 1769, was Daniel Boone, contains no very large towns: the principal are Lexington, the oldest town in the state; Louisville, and Frankfort. Lexington contains about 6200 inhabitants. Frankfort, which is now the seat of government, has only 1680 souls. Louisville, on the Ohio, is a thriving town, has some manufactures, and is a port of entry. Between this place and New Orleans steam-boats regularly convey passengers and goods, ascending in twenty-five days, and descending in eight or nine. Its population, in 1830, was 10,352 souls.

Almost all the commerce of this state is carried on by the merchants of Lexington. Most of the fabricated articles consumed in Kentucky are imported from Great Britain. They consist principally of coarse and fine iron goods, cutlery, nails, and tin-ware; drapery, mercery, drugs, and fine pottery. Muslin, nankin, tea, &c., are imported directly from India in American vessels; and they obtain coffee and sugar from the West Indies. These are exchanged for the produce of the country, principally by barter, on account of the scarcity of coin.

The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that state, made provision for a

college in it, and endowed it with considerable funds. It is at Lexington, and is called Transylvania University; it comprehends six professorships in the following departments:—natural and moral philosophy, mathematics, classical learning, and the modern languages. There are five colleges in various parts of the state. Many academies have been incorporated; common schools are established in every county; and, so general is education throughout this state, that it is not easy to find a white person who cannot read and write.

The Illinois state is traversed by a river of that name, which affords for large boats an uninterrupted navigation of 230 miles. It is bounded, on two-thirds of its circumference, by the Mississippi, the Ohio, and the Wabash; and, beside the Illinois, is watered by the Kaskaskia, the Rock, and other rivers, and, on a portion of its eastern boundary, by Lake Michigan. Its length is about 350 miles, and its breadth 160 miles, forming an area of 57,900 square miles. It is divided into 52 counties, and, in 1830, its population was 157,445 souls. Many parts of it are extremely fertile; particularly a tract of 90 miles, extending on the Mississippi, above the mouth of the Kaskaskia, which is composed of a rich alluvial soil, 25 feet deep. Illinois is, indeed, supposed to have more good arable land than many other of the confederated states. The climate, however, is rather humid, and not quite as healthy as that of Missouri. The forest trees are numerous, and the living tenants of the woods are equally abundant; the species being nearly the same as in Indiana. Multitudes of swine are reared upon the mast of the forest. The agricultural productions are maize, wheat, hemp, and tobacco. Iron, copper, coal, and lead, are among the mineral treasures; the lead mines are, in fact, some of the richest in the world. Ancient fortifications and tumuli exist in many parts of the country. The towns, at present, are few and small; the largest is Chicago, which has about 5000 inhabitants. The seat of government is at Springfield. There are two colleges; the one at Jacksonville, the other at Alton.

The state of Indiana is 280 miles long, and 150 miles broad, with an area of 36,500 square miles, and a fast growing population, which, in 1830, was 343,031, and is now estimated at double that number. Its largest rivers are the Ohio, the Wabash, and the White river. Along the Wabash, and most of the rivers that water this state, there are tracts of rich alluvial soil, which terminate in meadows, rising considerably above the former, adorned with copses of beautiful shrubs, and bounded by lofty forests. With some exceptions, the soil is fruitful; and, in the opinion of General Harrison, the finest country in all the western world is that which is bounded to the eastward by Wayne, Franklin, and other counties of Indiana. In the upper parts, the climate is very friendly to health. Among the mineral products are iron, copperas, and coal; the sulphates of potash and magnesia have been found in several caves, and saltpetre is also abundant. The forests are full of the finest trees, and abound with deer; but they at the same time afford shelter to bears and wolves; and the rattlesnake and copper-head snake, which are rarely seen on the low lands, infest the woody country. There are very few towns in this province; and the settlements extend chiefly along the Ohio, the branches of the Great Miami, the Wabash, and the White-water. Indianopolis is the seat of government, and has 1200 inhabitants; but the largest town in the state is New Albany, on the Ohio, which has 3000. There are three colleges—at Bloomington, South Hanover, and Crawfordsville, but they are on a very humble scale.

The Ohio state is divided into 75 counties, has a length of 220 miles, an average breadth of 182 miles, and an area of 40,000 square miles, with a population of nearly 1,000,000 of souls. It derives its name from that great river which is formed by the union of the Monongahela and Alleghany, and which, receiving fifteen considerable rivers in its progress, runs above 1000 miles to join the Mississippi, within the 37th degree of northern latitude, and forms, for 500 miles, the boundary of the state. It is said to have, in proportion to its extent, more land capable of cultivation than any of the other states. The climate is generally mild and temperate. Springs and considerable streams abound in this territory: it produces many of the finest trees that are indigenous to America; and no country is better stocked with game of every kind. Innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the extensive bottoms that everywhere abound;—a proof of the great fertility of the soil. Turkeys, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, and partridges, are believed to be in greater plenty here than the tame poultry are in any of the old settlements.

The remains of ancient fortifications found here excite admiration. At Cincinnati there is a circular embankment, 800 feet in diameter, 30 at the base, and from 3 to 6 in height: and walls, partly built of stone, enclosing a great extent of ground, appear in many parts; and arrow-heads of flint, spear-heads of copper, stone hatchets, and various utensils, formed of pounded shells and clay, have been dug up. At Piqua are five circular works and an elliptical enclosure. One, which is situated on the eastern bank of the Miami, is 125 feet in diameter, and has a most commanding position on the brow of a hill. It is covered with large trees, and on the top of the parapet was the trunk of a tree which had evidently grown long after the rampart was constructed, and which, from the number of concentric layers of the trunk, Major Long, and his engineer associates concluded to have been at least 300 years old when it was felled. Upwards of

these works, Professor Keating says, "We are well warranted, from all their characters, in assigning to them an antiquity of more than 1000 years." These appear to have been military fortifications; but, at no great distance from them, traces of a work were discovered, which seemed to be a religious monument.

Columbus, on the Scioto, is the capital, though it has only 4000 inhabitants. But the largest town in the state, and indeed in all the western country, is Cincinnati, on the Ohio, which has grown up with wonderful rapidity. It had only 500 inhabitants in 1795, and in 1830 had 26,515. Since then it has annually been enlarged by 450 houses. It has 24 churches, 4 markets, and numerous manufactories, and carries on an extensive trade. Cleveland, on Lake Erie, has started forward with still more vigour, in consequence of the trade on the Erie canal. The 1076 inhabitants which it had in 1820 have been multiplied to 10,000. Of the other towns, the population is generally under 2000. The principal colleges are at Athens, Oxford, Hudson, Gambier, and New Athens.

The increase of population in the whole of this state has been very rapid. It is said to have been only 3000 in 1791; it amounted to 42,000 in 1800; and it now exceeds 1,000,000, exclusive of the savages, of whom scarcely 2000 are reckoned. The chiefs of the Wyandots and other tribes, in 1817, ceded to the republic all the lands between Lake Erie and the Ohio, to the extent of 7,000,000 of acres; and they are now confined to the north-west corner of the province.

To the honour of the Ohio government, involuntary servitude is abolished. A slave no sooner touches the soil of this state, than he becomes free, as in Great Britain: but he is not allowed to exercise the right of suffrage; and both negroes and mulattoes are precluded by an ordinance, which is not altogether just or liberal, from giving evidence against white persons.

The state of MICHIGAN consists of that large peninsula which is enclosed by Lakes Erie, St. Clair, Huron, and Michigan. It is about 280 miles long, and has an average breadth of 150 miles, with an area of 57,900 square miles. At present there are only thirty-nine counties marked out. The population, which was but 31,639 in 1830, had risen, in 1834, to more than 90,000. It has several minor rivers, which are, however, generally navigable. The soil is far from being unproductive; and the climate is in general salubrious. Some of the hills, near the lake, are crowned with a stunted growth of white pine, while others are bare. The beach is covered, in many parts, with fragments of rocks, evidently primitive, and probably derived from the decomposition of the same masses, which by their destruction have given rise to the immense deposit *of sand and pebbles, forming the bottom of the lake; and the hills seem to have been produced by the progressive accumulation of sand, blown from the beach* by the strong north-westerly winds of the winter. Detroit, the capital, is defended by a fort, honoured by a college, and distinguished by commercial privileges, and has above 9000 inhabitants, of whom one-fifth are French. About 3000 savages still inhabit various parts of this territory; and many of them are agriculturists, graziers, and manufacturers. The chief exports are corn, pulse, fruit, and fish: the imports consist of various provisions; and, though the colonists make great quantities of whisky, they procure from the Ohio state an additional stock of their favourite beverage. Three railroads, to cross the peninsula, have been projected; one of which is nearly, if not wholly, completed.

TERRITORIES.

THESE are extensive districts, which may be considered as in a state of probation for being admitted as members of the Union. Till they acquire the requisite population, they are subject to the general government, and are legislated for by congress. Of these territories there are two, Wisconsin and Iowa, which are included in that extensive tract called the North-west Territory. This north-west division is included within a circle formed by Lakes Michigan and Superior, Hunter's Lake, Rainy Lake, the Lake of the Woods, the Mississippi, and the state of Illinois. It abounds with lakes and rivers, mineral treasures, and the varied produce of the forest; and its soil is in many parts distinguished by fertility. Its elevation and northerly position would seem to indicate a great degree of cold; which, however, is so far modified by the aquatic masses of the lakes Superior and Michigan, that it is not so severe as might be expected. Few countries are better supplied with fish and game than this territory: valuable furs are afforded by the beavers, otters, and sables; and, with proper care and attention, all sorts of cattle would thrive on its fields and meadows. The water-fowl contend with the savages for the wild rice that grows abundantly on the lakes and streams; and both parties manifest some degree of skill in the contest. This rice rises from a depth of seven or eight feet to a nearly equal height.

The WISCONSIN territory has an area of about 95,000 square miles; the settled part of it is divided into nineteen counties. The present capital is the village of Madison. The largest town is Milwaukee, on Lake Michigan, which has 4000 inhabitants. The whole population of Wisconsin is believed to exceed 50,000.

The IOWA territory has an estimated area of 200,000 square miles. There are sixteen counties marked out, and the population is supposed to be nearly 50,000. The village of Burlington is the seat of government.

A third territory is that of FLORIDA. It consists of the two Floridas, which were ceded to the Americans in 1819, in consideration of the payment of 5,000,000 dollars by the congress, to

those subjects of the republic who had claims upon the Spanish government. It extends 450 miles from east to west, and 270 miles from north to south, containing about 56,000 square miles. The population of this extensive district is not more than 35,000, nearly 16,000 of whom are slaves. The climate is very warm, and the winter so mild, that even the orange and banana-trees rarely receive any injury from the temperature of that season. Iron ore, copper, quicksilver, and pit-coal, are produced in considerable quantities. The soil is various in different parts. East Florida, near the sea, and forty miles back, is flat and sandy. But even the country round St. Augustine, in all appearance the worst in the province, is far from being unfruitful: it produces two crops of Indian corn in a year; and the garden vegetables are in great perfection. The inland country, toward the hills, is very rich and fertile, yielding spontaneously the products common to Georgia and the Carolinas; and it is likewise favourable to the rearing of European productions. Horses, cattle, sheep, and hogs are numerous, especially in West Florida. Among the wild animals are the buffalo, panther, wild cat, otter, racoon, flying squirrel, opossum, armadillo, and several kinds of serpents. Birds are in great variety and abundance; and the rivers swarm with fish, but are, at the same time, infested with voracious alligators.

The chief town in West Florida is Pensacola, with about 3000 inhabitants; which is situated within the bay of the same name, on a sandy shore that can only be approached by small vessels. The road is, however, one of the best in all the Gulf of Mexico; in which ships may lie in safety against any kind of wind, being nearly surrounded by land. St. Augustine, the capital of East Florida, contains about 2000 inhabitants. It stands on the neck of a peninsula, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular streets, crossing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch. It is likewise defended by a castle, called Fort St. John.

This country was discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1497. The French formed a small establishment in it, but were driven from it by the Spaniards, who began to form settlements themselves. At the peace of 1763 it was ceded to the English, in exchange for the Havannah. While it was in our possession it was considerably improved. During the first American war it was reduced by the Spaniards, to whom it was confirmed by the treaty of the year 1783. It did not flourish under their negligent government, which did not even protect the colonists against the savages. Considering it as a derelict country, the Americans invaded it under General Jackson, in 1818, and took possession of Pensacola; of which, however, the congress ordered the restitution. The subsequent cession, by the king of Spain, of a territory which he found unprofitable in his hands, visibly tended to give compactness to the dominions of the American republic, and to meliorate the condition and circumstances of the provincials. Since the cession of Florida to the United States, a sanguinary war, productive of great expense and loss of life, has been carried on between the Americans and the native Indians. It seems, however, to be now nearly terminated.

From the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean, the country has been repeatedly traversed by American adventurers, and is denominated the WESTERN TERRITORY. Captains Lewis and Clarke were sent by the government to survey it; and, after a very fatiguing and hazardous journey, they found themselves on the shore of the Pacific Ocean, in the 46th degree of northern latitude. They did not accurately examine the height of the mountains, but it is supposed that the most elevated ridge, being perpetually covered with snow, is not less than 8500 feet above the level of the sea. Another great chain, nearly parallel to the former, extends across the country near the coast. Between these chains a spacious plain expands itself, being in some parts 350 miles wide. The tract is crossed by the Columbia or Oregon, the banks of which are inhabited by savage tribes, who chiefly subsist upon the fine and nutritive salmon afforded by the river. A valley, situated between the hills near the coast and some distant heights, excited the particular attention of the two officers. It abounds with wood, of which the greater part of the country is destitute: the soil is apparently fertile in a high degree; and the climate is milder than that of the states near the Atlantic, in the same parallel. They passed the winter on the coast; and the season was tempestuous and rainy, without the severity of cold. Near the mouth of the river, to the north, is Cape Disappointment; and Clarke's Point, to the southward, rises almost 1000 feet above the sea: but the shore is in general low and flat. At Astoria, fourteen miles from the former cape, a settlement was formed, and a fur company established: but it failed; and other parts of the coast have since been colonised.

THE NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

On the first discovery which any European made on the north-west coast of America, the credit is due to Sir Francis Drake. He returned in 1580 from his celebrated voyage round the world, in the course of which he landed and took possession of New Albion,

did not colonize it, but left it to future upancy. The Spaniards subsequently sur- ed various parts of that coast, but did not n settlements in New California, to the th of New Albion, before the year 1763. y claimed the whole extent of these mari- e provinces, until the remonstrances of er powers constrained them to content nselves with the country situated to the :h of Cape Mendocino, in 40 degrees N. lati- :. Captain Cook, in 1778, explored these :s, and reached Nootka Sound, beyond the i degree. He immediately opened a traffic i the natives, who produced a great variety skins, for which they gladly received in iange looking-glasses, buttons, knives, els, and nails, though it appeared that ' were already in possession of iron. They e an ugly and dirty race, with dull inani- e countenances; but their dress was con- ent, and, if it had been clean, might even e been thought not inelegant. It was a m mantle, passing under the left arm, and over the right shoulder, ornamented with m the upper edge, and fringes at the lower :, and sometimes fastened by a girdle; and all fringed cloak was worn over it. Many e a cap like a truncated cone, made of very matting, adorned with a round knob, or a ch of leathern tassels. They had some l in the imitative arts, as their huts anded with sculptural and pictorial repre- :ations of various kinds. Their implements lishing and hunting were ingeniously con- ed and dexterously manufactured; and, ed, almost everything proved that they had er tools than the islanders of the Pacific an.

bout the 60th degree of latitude, a sound discovered, to which the name of Prince liam was given, and an inlet was observed r that part of the coast, which flattered the tain with the hope of finding a passage to Atlantic. He found various branches; but main channel continued in a northern ction between chains of mountains. He ed it above 180 miles from its mouth, and no appearance of its source. The earl of dwich gave to this stream the name of k's River. Proceeding to the isle of Oona- a, the indefatigable commander found iptoms of Russian influence in those re- e parts. Captain Behring, soon after the th of Peter the Great, from whom he had ived instructions for that purpose, had ed to the northward, until he approached strait which divides Asia from America. ne have doubted whether he actually saw west of the latter country: but, though did not accurately examine it, he appears have made the desired discovery, and the it is therefore called by his name. When k had penetrated *to the Arctic Circle, and d that only the narrow space of thirty- miles divided Asia from America, he ined both coasts, as far as the weather* would allow, and reached an American promontory beyond the 70th degree of latitude, which, for an obvious reason, he denominated the Icy Cape. His progress being stopped by frozen accumulations, he returned to the southward, and lost his life at Owhyhee.

From his observations on the people of Prince William's Sound and Norton Sound, it appeared that a strong similarity was discernible between them and the Esquimaux on the eastern coast; whence it was conjectured by some, that a maritime communication existed between the eastern and western sides of that continent. In support of this conjecture, old accounts were revived of the discoveries of John de Fuca, and De Fonte or De Fuentes. The former had related that, between 47 and 48 degrees of northern latitude, he had entered into a broad inlet which led him into a far broader sea, wherein he sailed above twenty days; and De Fonte pretended to have sailed through crooked channels, in an extensive archipelago, 260 leagues, and 60 leagues up a navigable river which flowed into it, in 53 degrees of northern latitude, and communicated, by other lakes and rivers, with a passage in which a ship had arrived from Boston. For the ascertainment of this point, and also for the final adjustment of a dispute respecting Nootka, Captain Vancouver was sent out in 1790. He procured the restitution of the captured settlement, and restrained the Spanish claims within moderate limits. He accurately surveyed the western coast, from the 30th to the 60th degree of latitude; but he did not find any considerable inlet which penetrated far into the country, and therefore concluded that the desired passage could only be found by sea. The supposed strait of John de Fuca was probably the Gulf of Georgia, which separates Quadra and Vancouver's island from the continent.

This coast, to a very great extent, has the appearance of a continued forest, being covered with pines of different species, intermixed with alder, birch, and other trees. The natives are in general short, with faces flat and round, high cheek-bones, and flat noses. They have some peculiar customs of mutilating or disfiguring their persons, probably by way of ornament. At Port Trinidad, in 41 degrees north latitude, "the custom," says Captain Vancouver, "was particularly singular, and must be attended with much pain in the first instance, and great inconvenience ever after. All the teeth of both sexes were, by some process, ground uniformly down, horizontally to the gums: the women especially, carrying the fashion to an extreme, had their teeth reduced even below this level, and ornamented the lower lip with three perpendicular rows of punctuation, one from each corner of the mouth, and one in the middle, occupying three-fifths of the lips and chin." On other parts of this coast the women make a horizontal incision in the under lip, extending from one corner of the mouth to the

other, entirely through the flesh; and the orifice is by degrees stretched to admit an ornament made of wood, which is confined close to the gums of the lower jaw, with the external surface projecting horizontally. These wooden ornaments are oval, and resemble a small dish, concave on both sides: they are of various sizes; some above three inches in length, and an inch and a half broad. The chief object in navigating this coast, hitherto, has been to traffic with the natives for furs, which are carried to China, and disposed of at a great profit. The skins which are usually obtained are those of the sea-otter, seal, racoon, land-beaver, and earless marmot.

This part of the American coast was also examined by M. de la Perouse. He sailed as far as the vicinity of Mount St. Elias, the most remarkable of all the elevations between California and the Icy Cape. This mountain, by nautic exaggeration, is said to be visible at sea at the distance of 180 miles: its height above the sea is estimated at 14,500 feet. Finding a bay at the 59th degree, Perouse conceived the hope of passing into the inland parts of the country; but an examination of the bay convinced him of his mistake. He purchased a whole island from the savages, by the offer of some red cloth and pieces of iron. He found the climate considerably milder than that of Hudson's Bay: the soil appeared to be adapted to ordinary produce, and trees of a fine growth were abundant: but the manners of the people did not please him. They seemed to be irritable and revengeful: they lived in a frequent, if not a continual, state of animosity; and there was not that regularity of government which could check the effervescence of their passions. From the very slight construction of their huts, the substance and contents of which could easily be carried away in a canoe, it appeared that they led a wandering life. Both sexes slept, with promiscuous indecency, upon skins spread over the earth, or the floor of a hut. Skins likewise composed their dress; but they were merely thrown over their shoulders, so as to leave naked a great part of the body. A straw hat, skilfully plaited, adorned the heads of many; and some of the principal men had a sort of shirt, formed of the tanned skin of an elk or a sea otter, fringed with the hoofs of deer and beaks of birds, which, when they danced, made discordant sounds. Ornaments annexed to the nose, mouth, and ears, were not uncommon; and, in strewing the down of sea-birds over their hair, these barbarians merely evinced a refinement of taste equal to that of the Europeans, who cover their heads with white dust.

Captain Von Kotzebue, in 1816, penetrated to Behring's Strait, and, having descried beyond it the entrance of a wide inlet, pushed forward in the hope of making some important discovery. He landed, and joined a party of the natives—an ugly and squalid tribe, but strong and apparently healthy. They viewed him with eyes of suspicion; but he soon put them in good humour by presents of knives and scissors, and also of tobacco, of which they were remarkably fond, and procured, with other articles, from the Tchutski, on the opposite coast of Asia. When he had passed a little way up the inlet, he found that it soon terminated, and by another inlet he was equally disappointed. To a sound which he discovered in the latitude of 67 degrees, he gave his own name, and assured future navigators that they might find a tolerable harbour within it, and that the neighbouring country would afford abundance of furs.

Before this voyage, the Russians had taken possession of various parts of the American coast, and had formed several settlements in a high northern latitude, to which additions have since been made. Intent on territorial aggrandizement, they wished to claim an immense line of coast; but, by endeavouring to debar other nations from a free trade in the North Pacific, they so far excited the disgust of the British court, that strong remonstrances were made against such unwarrantable pretensions. The emperor Alexander at length was obliged to lower his tone; and a convention was signed in February 1825, allowing the Prince of Wales's Island to belong wholly to the Russians, and fixing the southernmost point of that island, in the latitude of 54 degrees north, as a spot from which a line should commence, and proceed through the 141st degree of western longitude to the Frozen Ocean, dividing the British and Russian possessions on the continent of America to the north-west. On the west of this line the Russians, and on the east the subjects of Great Britain, were to remain unmolested, and colonize as they might think proper: the latter were to enjoy the right of navigating freely all the rivers and streams which, in their course toward the Pacific, might cross the stipulated line of demarcation; and, for a period of ten years, the vessels of the two powers were to have the mutual liberty of frequenting not only the ocean, but all the inland seas, gulfs, havens, and creeks, in those distant parts, for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives.

The territory thus assigned to Russia is bounded, on the north, by the Arctic ocean: on the south, by the North Pacific ocean; on the east, by British America; and on the west, by the North Pacific, Behring's Strait, and the Arctic Ocean. It consists of the north-western extremity of the American continent, and the adjacent islands, the latter of which form separate groups, denominated the Aleutian, Kodiak, George III., and Prince of Wales's Archipelagos, besides some of inferior magnitude. The whole population of this immense space is not supposed to be more, at the utmost, than 50,000, of whom between 600 and 700 are Russians, and about 1000 Creoles. The Russian government has ceded this country to the Russian American Company, with the privilege of

g and fishing. The Company has four nd three secondary factories; furs are ıcipal article of commerce. The head is in the Isle of Sitka, at New Arch- which is considered as the capital of the territory. New Archangel has about 1000 inhabitants, a small fort and dock yard, and a good port. It draws part of its supplies from Kamstchatka, and the remainder from the ports in the Baltic, by the route of Cape Horn.

THE WEST INDIES.

ER the northern and southern divisions rica, a multitude of islands, called the ıdies, are situated. The climate in all lands is nearly the same, if we make wance for those differences which the ns and qualities of the lands themselves . Being placed within the tropics, and going directly over them, and passing them to the north, they are continually ed to the extreme of a heat which would lerable, if the trade wind, rising gra- ıs the sun gathers strength, did not blow them from the sea, and refresh the air a manner as to enable the cultivator ıd to his business, even under the meri- n. On the other hand, as the night ad- a breeze arises, which blows smartly e land, as it were from the centre to- ıe sea, to all points of the compass at In the same manner, when the sun ad- toward the tropic of Cancer, and be- rtical, he draws after him a vast body ds, which shield the earth from his eams, and, finally dissolving into rain, e air, and refresh the country, thirsty ıe long drought which commonly pre- ɔm the beginning of January to the end

ains in the West Indies are by no means erate as with us; for, compared with ur heaviest rains are but dews. They ıer impetuous floods: the rivers rise in ent; new rivers and lakes are formed, a short time all the low country is under

Hence, the rivers which originate the tropics swell and overflow their ıt a certain season. The ancients erro- r imagined that the torrid zone was nd scorched up with a continued and heat, and was consequently uninhabit- ut, in reality, some of the largest rivers ıeir course within its limits; and, in arts, the moisture is one of the greatest miences of the climate.

rains make the only distinctions of sea- the West Indies: the trees are green the whole year; there is no cold, no snow, and rarely any hail; the storms are, however, very violent when they , and the hailstones very large and

It is in the rainy season—principally ıst—that the islands are assaulted by hurricanes—the most terrible calamity to which they are subject: these destroy, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrate the hopes of the planter, often at the moment when he thinks himself beyond the reach of fortune. The hurricane is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the sea, and sometimes with an earthquake. The inhabitants first see whole fields of sugar-canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country; then the strongest forest trees are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their windmills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers and stills, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast, while the rain, which in an hour produces five feet depth of water, rushes in with irresistible violence.

The staple West Indian commodity is sugar: it was not known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in very early times by the Chinese, from whom we had the first knowledge of it: but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a general luxury in Europe. The juice contained within the sugar-cane is the least cloying sweet in nature, and, sucked raw, is very nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses rum is distilled; and, from the scum which rises in boiling the sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts, beside what comes to Great Britain and Ireland. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for the cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fuel; so that no part of this excellent plant is destitute of utility.

The total amount of the population in the British West Indies, in 1836, appears to have been 732,000, of which not more than 70,000, at most, were whites. The whole body of inhabitants may properly be divided into four great classes: 1. European whites; 2. Creole or native whites; 3. Creoles of mixed blood,

pasture or of prey appeared; no fruit, herb, or root, fit for supporting the life of man. Yet, as the climate was promising, and the soil seemed to be fertile, some gentlemen of small fortune in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they rendered the land productive; they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably. These prospects, with the disputes between the king and parliament, which were beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves into this island; and, so great was the increase of people in Barbadoes, twenty-five years after its first settlement, that in 1650 it contained above 45,000 whites, and a much greater number of negroes and Caribbean slaves: the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized those unhappy men, without any pretence, in some of the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery. In 1676 it was supposed that the number of slaves amounted to 80,000, which, with 45,000, made 125,000 on this small spot—a striking proof of the progress of cultivation and trade. At that time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships (one with another, of 150 tons) in commerce. Its annual exports, in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above £350,000, and the circulating cash at home was £200,000. But the island subsequently became less flourishing, partly from the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly from our establishments in the neighbouring isles. The capital of the island is Bridge Town, which has 20,000 inhabitants, and is near the spacious bay of Carlisle. The streets are wide, and the buildings handsome. Here is a college, founded and well endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island.

Barbadoes has suffered much by tempests, fires, and the plague. In 1780, a hurricane occasioned great devastation in the island: above 4000 of the inhabitants lost their lives; and the damage done to the property was computed at £1,320,000. These scourges seem to come at intervals of several years.

St. Christopher's, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is about 21 miles long, and 16 miles broad in the widest part. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of attention: in 1623 it was settled by the English, and in 1625 by the French. The English were twice expelled and restored, but it was entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. It contains about 24,000 persons, of whom about 4500 are whites, or creoles. In the year 1782 it was taken by the French, but was restored to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783. Basseterre, the chief town, which has 6400 inhabitants, is unprovided with a harbour, and there are few places where landing, from the violence of the surf, especially in south and south-west winds, is sufficiently secure. The interior parts of the country exhibit rugged precipices and barren mountains: of these, the most elevated is Mount Misery, evidently a decayed volcano, which rises 3712 feet above the sea: but, in the level parts, the soil is fertile.

Antigua, though a part of the coast is very rocky, has some good harbours. It is about 18 miles long; its breadth is 12 miles; and it has 35,000 inhabitants. This spot, which was formerly thought useless, is now preferred to the other islands in one respect, being the best and safest as a dock-yard and an establishment for the royal navy. Its climate also is healthy. St. John's, which has a population of 16,000, is the port of greatest trade, and the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. There are two kinds of soil on this spot: one part is rich and productive, when not checked by those droughts to which Antigua is subject; the other is a stiff unyielding clay. The produce has declined in late years; but the population has increased even since the abolition of the slave trade. Antigua is divided into six parishes. In this island, the legislature, relying on the moral character of the negroes, abolished slavery, without resorting to the intermediate stage of apprenticeships; and the result has fied its confidence.

The island of Nevis is merely a single mountain, rising like a cone in an easy ascent from the sea, the circumference of its base not exceeding 21 miles. In 1836 its population was between 9000 and 10,000. Charleston is the capital.

Montserrat, as the name implies, is also a mountainous spot. There are about 8000 inhabitants. Their principal exports are derived from the sugar-cane. Both were taken by the French in 1782, but restored at the general pacification. The capital of Montserrat is Plymouth.

Barbuda is 15 miles in length, and 10 miles in its greatest breadth. Its inhabitants, about 1500 in number, are chiefly employed in husbandry, and in raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles.

Anguilla, or Snake Island, so called from its form, is about 15 miles long, and 6 miles broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants raise tobacco, cotton, and sugar, make salt, and feed large herds of cattle; but the island is scantily furnished with wood and water.

Dominica is 30 miles in length, and 18 miles in breadth: it received its name from having been discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. Its population is nearly 20,000. The soil is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than

; but the sides of the hills bear the
es in the West Indies, and the island
ıpplied with fresh water. The climate
ealthy. The French strenuously op-
r settling here, because they thought
cut off their communication, in time
›etween Martinique and Guadaloupe.
, by the peace of 1763 it was ceded to
ish. Rosseau is the capital.

CIA was so called because it was dis-
on the day dedicated to the virgin
›f that name. Its length is 35 miles,
›readth 12 miles, and it has 16,000 in-
s. After it had been partially colo-
the English, it was agreed between
l the French, that it should be deemed

France obtained it by the peace of
ıe soil is rich: it produces excellent
and the coast offers the advantage of
rbours. The island now belongs to
itain.

NCENT, which was discovered on St.
s day by Columbus, in 1498, is about
in length, and 10 miles in breadth,
27,000 inhabitants. Here is a volcano,
ıe Souffriere, which broke out in 1812,
great damage, after having been quiet
than a century. The soil is chiefly a
uld upon a strong loam—the most pro-
ıe sugar-cane. Indigo thrives remark-
l, but is less cultivated than formerly
est Indies. Many of the inhabitants
›s, and many are fugitives from Barba-
other islands. The Caribs were treated
h severity, after this island was ceded
nglish, by the peace of 1763, that their
reatly contributed toward enabling
ch to repossess it in 1779; but it was
to Great Britain by the treaty of 1783.
ı is the capital.

: miserable remnant of Caribs in this
›me of the old customs of those bar-
ribes are retained. They are not, in-
they formerly were, cannibals; but
still a ferocious race, not altogether
able of civilization, as averse to it.
ar, with impatience, the restraints of
subordination, and have a very imper-
ıe of religion, though they have some
morality.

IDA, which was discovered by Colum-
1498, and was then, and long after,
ıly peopled by Caribs, is about 80
the south-west of Barbadoes, and
he same distance north of New Anda-
the Spanish Main. It is 17 miles in
ınd nearly 9 miles in breadth, has a
›n of 23,000 souls, and is divided into
hes. Experience has proved that the
ry proper for producing sugar, coffee,
ıd indigo; and upon the whole it is as
ıg a colony as any in the West Indies
imensions. It is also one of the
t, the mortality of the white troops
ly 61 4-5ths, while it is 78½ per 1000,
gregate of the islands. A lake on the
top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it with numerous streams, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, which render it very convenient for shipping; and it is not subject to hurricanes. St. George's Bay has a sandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. This island has more than once changed its masters; but it is now a British dependancy. The capital is Port George.

TOBAGO, discovered by Columbus, on his third voyage, is situated to the south-east of Grenada: it is 24 miles in length, and 5 miles in breadth, and has a population of about 14,000. It has many bays or creeks, two of which afford very convenient harbours; and its vicinity to the continent renders it less subject to hurricanes than the other Caribbee islands are; but it is exceedingly unhealthy, the yellow fever being very prevalent. Scarborough, the chief town, a small place on the southern side, is defended by a fortress. The soil is well watered and usefully productive. The island was long considered as neutral; but it became a British possession in 1763; and, after being occasionally under the power of France, it is again subject to our sovereign.

TRINIDAD, which was discovered by Columbus in 1498, and settled by the Spaniards in 1588, lies between Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the Gulf of Paria. It forms an irregular square of about 50 miles by 40 miles, with long peninsulas at two of the opposite angles. It is unhealthy, but fruitful; producing cotton, sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676; captured from the Spaniards in 1797, and ceded to England by the treaty of Amiens. Its population is about 44,000, and Port of Spain is its capital—a large and commercial town, with about 12,000 inhabitants.

In this island is a remarkable production of nature, being a bituminous lake, or rather plain, called Tar Lake, about three miles in circuit. The substance which is here found, has the consistence and aspect of pit-coal: it breaks into glossy fragments of a cellular appearance; a gentle heat renders it ductile; and, mixed with grease or common pitch, it is used for smearing the bottoms of ships. In many parts of the woods, it is found in a liquid state. Near Cape Brea is a spot in the sea, which is in a state of ebullition, and throws up bitumen. The adjacent country has, in various respects, strong volcanic symptoms.

THE VIRGIN ISLANDS lie to the east of Porto-Rico. The Spaniards gave them their name in honour of the 11,000 virgins of the legend. They belong principally to the English and the Danes, though the Spaniards claim some small ones. Tortola, the principal of those which belong to the English, is about 12 miles long and 4 miles broad; it produces excellent cotton, sugar, and rum. Anegada and

Virgin Gorda are the next English isles in point of magnitude, but are scantily peopled. The isles of St. Thomas, St. John, and St. Croix, which are a part of this group, belong to the Danes. The first has a sandy soil, and is ill supplied with water; but it has a good harbour.

The Bahama Islands, or Lucayos, extend along the coast of Florida to the vicinity of Cuba, and, including rocks and islets, are said to be 500 in number. They are composed of coral rocks, covered by a light sandy soil, intermingled with shells, &c.; and, except one, are all low and level. One of them, San Salvador, or Guanahana, was the first land discovered by Columbus. They were not known to the English before the year 1629, when they colonized New Providence, but were expelled from it in 1641 by the Spaniards. They settled it again in 1666; but some unlucky incidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out Captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet, for the dislodgement of the pirates, and for making a settlement. This he accomplished, and a fort was erected. The Spaniards captured these islands during the American war; but they were retaken, in 1783, by a detachment from St. Augustine.

The great Bahama bank is a natural curiosity. It is a vast accumulation of sand, above 100 leagues in length, and 40 leagues in breadth. It appears to consist, in a great measure, of the relics of sea-shells, in the form of sand, more or less worn and rounded by the action of water. In many parts of this bank, the depth of water is only from 14 to 18 feet, and the sand seems to be underlaid by calcareous rocks.

Of the Bahama isles, not more than twelve or fourteen of which are inhabited, the largest is 70 miles long, and 9 miles broad. This is called the Great Bahama; but New Providence is more known and distinguished, and is the seat of government for all the inhabited portions of the group. Nassau, the chief town, with about 6000 inhabitants, is neatly built of stone, and has some handsome public structures. Indian corn, yams, and cassava, are abundantly raised in these islands; cotton is cultivated with great success; a considerable quantity of salt is exported; and mahogany and dye-woods are liberally afforded. The shores and creeks produce turtles and excellent fish in abundance; and many birds frequent the islands, particularly wild ducks, snipes, pelicans, and flamingoes. The whole population of the Bahama isles does not exceed 20,000.

MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 2400	between	90. & 122. W. long.
Breadth, 130 to 630		17. & 40. N. lat.

Containing 1,258,000 square miles.

Boundaries—Divisions.—It is bounded, to the south-east, by the state of Guatemala; on the south and west, by the Pacific Ocean; on the north, by the United States; and, on the east, by those states, Texas, and the Gulf of Mexico. The republic of Mexico is divided into nineteen states and five territories. The states are Cohahuila, of which Texas formed a part; Tamaulipas, Vera Cruz, Tabasco, Yucutan, Chiapa, Oxaca, Puebla, Mexico, with the federal district, Michoacan, Xalisco, Occidente, Chiuahua, Durango, Nuevo Leon, Zacatecas, S. Luis de Potosi, Guanaxuato, and Queretaro. The territories are Tlascala, Colima, New Mexico, Lower California, and Upper California.

Face of the Country.—Mountainous ridges, precipices, cataracts, delicious vales, fertile plains, picturesque lakes and rivers, and a union of the trees and plants of the old and new worlds, diversify the scene in the Mexican territories, and attract the attention of the admirers of nature. The ranges of the Andes, which traverse South America, are concentrated at the Isthmus of Darien, and, passing between the Atlantic and Pacific at a comparatively low elevation, expand, when they enter North America, into a large district of table-land, varying from 6000 to 8500 feet above the level of the sea. This land preserves its height as far as Durango, and then insensibly declines. Groups of lofty volcanic mountains rise from it in various parts. One, which is called the smoking mountain, Popoca-Tepetl, is 17,500 feet in height.

In the peninsula of Old California, a mountainous chain pervades the centre; but its elevation is inconsiderable. That country in general wears a dreary aspect. New California is more picturesque, and better furnished with wood and water.

Rivers—Lakes.—Mexico has the benefit of many large rivers, among which are the Rio de las Casas Grandes, Alvarado, Huasacualco or Guascualco, Tabasco, Santiago or Grande, and Panuco. The principal lake is that of Chapala, which is about 90 miles long, and from 12 to 15 miles wide. The lakes of Zumpango, Chalco, Tescuco, and Chalco occupy a tenth part

of the vale of Mexico, which is the finest tract of country in the whole state. The waters of Chalco are sweet; those of Tezcuco brackish. These two lakes are united by a canal. The lower lake, or Lake Tezcuco, was formerly 20 miles long, and 17 miles broad; and, lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reservoir of all the waters from the surrounding mountains.

Metals—Minerals.—Mexico is famous for silver; and gold is not only found in the brooks and rivers, but also in mines. The gold mine of Casalà is exceedingly rich; and gold occurs at the depth of from six inches to ten feet beneath the surface, in part of California. The mines of silver are found in several parts: one of the richest spots, in that respect, is the neighbourhood of Guanaxuato, where one mine, during forty years, did not yield less to its proprietors, in annual profit, than from £80,000 to £120,000 sterling. The Real del Monte, Zimapan, las Charcas, and Real del Catorce mines, are remarkable for their productiveness. Some of the mines, since the revolution, have been wrought by British skill and labour, but not with that productive effect which was fondly expected. The mountains likewise abound in iron, copper, tin, and lead. Here are also found various kinds of precious stones, as emeralds, turquoises, amethysts, and a few diamonds.

Climate—Soil.—Mexico is divided into tierras calientes (hot countries,) which comprise the low coasts; tierras templadas (temperate countries,) consisting of the districts from 4500 to 6000 feet above the sea; and tierras frias (cold countries,) which are more than 6000 feet above the sea. The part which is within the torrid zone is, in that division, excessively hot; and, on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise very insalubrious. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament. On the western side, the land is not so low as on the eastern, is much better in quality, and full of plantations. The climate of Old California is very fine, and the sky is generally serene and cloudless; but the soil is sandy and barren, with the exception of a few places, where maize and manioc grow vigorously, and the vines yield rich grapes. In New California the climate is mild and agreeable, and the black spongy earth is highly favourable to cultivation. It is said that the interior of the country also contains plains of salt, quite firm, and as clear as crystal.

Produce.—Mexico, like all tropical countries, seems to be more productive of fruit than of grain; yet the corn-crops are, in many parts, rich and luxuriant. In the temperate districts, the wheat is of a fine quality; but maize, the manioc root, the banana, and the potato, are more generally cultivated for the purposes of sustenance; and the maguey furnishes a favourite fermented liquor called pulque, while its fibres supply a sort of hemp and paper, and its prickles are used for pins and nails. The fruits of the country are pine-apples, mangoes, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, cocoa-nuts, and other kinds. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especially toward the gulf. Many gum-yielding trees are found in different parts; and cedar and log-wood abound about the bays of Campechè and Honduras; the maho-tree also, which has a bark with such strong fibres, that they twist and make ropes of it. There is also a tree which is called light-wood, being as light as cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandise on the coasts. One most valuable product of this country, next to its gold and silver, is cochineal, which is of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dyeing all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine, as a sudorific and a cordial. The cochineal insect thrives only between the tropics, and at an elevation of 5000 feet above the sea. Mexico exports annually 100,000 lbs. Coffee enough is grown for home consumption. The cocoa-nut, of which chocolate is made, was once extensively cultivated, but there are now so few plantations, that the article is largely imported. This country likewise produces silk; but this branch of industry is now almost extinct. Cotton is here in great abundance, and, on account of its lightness, is the common wear of the inhabitants.

Animals.—Horses, asses, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats, have been transported hither from the old continent, and have all multiplied. Horned cattle are found wild, in herds of many thousands, and are killed merely for their hides. Among the native animals are the puma and jaguar, or American lion and tiger; the Mexican or hunchbacked dog, a kind of porcupine; wild cats, foxes, squirrels, armadillos; also the cociote, a quadruped which seems to be compounded of the wolf, the fox, and the dog. Venomous serpents, and other dangerous reptiles, may be supposed to thrive in this country; but they are not formidably numerous or particularly mischievous. Eagles, vultures, beautiful hawks, and an amazing number of smaller birds, of whose plumage the general cast is plain, are observed in various parts; but, of those species which are peculiar to Mexico, we have no accurate accounts.

Chief Towns—Population—Manners—Customs.—Tenochtitlan, Montezuma's capital, was situated on a group of islands in the midst of the lake Tezcuco; but, from the progress of evaporation, occasioned by the great heat of the sun, and in some measure from the effects of draining, that lake consists at present of a comparatively small body of water, and the present city of Mexico is situated entirely on the main land: yet the cathedral occupies exactly the ground on which the chief Pagan

temple stood at the time of the Spanish invasion. This church is about 500 feet in length, and 180 feet in width, and has a grand aspect, but its exterior is not uniformly elegant or magnificent; for a part of the front is low, and of bad Gothic architecture, while the other part, which is of recent construction, is built in the Italian style, and displays both symmetry and beauty. The interior is gaudily rather than tastefully decorated. Like most of the churches in this part of America, it exhibits a profusion of massive carved and gilt ornaments, pictures, and painted statues. Within the enclosure is a cylindrical mass of porphyry, adorned with sculptured figures, called, from its former use in the immolation of human victims, the Stone of Sacrifices.

Few cities are more neatly and regularly built than Mexico, and in few can a finer place be seen than the grand square. While the cathedral dignifies the eastern side, the palace of the government and the public offices appear on the north; and handsome ranges of stone-built houses adorn the other sides. In the centre of this square is a colossal equestrian statue of Charles IV. of Spain, on a pedestal of Mexican marble: it was executed by Tolsa, and is said to be the finest specimen of casting in the New World.

Mexico has some, but not many, useful establishments. A university, a public library, a school of mining, and several charitable foundations, may here be mentioned; and there is an institution, which, though it has not a dignified aspect or a pompous appellation, is very serviceable to the community. It is, in fact, an office for the loan of money on pledges of property; and the honest poor are thus accommodated, while the facilities for disposing of stolen goods are diminished.

Although the fine arts do not greatly flourish in Mexico, and some of the mechanic arts are not very skilfully cultivated, yet the people of the race display an aptitude for the arts of imitation, and also excel in various branches of industry. Gold and silver lace is manufactured with dexterity and taste, coach-making is practised in a neat and substantial manner, carving in wood is well executed, and other arts attest the skill and experience of many of the citizens. In those branches in which they fail, they have lately been instructed and assisted by British emigrants.

The population, in 1802, was calculated by Humboldt at 137,000, of whom 2500 were Europeans, 65,000 were creoles, 26,500 mestizoes (the offspring of white persons and of the descendants of the original natives,) 10,000 mulattoes, and 33,000 individuals of the ancient race, of whom about 3000 were priests, monks, and nuns. The population at present is about 140,000.

Vera Cruz, the principal Mexican port, situated near the Gulf of Mexico, is a well-built town, and a place of considerable trade; but it *is* one of the most unhealthy spots in the world, and its population is gradually declining, though it is the only port on the eastern coast that can receive large ships. In 1802, the inhabitants, exclusive of the militia and seafaring people, did not exceed 16,000; and the present amount is only 7000. The merchants reside at Jalapa, and only visit the port upon business.

Puebla de los Angelos, in 1820, contained about 60,000 persons, and its population has since rather increased. The town is compactly and uniformly built, and has wide streets. The houses are of stone, generally of two stories, with flat roofs; and the fronts of many of them are inlaid with painted tiles, highly glazed, while others have their fronts gaudily and fantastically painted, like the houses of Genoa. The churches amount to sixty-one, among which the cathedral is pre-eminent; and those which have not a magnificent exterior are internally rich and splendid. The people formerly excelled in the woollen manufacture; but that of glass is now the best.

If population be a proof of the flourishing state of a town, Guadalaxara must be a thriving city; for it is next in that respect to the capital, it having above 60,000 inhabitants. Guanaxuato, though a mining town, is far less populous, it having only 33,000 inhabitants.

Santa-Fè, the chief town in the territory of New Mexico, stands at no great distance from the Rio Grande del Norte, or the Great River of the North, which rises in the latitude of 40 degrees, and falls into the great gulf, after a winding course of 1100 miles. The town is in some degree fortified, because the citizens and the provincials are exposed to the hostilities of the unsubdued tribes of barbarians. The houses are, in general, only one story high, and the windows, in most of them, are composed of flakes of talc. It has only 2000 inhabitants. The neighbouring country is mountainous and barren, and very scantily peopled.

The seat of government for Upper California, is Monterey. It is rather a garrison than a town. Loreto, a small town, with only 250 inhabitants, is the capital of Lower California. The two provinces, at first, were chiefly colonized by ecclesiastics, who, with the aid of soldiers, undertook the conversion of the natives. Thus, missions and garrisons were spread over the country; but the people have not derived from them all the blessings of good government. The northernmost station is Port Francisco, which has a handsome church for the converted natives, and a monastery for the missionaries.

With regard to the population of the whole Mexican state, we cannot speak with perfect accuracy; but in 1830 it was estimated at 6,791,000 persons. Some accounts state it to be at present 8,000,000; but this is probably rather too high an estimate. The people of the race found by Cortez, at the conquest, form, perhaps, two-fifths of the aggregate number.

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he merchants and shopkeepers;
for the former are not sufficiently numerous to form a separate class: they are wealthy, and might possess influence, but have hitherto taken little part in the politics of the country; probably from the fear of losing their property. In the towns, the labouring class includes all castes and colours; they are industrious and orderly, and view with interest what is passing around them; most of them can read, and, in the large towns, papers and pamphlets are hawked about the streets, and sold at a cheap rate. The labouring class, in the country, is likewise composed of different castes: they are sober and industrious, but so ignorant and superstitious that they may be led by their priests or masters to good or evil. Their apathy has in some measure been overcome by the long struggle for independence, in which most of them bore a part: but they still remain under the influence and direction of the priests. The last class, unknown as such in a well-regulated society, consists of beggars and idlers, drones that prey upon the community, and who, having nothing to lose, are always ready either to swell the cry of popular ferment, or to lend their aid in favour of imperial tyranny."

Among the females, the most polished, next to the Europeans, are the creoles. They are not, indeed, remarkably well informed, but are good-humoured, obliging, and hospitable, and are fond of conversation, music, and dancing. The women of the old race are less lively, but more attentive to decorum and morality. All classes of females are outwardly strict in devotional observances. Religious processions and festivals are numerously attended; and, on these occasions, the ladies pride themselves on being well dressed. In the streets, a black dress generally prevails, with a veil instead of a hat or bonnet; but, in the domestic or friendly party, that sombre hue is generally discarded. A worked shift, a light open jacket, and an embroidered or spangled petticoat of bright-coloured soft cloth, are their usual coverings. The women of the lower orders, in general, wear only a petticoat and short jacket, and plait their long tresses with red tape.

The gentlemen are fond of finery. A large hat coloured and laced, a worked shirt, embroidered small-clothes (frequently of coloured leather, decorated with broad silver lace,) a jacket of printed calico, a cloak of velvet or fine cloth, and ornamented gaiters, compose the apparel of a great number, while the inferior people wear a straw hat, a jacket of coarse woollen cloth or leather, short breeches, sometimes trowsers, and rough sandals, instead of the soft shoes of the gentry. But it must be observed, that the dress varies in the different provinces, so as not to be fully described without superfluous minuteness.

ANTIQUITIES.—Although the Mexican empire was a novelty to the discoverers of America, it was not a new state or an infant govern-

ment. How long it had then subsisted we cannot ascertain; but monuments of civilization, anterior by some ages to that era, have been found in various parts. The palace of Mitla, in the province of Oaxaca, is one of the most remarkable of these. It was constructed over the tombs of princes, and the ruins still exhibit walls covered with a kind of mosaic work, a vast hall, the ceiling of which is supported by six columns of porphyry, a spacious court, surrounded by small structures, an interior court, galleries, &c.

Between Mexico and Puebla de los Angelos, a pyramidal hill, 177 feet high, attracts the attention of antiquaries. It is an artificial elevation, of unburned bricks and clay, in four stories. In its interior is a square chamber, formed of stone, and supported by beams of cypress. It is not arched, but the bricks must have been so arranged as to diminish the pressure upon the roof. On the summit was a temple, which has been superseded by a Catholic chapel. In the province of Vera Cruz, near Papantla, is a pyramid much lower than the other, but more symmetrically built of well-cut blocks of stone. At Palenque, on the frontier of Guatemala, extensive ruins have been discovered. The interior of the largest building found on this spot exhibits a style resembling the Gothic; but the chambers, though not ill constructed, are disgraced by stucco devices of the rudest kind. Another edifice has square pillars, an outer gallery, and a paved hall, ornamented with female figures in basso-relievo, of the natural size.

Commerce.—During the colonial government, the trade of Mexico was subjected to illiberal restrictions by Spanish jealousy: yet the produce of the country found its way into the chief European ports. A flota from Cadiz, composed of three men-of-war as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant-ships, annually arrived at Vera Cruz about the beginning of November, with a cargo consisting of every commodity and manufacture of Europe. When all the goods were disposed of, the fleet took in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. In May the ships sailed to the Havanna, where they met the galleons, which carried on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all were collected, they steered for Old Spain.

Acapulco, on the Pacific coast, was the port by which the communication was long kept up between Spanish America and the East Indies. About the month of December the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, annually arrived there. The cargoes of these ships—for the convoy, though in a clandestine manner, likewise carried goods—consisted of all Eastern commodities and manufactures. At the same time, the annual ship from Lima came in, and was not computed to bring less than 2,000,000 of pieces of eight in silver, beside quicksilver, and other valuable commodities, to be expended in the purchase of the galleon's cargo. Several other ships, from different ports of Chile and Peru, met on the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world were bartered for one another, lasted thirty days. The galleon then prepared for her voyage, loaded with silver, and such European goods as had been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade was carried on entirely through their hands, and in the heart of their dominions, were comparatively small gainers; for, as they allowed the commercial states to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permitted the Chinese merchants to furnish almost the whole cargo of the galleon. When the galleons were laid aside, smaller vessels, called register-ships, were employed: but the trade was still conducted with impolicy on the part of the Spaniards. As the Philippine islands are still under the yoke of Spain, this branch of commerce is now suspended, while all other branches are opened by the liberality of the rising states.

Government and Revenue.—Under the sway of his Catholic Majesty, the civil government of Mexico was administered by tribunals called Audiences, resembling the old French parliaments. In these courts the viceroy presided. He had also the patronage of all the churches—a circumstance of great moment where so much power was in the hands of the clergy. This government is now exploded, and a new form has been adopted, of which we shall take notice in the history of the revolution.

The public revenue of New Spain, including that of New Mexico, in 1789, exceeded 19,000,000 dollars; out of which, after deducting the colonial charges, and sending large sums to other colonies, only 4,800,000 dollars were received by the court of Madrid. During the late contest for independence, the revenue was inadequate to the expenditure; and, therefore, applications were made to the opulent citizens of London for several loans. One was for 20,000,000 dollars, and another for 16,000,000. In the legislative session of 1825, the minister of finance calculated the expenditure at 17,998,470 dollars, and the revenue at 10,690,600 dollars; but a committee, after an investigation of the subject, gave a very different statement, alleging that, after defraying every expense, there would be a surplus of 2,000,000 dollars. At present, the revenue appears to be by no means in a flourishing condition. With good management Mexico has, however, the means of emerging from her pecuniary difficulties.

Religion.—In the creed and worship of Mexico no alterations have been made by the new government; for the popular reformers, content with the doctrine and discipline to which they have been habituated, are willing to preserve their faith, while they discard their

:. There are eight bishops in the ent, whose revenues, being too large rposes of piety, ought to be partly increase the incomes of the inferior

'.—The early history of this country in obscurity. Humboldt is of opi- he Toltecs proceeded from China to eastern coast of Asia, crossed over 's Strait to America, and gradually :hward, so as to colonize Mexico, in h century; that they introduced and some mechanic arts, and were : various times by the Chichimecs, ', Acolhuans, and Aztecs, the last of ons arrived in the year 1196. From munities sprang the subjects of a; of whose state, as well as of the nquest, we have before taken notice. ain kept possession of those coun- she owed to Columbus, her govern- a degree of vigour and efficiency nised to keep them subservient to id this submission she continued to : after her energy had declined. is sometimes arose, but were speed- and it was not till the treacherous of the Spanish throne in 1808, that the ere induced to turn their thoughts lence. To submit would have been sgrace, unworthy of the Spanish therefore, when protection ceased of the former government, the in- ple, in some of the South American erected the standard of independ- olonists in North America at length e example. The viceroy of Mexico, Iturrigaray, who, when he received ry orders from the divided govern- ain, proposed the formation of a junta, but was arrested by the id sent to Europe. The tyranny of ie new viceroy, hastened that ex- ch he wished to prevent. The de- of the original natives, led by an et, took up arms in the province of ', and, being joined by several gar- nenced hostilities. The insurgents ly harassed in several conflicts; the command of another priest, elos, they continued the war with . Shocking cruelties were com- both sides, but particularly by the fter the death of Morelos, who was d put to death, Xavier Mina was ct in the cause of independence; so ill supported by the revolters, ld not save himself from military nd the war then declined into the erations of detached parties. But, n Augustin Iturbide, a Mexican a new stimulus to the revolutionary posing that Ferdinand VII. should to be the king of Mexico or New ondition of his submitting to con- imitations, and declaring the realm independent of Old Spain, and of every other country. The proposal was adopted by the greater part of the army; and, in the following year, deputies met for the purpose of political reform. Iturbide now procured from the soldiery and the people a tumultuary vote for his own elevation to the imperial dignity; and the choice was reluctantly sanctioned by the representatives. But this usurpation could not be durable. Don Augustin, resenting the opposition of the deputies to his measures, dissolved the assembly, and, by this and other arbitrary acts, excited general indignation. Harassed by insurrections, he resigned in 1823, and embarked for Europe. Under pretence of allaying the dissensions which arose after his departure, Iturbide rashly ventured to return; but he was immediately seized, and put to death as an outlaw. An annual pension of 8000 dollars was, however, granted to his widow by the congress.

General Bravo, and two other popular men, were allowed to assume the executive authority; and, under their auspices, a "representative, popular, federal republic" was organized in 1824. The republican state was divided into sixteen departments, extending from New California to Chiapa. The number has since been increased. The legislative power was assigned to a senate, and to a chamber of deputies freely chosen, constituting the general congress of the confederacy; the executive authority was intrusted to a native citizen, not under thirty-five years of age; all his decrees and orders were to be signed by the secretary of that branch of administration to which the business belonged; and he and the vice-president were liable, during the limited term of office, and for one subsequent year, to be impeached and tried for illegal acts. A supreme court of judicature was also framed, to which appeals might be made from the provincial tribunals.

In 1825, Guadalupe Victoria, having been chosen as president, the new government was brought into regular exercise; and, during this year and the next, the affairs of the republic were in a tolerably satisfactory state. The independence of Mexico was recognised by Great Britain, and a commercial treaty concluded between the two states; and the fort of St. Juan d'Ulloa, which had long been blockaded, was compelled to surrender, by which event Spain lost her sole remaining possession in the Mexican territory. In 1826, the prospect began to darken; Texas attempted to revolt, a conspiracy was discovered in the capital, and faction began to display all its violence. The republic was agitated by two parties, the one called the Escosesos, the other the Yorkinos; the former, accused by its opponents of wishing to establish a monarchy, was desirous of a strongly constituted central government; the latter, which has been, perhaps too harshly, compared to the French jacobins, wished for extreme republican institu-

tutions, and a mere federal compact between the states. While these hostile factions were fiercely contending against each other, a large Spanish force was landed to attempt the re-conquest of Mexico. The Spanish general was, however, shut up in Tampico by the Mexican general, Santa Anna, and was compelled to capitulate in September, 1829. The danger which the country had encountered did not induce the factions to lay aside their differences. On the contrary, they assailed each other with more inveteracy than ever. The Yorkinos obtained a triumph in the election of Guerrero as successor to Guadalupe Victoria, and the banishment of all Spaniards; but their triumph was of short duration, for he was soon after overthrown, and shot as a traitor, and the reins of presidential authority were placed in the hands of Bustamente, who, in his turn, was forced to resign his office, and quit the country. The presidency of Santa Anna, which commenced in 1836, was marked by more vigour than that of his predecessors. He succeeded in keeping down his opponents, and obtained from the congress enactments which gave additional strength to the central government. The Texians having revolted, Santa Anna marched against them in 1836; but he was defeated and made prisoner. On his liberation, Santa Anna retired into private life, and Bastamenta, who had returned to his native country, was elected president in February, 1837. He did not enter into office under happy auspices; resources were wanting for the war with Texas, and he had to make head against insurrections in California, New Mexico, and other quarters. To all this was added the calamity of an earthquake, which nearly annihilated Acapulco, and did great damage, and caused the loss of many lives, in the Mexican capital. In 1838, the republic had to contend with a more formidable enemy than in refractory citizens. Taking advantage of its weakness, France, under various flimsy pretexts, blockaded its ports, and, in the following year, reduced the fort of St. Juan de Ulua. The war, however, was at length brought to an end by British mediation. Since that period, the streets of Mexico have twice been the scene of combat between the centralists and the federalists, and battles have been fought in other quarters. The victory remained with the centralists; but it is doubtful how long their triumph will last, as Yucutan has seceded from the confederacy, and other members of the confederacy are also in an unquiet state. The attempt to recover the sovereignty of Texas has likewise been resumed; the success of which is extremely problematical.

TEXAS.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles		Degrees.
Length,	709	between	26. and 38. N. lat.
Breadth,	500		93. and 106. W. long.

Containing 260,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS. — Texas is bounded, on the west, by the Rocky mountains; on the north, by the Red river; on the east, by Arkansas and Louisiana; and on the south, by the Gulf of Mexico. The limits of thirty-two counties have been marked out; but the greatest part of Texas is yet unsurveyed.

RIVERS.—The principal rivers are the Red river, the Sabine, the Colorado, the Nueces, the Trinidad, and the Brazos de Dios. The last of these has a course of 500 miles, in one part of which it passes through an extensive plain, the soil of which is so impregnated with salt and nitre, that, under certain circumstances, the water is brackish nearly to the mouth of the river.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE—FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—Mr. Maillard, one of the latest visitors of Texas, gives a discouraging account of its climate. "The physical constitution of the atmosphere, and other natural causes," says he, "render the prairies in the lower parts of Texas, along the sea-coast, worse than useless for two-thirds of the year, and the prospective productiveness of the upper sections of the country somewhat problematical. The sudden changes of the atmosphere are most injurious to health. In the beginning of spring (March) the weather is wet and cold, the thermometer seldom rising above 45 degrees; but towards the close of the spring (May) it suddenly becomes sultry, the thermometer rising to 95 degrees. In summer the thermometer ranges from 95 to 105 degrees, and the rapid progress of vegetation appears almost supernatural, while the air, teeming with insects, renders life intolerable. This is the season of epidemics, yellow and bilious fevers. In 1839, 65 per cent. of the population were carried off by yellow fever. In autumn, the thermometer falls gradually to 60 degrees, and the weather becomes more congenial for a short time, when the rainy season sets in, and continues throughout the winter and the greater part of the spring, accompanied by awful thunder, lightning, and northerly winds, which search the frame with an acuteness almost peculiar to themselves. The consequence of the climate on vegetation is, that, though the earth is as rich as any in the world, everything is no sooner above ground than it matures and

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ason the waters do not disappear,
trary; for, the sun coming forth,
w of the mountains in the north,
which results, remains pent up
in valleys by the strong S. S. E.
prevail at this season, till the
to the north, permits of their
hey pour down in torrents, not
weeping everything before them,
ng to continue the inundation of
try, from about the 1st of April
of June. The streams east of
er rise on the confines of the
is in the north. Their waters
n the earth, but in their course
ted as to be at last almost pesti-
Kennedy speaks more favourably
:. He denies that any part of
n be deemed sickly, except the
country running parallel to the
ttlers are liable to bilious and
:vers. He owns, however, that
m the coast the more healthy is
nd that it is necessary to go fifty
inland to render health secure.
ded into three distinct regions—
:ending along the coast, and
1 30 to 70 miles in breadth; the
lating, which succeeds the level,
rgest; and the mountainous,
art of the Sierra Madre. The
t portion is a rich alluvion, but
wampy and insalubrious; the
s a large extent of fertile prairie
voodland; the third is clothed
pine, oak, cedar, and other trees,
ive valleys of rich alluvial earth,
pious springs. There is one
rity in Texas, which is called
ber, and is worthy of remark.
uous series of forests, extending
y region at the sources of the
direct line north, across the
erminable prairies of Northern
Ozark territory, to the southern
kansas river. This belt of tim-
lth from 5 to 50 miles. Between
. Red river it is generally from
e, and is so remarkably straight
it it appears to be a work of art.
from the adjoining prairies on
, it appears in the distance like
all of woods stretching from
in a straight line, the extremi-
e lost in the horizon." It is a
stance, which has given rise to
e belt is the work of the extinct
left so many gigantic vestiges
ce, that the Cross Timber, in
tion, does not perceptibly vary
eridian.

Sugar, cotton, rice, Indian corn, wheat and other grain, beans, pease, and various vegetables, tobacco, and indigo, thrive in Texas. The same is the case with fruit trees and vines. Some of the timber trees are excellent, particularly the live oak.

METALS — MINERALS. — Silver mines were formerly worked in a part of Texas, but they have been abandoned. Copper, iron, lead, and coal are found in various places, and salt is abundant.

ANIMALS.—Cattle and sheep are rapidly increasing in number. Among the wild animals are the panther, spotted leopard, Mexican cougar, black bear, wolf, fox, bison, buffalo, and wild horse; deer, rabbits, and opossums are plentiful.

CHIEF TOWNS—POPULATION.—The period at which Texas was settled being very recent, there are of course but few towns, and none of any considerable magnitude. San Felipe de Austen, which is the present capital, was not commenced till 1839, and, in 1840, it already contained 400 houses. It is situated on the Rio Coloredo. Galveston, which is the Texian port, was not in existence in 1837, and in 1839 it had 300 houses, with a population of more than 2000 souls, and had six steam-boats, one-half plying regularly to Houston, and the other half to New Orleans. The other towns of some note are Bexar, Houston, and Nacogdoches. Several other towns have been founded, and are making rapid progress. The population of Texas, exclusive of the native tribes, is estimated at from 80,000 to 100,000: some accounts even swell it to double that number.

GOVERNMENT. — With one exception, that Texas is not a federal but an integral republic, the Texian constitution is similar to that of the United States. The president holds his office for three years only, and cannot be re-elected till three years have elapsed after his quitting the presidential chair. There are two legislative bodies, the speakers of which appoint standing committees to superintend the various branches of the public service. Elections are by ballot, and suffrage is universal for the whites; but all ministers of the gospel are excluded from the executive and legislative assemblies. Every citizen is taxed in proportion to his means. But there is one foul blot upon the face of this new state—its citizens are slaveholders, nor is a slave permitted to acquire his freedom and remain within the limits of the republic.

HISTORY. — At the commencement of the 19th century, Texas contained only two or three small and widely separated military establishments, near which were scattered a few Spanish settlers. Some futile attempts were made, under the Spanish government, to procure inhabitants by what was called the empressario system; that is, by making grants of land, on condition that the land shall be forfeited if a stated number of colonists were not fixed upon it within a certain period. This system was

entered upon with considerable vigour, in 1825; and Stephen Austin, a native of the United States, was the first who embarked in it upon a large scale. Immigrants soon flocked in from various quarters, but especially from the United States; so that in a short time the population received an increase of several thousand persons. Among these new settlers the spirit of independence manifested itself as early as 1826, when one Edwards made an absurd and abortive attempt to establish a republic at Nacogdoches. But, though this attempt was defeated, the desire to effect its object remained, and grew continually stronger. The Mexican government was dissatisfied with the Texian settlers, for their non-performance of some of the conditions on which they held their lands; and they, in turn, were dissatisfied with the government for various reasons, but especially for the decree of 1829, by which slavery was abolished throughout the Mexican dominions. But matters were not brought to a crisis till the summer of 1835, when, in consequence of the refractory conduct of the colonists, hostilities commenced between them and the Mexican troops in the province. Early in 1836, the Texian congress published a declaration of independence. It had already a military force on foot, to which volunteers were daily hastening from the southern parts of the United States. To quell this revolt at its outset, Santa Anna, the president of Mexico, led his army in person against the Texians. He began by gaining some slight successes; but, in a general engagement, on the 21st of April, he was defeated and made prisoner. He, however, obtained his liberty soon after, by signing a convention, in which he agreed that Texas should be totally evacuated by the Mexican troops. The independence of Texas was subsequently recognised by England, the United States, and France. The war with France, and the internal situation of Mexico, for a considerable time prevented Santa Anna from renewing his attempts to subjugate the revolted province: but he has recently recommenced the war, (1842) and several skirmishes have taken place, with fluctuating success, but with no important results.

CENTRAL AMERICA, OR GUATEMALA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles		Degrees.
Length,	800	between	84. and 94. W. long.
Breadth,	100 to 270	between	10. and 17. N. lat.

Containing 114,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES—DIVISIONS.—The territories of this new federal republic are bounded, on the west, by the Pacific; on the north, by Yucatan and the Gulf of Mexico; on the east, by the Caribbean Sea; on the south, by the Pacific; and, at the south-eastern extremity, by that isthmus which divides North from South America, or by the frontiers of Nueva Grenada. The federation consists of five states—Costarica, Nicaragua, Honduras, Salvador, and Guatemala.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—This is, for the most part, a level country; but it exhibits a mountainous range—a continuation of the Andes, crested with volcanic cones. Near Old Guatemala is a mountain, the circumference of which, at the base, is said to be above forty-five miles. Its lower parts are cultivated, the middle region is woody, and the summit is covered, but not perpetually, with snow.

LAKES—RIVERS.—The most extensive lake is that of Nicaragua, about 400 miles in circumference. It communicates, on the north-west, with the lake of Leon, by a navigable channel; and both are sufficiently deep for large vessels. A canal of only 12 miles, it is said, would be the only requisite for completing a navigation in this part of the country, from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Connected with the lake of Nicaragua is that of Managua, which is 45 miles long, and about 15 miles broad. The other principal lakes are those of Guixa, Cogutepeque, Dulce, Peten, Atezan, and Amatitan. On the western bank of the Atitan is a volcano, an eruption from which laid waste, in 1827, the surrounding country. There are many rivers, but their course is generally short. The Usamasinta is the largest. Among the others are the Patook, the Motagua, the Polochic, and the Lempa.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—The climate is warm, and in some parts so humid as to be insalubrious. The soil is in general fertile, and the products are numerous and valuable. Earthquakes are extremely frequent; and especially on the south-east edge of the table-land, and near volcanoes. In several districts, the quality of the land is so peculiarly adapted to the growth of timber, that, after a tree has been cut down, the root will send out five or six shoots, which, in four years, will become very considerable trees. Some of the cedars exceed seven fathoms in circumference. Wool, admirably calculated for masts, is very abundant, and the pita, which is much more fit for rope-making than the esparto, grows in great luxuriance. All sorts of grain, the finest fruits, the chocolate-nut, sugar, rich balsams, tobacco, indigo, various gums, &c., are furnished in plenty. Cochineal is also produced in great quantities.

METALS. — The province called Costarica abounds with mines of gold, silver, and copper; but they are in a great measure neglected, though the new government is inclined to promote the proper working of them by English skill, industry, and capital.

ANIMALS.—These are, in general, the same with those of Mexico; but Juarros mentions some which, he says, are peculiar to Guatemala. The zachin is one of these: it is a quadruped resembling a rat, which preys upon snakes and poultry. Two species of birds, called the quetzal and the raxon, also confine themselves to this country: they are not vocalists, but the former is admired for its beautiful emerald-green plumage, the latter for its mixture of green and purple.

CHIEF TOWNS.—The most populous state for its extent, but the smallest, is that of Salvador, in which, it is said, about 300,000 persons reside. In this part of the new confederacy, the people of the old race are more civilized than in any other part of Guatemala, and coalesce more cordially with those inhabitants who are of Spanish origin.

The old city of Guatemala, being greatly damaged by an earthquake in 1773, New Guatemala, the present capital, was erected on a spot more distant from that volcano which had occasioned such havoc. It stands on a spacious plain, fertilized by various rivulets and lakes, under the influence of a benignant climate. The houses, though built low, for fear of earthquakes, are large and commodious, pretty in appearance, and have gardens and orchards attached to them. The principal square is handsome, and is ornamented by a colonnade. Near its eastern side is the cathedral, built by an Italian artist, in a correct and magnificent style of architecture. On one side of the cathedral is the archiepiscopal palace, and on the other a college. In the same part of the town are the palaces of government and of justice, and various public offices. The churches are elegantly constructed; and attention is particularly arrested by a beautiful amphitheatre of stone, destined for the barbarous amusement of bull-baiting. There is a well-built university, where law, theology, medicine, mathematics, experimental philosophy, and natural history, are taught. The senate-house, and the hall in which the popular representatives meet, are not striking edifices; but the use to which they are applied compensates every deficiency in that respect. The city and vicinity are inhabited by 40,000 persons, who are characterized by Juarros as "humane, courteous, liberal, docile, and inclined to piety, but too generally prone to pusillanimity and indolence." Old Guatemala still contains a population of more than 12,000.

The city of San Salvador, which is the capital of the Union, is pleasantly situated, well built, and has above 16,000 inhabitants; but it has very little trade, except in indigo. San Vicente, which has a population of 8000, is the capital of the state.

Leon, near the lake of that name, is an episcopal see, and has the advantage of a university; but, in point of trade, it is less flourishing than the village of Masaya, in the same province. One of the most thriving and opulent towns in the state of Guatemala is Quezaltenango, which has about 14,000 inhabitants, among whom are many able workmen in the linen, cotton, and woollen branches of manufacture. Coban has the same number, and Totonicapàn has 12,000.

POPULATION.—It is very difficult to ascertain the number of inhabitants in this or any other of the new states. Some have swelled the amount to 2,000,000; but, in all probability, it is 1,500,000; of which number Costarica contains 100,000; Nicaragua, 200,000; Honduras, 300,000; Salvador, 300,000; and Guatemala, 600,000.

RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, AND REVENUE. —Of all the states rescued from the Spanish yoke, the predominant religion is that of the church of Rome, which the original invaders, like the Arabian pseudo-prophet, propagated by sanguinary violence; but the new governments leave the votaries of other creeds unmolested.

Guatemala has the benefit of a government founded on popular representation, and its courts of justice are better constituted than those which acted under the tyranny of Spain. One of the first acts of the independent administration evinced a due regard for liberty. No one who was concerned in the slave trade was to be deemed a citizen; every person belonging to the republic was declared free; and all strangers who arrived in its territory, if they were slaves before, were instantly released from that species of degradation.

In consequence of the reduction of taxes, the revenue of Guatemala became so inadequate to the necessary expenditure, that it was found expedient to borrow 7,500,000 dollars from the opulent citizens of London. Under the old government, the revenue did not exceed 1,000,000 dollars; and it is said that the charges of the present establishment may be defrayed by one half of that amount; but this sum is evidently too small for the reasonable expenses of the state. By a recent estimate, the revenue appears to be 682,000 dollars, and the expenses to be about 653,000.

ANTIQUITIES. — Central America possesses numerous remains of the unascertained people, who, in old times, built the city of Palenque, and constructed other magnificent works. In the state of Guatemala are the ruins of Watland, the magnificent capital of the ancient kingdom of Quiché. Torrequemada describes the royal palace as rivalling those at Mexico and Cusco. "It was," he says, "built of stone of various colours, was 728 geometric paces long, and 376 wide, and had six principal divisions." Near Copan, in the state of Honduras, there are also the vestiges of a great city, and nume-

rous elaborate sculptures, in bold relief, some in workmanship equal to the finest monuments of the Egyptians. They are embosomed in a thick wood, and some of the trees growing on them are twenty feet in circumference. But there is something still more wonderful to be told. Mr. Stephens, one of the most recent travellers in Central America, was assured, by the venerable Padre of Santa Cruz del Quiché, that, in the district of Vera Paz, there exists an unconquered race of natives, and that, in their country, "four days on the road to Mexico, on the other side of the great sierra, was a living city, large and populous, occupied by Indians, precisely in the same state as before the discovery of America. He had heard of it many years before at the village of Chajul, and was told by the villagers, that, from the topmost ridge of the sierra this city was distinctly visible. He was then young, and with much difficulty climbed to the naked summit of the sierra, from which, at a height of 10,000 or 12,000 feet, he looked over an immense plain, extending to Yucutan, and the Gulf of Mexico, and saw at a great distance a large city, spread over a great space, and with turrets white and glittering with the sun. The traditionary account of the Indians of Chajul is, that no white man has ever reached this city; that the inhabitants speak the Maya language, are aware that a race of strangers has conquered the whole country around, and murder any white man who attempts to enter their territories."

HISTORY.—Central America formed, for a short time, a portion of the Mexican confederacy; but, in 1823, it separated from it, and became independent. A constitution, modelled from that of the United States, was formed, with a house of representatives, a senate, and a president, the latter of whom was to hold his authority for four years. The presidency was conferred on Don Manuel Jose Aria, who had taken a prominent part in the revolution. Some attempts were soon after made in favour of Spanish supremacy, but they proved abortive. It would seem, however, that it is the fate of the new South American republics to be stained with the blood of their citizens. The republic of Guatemala had enjoyed its freedom scarcely two years, before it was involved in a sanguinary civil war. The central government, and the governments of the separate states, began with mutual accusations, and ended by resorting to arms. The contest was continued, with fluctuating success, till 1829, when the city of Guatemala was taken by the army of the insurgent states, and a new governor was established. Don Jose Aria and his friends were declared guilty of high treason, and banished. In 1832, Aria, who had found refuge in Mexico, made a bold attempt to recover his authority. While he himself advanced in the south-west of Central America, his second in command, **Domingues**, began operations in the north, by gaining possession of Omoa and Truxillo. Their success was, however, transient. Aria was totally routed, in January, by General Morazan, the new president, and with difficulty made his escape. Dominguez suffered the same fate in April; and the garrison of Omoa, after having held out till October, was compelled to surrender at discretion. The congress, this year, decreed the liberty of the press, and the free exercise of religious worship, and abolished the penalty of death for political offences. With the exception of the distress caused by the cholera, in 1837, Central America remained tolerably tranquil till 1839, when the flames of civil war again broke out. Morazan, who had held the presidency for eight years, and whom his enemies charged with having usurped it for the last four, was at length entirely defeated by Carrera, the republican general, and a new government was established by the victors. At this moment the country is once more disturbed by civil war.

MOSQUITO SHORE—BRITISH HONDURAS.

THOUGH the whole of the north-western part of the peninsula, which connects the two Americas, is nominally within the limits of the Guatemalan confederacy, there is a portion of it, estimated at one-eighth, over which it has no claim. The whole of the eastern sea-coast, from Cape Camaron, in Honduras, to the lagoon of Chiriqui, in the New Granadan province of Veragua, is inhabited, to an extent of from ten to fifty miles inland, by tribes of Indians who are perfectly independent. A part of this coast, between Cape Gracias a Dios and the Rio Tinto, is occupied by the Mosquito Indians, and takes its name from them. These tribes are not wanderers, but exist principally by the cultivation of the ground. The English formerly had settlements on their coasts. They were abandoned subsequently to the establishment of the colony at Belize; but the chiefs of the Mosquitos still consider themselves as being under the protection of Great Britain, and the crowning of their kings has sometimes taken place at Belize. It was in the territory of the Poyer Indians, near Cape Camaron, that the well-known Macgregor, who assumed the title of cacique, pretended to found a colony.

BRITISH HONDURAS, OR BELIZE.

FURTHER to the north than the coast just described, bounded, on the north, by the Mexican province of Yucatan; on the east, by the Caribbean sea; and, on the other sides, by Guatemala, is the British possession of Honduras. It is about 170 miles long, and 90 miles wide, and contains about 16,000 square miles. A considerable part of the low country is swampy, and, in rainy seasons, is covered with water. The high grounds are fertile, and densely wooded with noble trees. The only town in the colony is Belize, or Balize which

ituated on both sides of the river of the e name, near its junction with the sea. ntains between 4000 and 5000 inhabitants. population of the whole colony is about 0, and is chiefly composed of negroes. vegetable productions are numerous and llent; wild animals and birds abound; and of various kinds, and large size, are plenti- Dye-woods, sarsaparilla, mahogany, and other woods, and tortoiseshell, are among the principal exports. To these articles the commercial intercourse with this colony used formerly to be confined; but, since 1823, Belize has acquired a new importance, by becoming the depôt of British manufactures and foreign merchandise, designed for the consumption of Central America.

COLOMBIA.

UGH the republic of Colombia has ceased xist, we shall, nevertheless, preserve the mination, in order to economize our too ined space, by avoiding the repetitions that ld occur in certain parts of the separate ription of the three republics, which it now s. In its original state it was bounded, on north, by the Caribbean sea, and extended r to the north-west as to include Veragua, h is properly a part of North America. he south, it is bounded by Amazonia and ana; on the south-west, by Peru; and on north-east, by the Atlantic. It consisted hree grand divisions: — Venezuela, New ada, and Quito; divided into twelve de- nents, which were subdivided into thirty- : provinces. It is now divided into the blics of Venezuela, New Granada, and dor, or the Equator.

VENEZUELA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
th, 900 }	between	{ 60. & 73. 30. W. long.
dth, 660 }		{ 1. & 12. 25. N. lat.

Containing 403,372 square miles.

NEW GRANADA.

Miles.		Degrees.
th, 800 }	between	{ 70. & 83. W. long.
dth, 600 }		{ 0. & 11. N. lat.

Containing 379,500 square miles.

ECUADOR.

Miles.		Degrees.
th, 830 }	between	{ 69. & 81. W. long.
dth, 500 }		{ 1.40. N. & 5. 50. S. lat.

Containing 315,000 square miles.

NEZUELA is bounded, on the north, by the bean sea; on the east, by British Guayana Brazil; on the south, by Brazil; and on the by New Granada.

W GRANADA is bounded, on the east, by zuela; on the south, by Ecuador; on the by the Pacific; and on the north, by the bean sea.

UADOR is bounded, on the east, by Brazil; e south, by Peru; on the west, by the ic; and on the north, by Brazil and New ada.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—Many parts of this large territory are very mountainous; and, embosomed amidst the lofty summits, are fine valleys, which had been long the seats of industry and civilization, before America was known to Europe. The mountains, which are a prolongation of the Cordillera of the Andes, compose three great ranges, two of which, the eastern and the central, form the eastern boundary of the basin of Almaguer, and run at no great distance from each other, until they reach the fifth degree of northern latitude. The former then proceeds to the coast of Coro, having one side so precipitous as to preclude cultivation; while, on the other, some plains form an extensive table-land, situated in some parts more than 9000 feet above the sea. The central range pursues its course to Carthagena, imprisoning in its way, (between itself and the western Cordillera,) the valley of Cauca, which, if it could be properly cultivated, would be one of the most productive of the Colombian districts. In this range are several volcanoes and nevadas, or snowy summits, one of which, that of Tolima, is the highest spot in any of the chains of the Andes to the north of the equator, being 17,190 feet above the sea. But, to the south of that line, there is a mountain almost 4000 feet higher than the Tolima—we mean Chimboraço, in the department of the same name. The bulk of this mass is so prodigious, that the part which the eye embraces at once, near the limit of the snow, is above four miles broad. Humboldt ventured within 1600 feet of the summit, being aided in his ascent by a train of volcanic rocks destitute of snow. A wide crevice then obstructed his progress. There are, however, still loftier summits in Bolivia.

The llanos, or plains, extend over immense spaces, with such a general uniformity of level, that in some parts, for thirty square leagues, there is not an eminence higher than a foot. They are miserably dull and dreary; but they abound with pastoral wealth.

BAYS.—The principal bays are those of Panama and St. Michael, in the South Sea; the Bay of Porto-Bello, the Gulf of Darien, Carthagena Bay and harbour, and the Gulf of Maracaybo or Venezuela.

LAKES—RIVERS.—The lake of Maracaybo is a sea of fresh water nearly circular, and about 90 miles in diameter. As its shores are unhealthy, the natives build their bovels upon stakes of hard wood, whence arose the name of Venezuela, or Little Venice. This lake is navigable for large vessels, and the Sulia and many other rivers convey to it the products of the interior. The lake of Tacarigua is also of considerable magnitude. Both are in the republic of Venezuela. The great river Orinoco rises on the eastern frontier of New Granada, close to that of Brazil, and runs to the westward until it is joined by the Guaviare; it then flows to the northward, receives the Meta, the Arauca, and the Apure, and afterwards takes an easterly direction to the sea. For more than 700 miles from its mouth, it presents no serious obstacles to the progress of a steam-vessel; but rapids and cataracts obstruct the navigation in other parts. Its course is through the states of New Granada and Venezuela, lengthened by its windings to 1250 miles. The Magdalena issues from the lake of Papas, receives the Cauca, and runs about 900 miles before it discharges itself into the Caribbean sea. Some parts of the country through which it passes are cultivated and flourishing; but the greater part is unhealthy and desolate. Its course is wholly through the republic of New Granada.

METALS—MINERALS.—The western division of Colombia, which contains the states of New Granada and Ecuador, is more productive of gold than any other part. This metal, however, is not obtained by the usual process of mining, but by the washing of an auriferous soil. The gold-washers, before the Revolution, sometimes procured as much metal as was valued at 3,000,000 dollars; but the subsequent produce has been less considerable. Some mines of silver were worked long ago, but are now found to be not sufficiently productive: those which are supposed to be the richest are near the northern extremity of the valley of Cauca. Several mines of copper have been worked with effect, particularly those of Aroa, in Venezuela. Iron ore is known to abound in the mountainous country, bordering on the plain of Bogota. The same plain is rich in pit-coal; and, in the mountains to the north-east of the city, are some celebrated salt mines.

CLIMATE.—The heat of this country is often intense, and it causes a great evaporation from the sea and rivers, which is precipitated in such heavy rains, as inundate the country to a vast extent. In the interior there is a greater variety of climate; but Colombia, in general, cannot properly be called a healthy country.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.—The soil is, in many parts, remarkably rich and fruitful; but the coasts generally consist of barren sand. The productions raised for ordinary subsistence are maize, yams, potatoes, the fruit of the plantain, and the yuca root, a valuable substitute for bread. The torrid zone is unfavourable to the growth of wheat; yet it is produced in perfection in various parts of Venezuela, and on the table-lands of Cundinamarca and Boyaca, where the mean heat of the year nearly corresponds with that of the summer in Scotland. The chocolate-nut, coffee, sugar, tobacco, indigo, a bark like the Peruvian, sarsaparilla, vanilla, cochineal, quassia, and many resins and gums, are also reckoned among the commodities of the country. The cotton plant grows luxuriantly in this climate; but it is not properly prepared for use. The trees most remarkable for their dimensions are the ceiba, the cedar, the maria, and balsam-tree. The manchineel tree bears a fruit resembling an apple; but, under this specious appearance, it contains a most subtile poison, against which common oil is found to be the best antidote. The habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, and contains a kernel resembling an almond, but less white, and exceedingly bitter. This is said to be an infallible remedy for the bite of the most venomous vipers and serpents, which are very numerous in this country.

ANIMALS.—In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals which are also found in the southern parts. Among those peculiar to this country, the most remarkable is the sloth; so called from the slowness of its movements, and with respect to the habits of which, many absurd and false stories have been told. The monkeys are very numerous; twenty or thirty, in company, ramble over the woods, leaping from tree to tree; and, if they meet with a single person, they chatter and make a frightful noise, throwing things at him; they hang themselves by the tail on the boughs, and seem to threaten him all the way he passes; but they usually scamper away where two or three people are together.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.—The waterfall of Tequendama is reckoned among the wonders of America. The river Bogota, after winding through a plain with a breadth of 140 feet, contracts itself, on reaching a perpendicular rock, into a bed only 40 feet wide, and precipitates itself, at two bounds, to the depth of 650 feet. "This overwhelming body of water," says an observer of the phenomenon, "when it first parts from its bed, forms a broad arch of a glossy appearance; lower down, it assumes a fleecy form; and, ultimately, in its downward progress, shoots forth into millions of tubular shapes, which seem to chase each other like sky-rockets. The changes are as beautiful as they are varied, from the difference of gravitation, and the rapid evaporation that takes place before reaching the bottom. The noise with which this immense body of water falls is quite astounding: it sends up dense clouds of vapour, which rise to a considerable height, and mingle with the atmosphere, forming in their ascent the most brilliant rainbows. The most conclusive proof of the extraordinary

ition is the comparatively small stream runs off from the foot of the fall. To ify its tremendous force, it is asserted periments have been made by forcing ck into the stream, and that no vestige has been found at the bottom but a few bones. To enhance the effect, nature to have lavished all the grand accom- nts of scenery; and from the rocky ' the immense basin, hung with shrubs ashes, numerous springs and tributary s arise. At the bottom, the water that f rushes impetuously along a stony bed, ag with trees, and loses itself in a dark of the rock. From the level of the here you stand to witness this sublime the mountains rise to a great height, completely covered with wood; and at ening is an extensive prospect, which, on day, encompasses some distant snow- mountains in the province of Antio-

her curiosity is the natural bridge of zo. A torrent is crossed, at the height eet above its level, by a rocky arch about long and 35 feet broad; and this arch feet above the sea. About 60 feet below idge is another, formed by the fall itual adhesion of three huge masses of

F TOWNS—POPULATION—MANNERS.—y of Santa Fè de Bogota was for some es the capital of New Granada, and the ce of the Spanish viceroy, and is now pital of the republic of New Granada. lien represents it as the most agreeable n the whole state, adding that Car- a is the best fortified, Popayan the best Guayaquil the richest, Zipaquira the ively, Maracaybo the best situated, and the most populous. Bogota stands on ated plain, 8500 feet above the sea, in partment of Cundinamarca. It is not an a mile in length, and its widest part half a mile in breadth. Most of the are narrow, but regular; the houses are a consequence of the apprehension of akes; and they are neither very com- s, nor well furnished. The town was ly in a dirty state, having no drains, t being provided with scavengers. One viceroys said that it had four kinds of officers to keep it clean—viz. the vul- he asses, the pigs, and the rain. Many churches are stately and rich, and of the monasteries are well built and endowed. That they will long flourish latter respect, cannot be expected, as aller foundations of that kind have been suppressed. There are three well-con- colleges, in which theology, natural oral philosophy, mathematics, and phi- are taught both by ecclesiastics and . A school of mineralogy was formed ears ago, and schools were established Lancaster's plan. The population of this city is supposed to amount to 35,000; and, as it stands between ridges of mountains, though at a considerable distance from each range, the climate has an agreeable temperature.

Carthagena, which is also in New Granada, is situated in the department of Magdalena, and has 18,000 inhabitants. It has a fine harbour, though the entrance is difficult. This town suffered great injury in the revolutionary contest, but still has a considerable trade. The fortifications give the place an imposing air. The streets are narrow and dark; and no town in Colombia is more unhealthy, or more infested by venomous insects. The male inhabitants are thus characterized by M. Mollien:—"They are ingenious jewel-workers, good carpenters, indifferent joiners, unskilful masons, excellent shoemakers, tolerable tailors, and bad painters."

Popayan is another considerable town of New Granada. It stands near the sources of Cauca River, and the two volcanoes of Purace and Sotara. It contains 20,000 inhabitants; and most of its public buildings, among which the most remarkable are the bishop's palace and the Jesuits' college, are superior to those of the capital. From the elevation at which it stands—5824 feet—the climate is mild, the thermometer fluctuating between 68 and 76 degrees; but earthquakes are frequent.

Quito, the capital of the republic of Ecuador, is situated in a ravine, between the mountain Pichincha and a range of smaller hills, in the department of Chimboraço. It is a flourishing town, distinguished by the benign temperature of the air, the civilization of the inhabitants, and the elegance of its public buildings. It had two famous universities, which were united by Charles III. From this city many volcanic mountains may be seen; and the earthquake of the year 1797, produced by the eruptions of one of these, will not soon be forgotten. No great damage, indeed, was then sustained at Quito; but many parts of the country, more particularly the province of Riobamba, severely suffered by this dreadful calamity. Quito has a population of 50,000 souls.

Otavalo, the most manufacturing town in the republic, has 20,000 inhabitants; Guayaquil, capital of a department, has 25,000, and a considerable trade; and Cuenca, another departmental capital, has 20,000 inhabitants, and a university.

The city of Caracas was flourishing beyond most of the Colombian towns, and had at least a population of 40,000, when an earthquake, on the 26th of March, 1812, suddenly changed the scene. That day was remarkably hot, the air calm, the sky unclouded; and, as it was Holy Thursday, the churches were filled. A sudden shock made the bells toll; the ground undulated, and seemed to heave up like a boiling liquid. A subterranean noise, louder than ordinary thunder, was soon after heard, several

dicular and undulatory movements crossed each other; the shocks increased, the greater part of the town was overthrown, and 9000 persons were buried under the ruins of the churches and houses. The revolutionary war, and the emigration of multitudes, still further thinned the population. Caracas has, however, recovered from this visitation, and has now 50,000 inhabitants, and a prosperous commerce. It is the capital of the republic of Venezuela, is regularly built, and has a university. The department of the same name, in which it is situated, has several towns, containing from 8000 to 10,000 souls.

Cumana, the capital of the department of Maturin, has 12,000 inhabitants, and Barcelona 14,000. Maracaybo, the principal town of the department of Zulia, has 25,000 souls; and Merida and Truxillo have each 12,000. Varina, in the department of the Apure, has 12,000 inhabitants, and carries on an extensive traffic in cattle and tobacco. The chief town of the department of Orinoco is Angostura, which has a population of 6000.

Population—Manners.—The whole Colombian state, in 1827, had at least 2,815,000 inhabitants; of which Venezuela contained 985,000, New Granada 1,360,000, and Ecuador, 550,000. A census of New Granada, taken in 1835, gives to it 1,687,109. It is probable, therefore, that the population of the three republics is now little short of 3,500,000. The Europeans and creoles, perhaps, form a seventh part of this number; the mestizoes, a fourth part; the mulattoes and other mixed people, a third: the descendants of the old inhabitants, and the negroes, make up the rest.

The people of the higher class in the capitals are fond of pleasure and gaiety, of bull-baiting, cock-fights, theatrical amusements, and gambling: and the ladies are as fond of tertulias, balls, and masquerades, as they are of religious processions. An anonymous writer says, "Bogota is the most justly celebrated place in the whole republic for beautiful women;" but Captain Cochrane says, that the majority of the females are by no means handsome. They are very amorous, and, being left at full liberty, go about intriguing, with their faces muffled up, as if they were the most pure and modest of all beings. But if the ladies of the metropolis are thus licentious, the women in all other great towns do not follow the example; for Mr. Stevenson informs us, that the "private characters of the ladies of Guayaquil are as free from levity as their public demeanour is from prudery:" and at Cumana, we believe, and also at Quito, chastity and decorum are far more prevalent than in the capital. With regard to the inferior parts of the population in the last-mentioned city, it appears that the mestizoes "partake of the virtues of the whites, but exceed them in their vices, and are equally void of fixed determination;" and that the people of the old race, when employed as domestics, are patient, obedient, and industrious; but, when they act for themselves, are remarkably indolent, and prone to excess in drinking.

Constitution and Government.—The constitution is very nearly the same in the three republics. A president, whose term of office is eight years, is assisted by a vice-president and council. The legislature consists of a senate and a house of representatives. In Venezuela and New Granada, each province sends two members to the senate; but in Ecuador only one. In all the republics, a deputy is sent to the representative body by every 40,000 inhabitants.

History.—After the discovery of Cumana in the third voyage of Columbus, the northern part of South America long remained unexplored, or at least uncolonized; but, in 1538, Sebastian de Benalcazar and Gonzalo de Quesada took possession of the country about the lake of Maracaybo, and the settlements were at length extended to the Amazon river and the borders of Peru. The colony remained for ages under the Spanish yoke, which the people, however discontented, did not seriously endeavour to shake off before the present century. Miranda, a native of Caracas, projected a revolt, which, he hoped, might be as successful as that of the British American colonies: and when he had landed, with a small party of colonial exiles, on the coast of Coro, he endeavoured to rouse the provincials to action; but the attempt rather exposed him to ridicule than the government to danger. After the invasion of Spain by the French, the colonists remained quiet until they were insulted by the cortes: and then they organized a republican government, in 1811, under the appellation of the Confederate Provinces of Venezuela. But when the effects of that earthquake which destroyed the greater part of Caracas had cooled the ardour of the people, who thought that this disaster was a proof of heavenly anger, the progress of the revolution was arrested, and the royalists recovered their sway. Miranda was sent to Cadiz, where he died in prison, while Bolivar, one of his bravest officers, escaped. As this was only a suspension, not an extinction, of the popular spirit, Bolivar, having procured a military force from the zeal of a congress which had been formed in the territory of New Granada, boldly re-erected, in 1813, the revolutionary standard. After several indecisive conflicts, he was invested with the chief command of all the forces of Venezuela; but, being twice defeated with great loss, he retreated from the scene of hostility. When Ferdinand was restored, he endeavoured to conciliate the revolters; but, as he merely promised an amnesty, without extending to them the privileges of native Spaniards, they resolved to oppose him with redoubled energy. To Morillo he principally trusted to re-establish his authority; and, if cruelty could have achieved that object, the choice was such as a tyrant's friends might have approved. The new general took Carthagena, marked his route to Santa Fe

with slaughter and devastation, and restored the royal authority in New Granada. He then harassed the republicans in Venezuela, until he was brought to a general engagement by Bolivar, on the 7th of August, 1819, at Boyaca, where his troops were totally routed. On this occasion, a battalion of British fought with such courage, as to entitle them to the gratitude of the friends of independence. The royalists being still unsubdued, Bolivar again encountered them, was again aided by his British associates, and proved victorious in the field of Carabobo, in 1821. The cause of freedom was then finally triumphant. To the new republic the territory of Quito was added, in 1822, by the battle of Pichincha, and the whole received, for an obvious reason, the appellation of Colombia. In defiance of the remonstrances of Ferdinand, it was acknowledged as an independent state by Great Britain, and the commerce which had been allowed to that nation during the long contest, was sanctioned and extended by a regular commercial treaty.

Having placed the independence of Colombia beyond the reach of danger, Bolivar resolved to lend his efforts to the final expulsion of the Spaniards from the South American continent. His aid was loudly called for by the Peruvians, who were struggling against a considerable Spanish army, commanded by General Canterac. Leaving, therefore, the government in the hands of the vice-president, General Santander, Bolivar embarked at Guayaquil, with a body of Colombian troops, and arrived at Lima early in September. The result of his exertions in behalf of the Peruvians will be found described in the articles relative to Peru and Bolivia.

The absence of Bolivar, which was protracted till late in 1826, at length began to be productive of injurious consequences. Either incited by Paez, or compelling him to yield to their wishes, the Venezuelan departments, with the government of which he was invested, loudly demanded to be formed into a separate republic. Quitting Peru, Bolivar hastened to Bogota, where he assumed the dictatorial power which, in such cases, the constitution authorized him to exercise. Having made the necessary arrangements at Bogota, he proceeded to Caracas, at which city he fixed his head quarters early in January, 1827. In a short time his presence restored order in that part of the country, and he then returned to the capital. He now offered to resign his authority, but the legislative body refused to receive his resignation. There was, however, a strong minority in favour of accepting his offer.

While one part of the Colombians carried this hatred of control to such a pitch, that they deemed every legal restraint an act of tyranny, another part was of opinion that the country would always be exposed to faction and bloodshed, if the ruler of the state were not clothed with more efficient authority to repress the disturbers of the public tranquillity. The latter party, therefore, proposed and carried a motion in the legislative body, that a national assembly should be summoned to deliberate on the propriety of revising the constitution. It met in April, 1828, and decided that a revision was necessary; but the ultra-republican party in it displayed such violence, that the other party seceded; and, as the number of members who remained were too few to act, the assembly was broken up. The constitution being thus virtually abolished, it was to be feared that anarchy would ensue unless some remedy were provided. In this emergency, numerous addresses from cities and provinces were presented to Bolivar, entreating him to come forward and save the state. He consented to take upon him a species of dictatorship, with the title of President Liberator, issued a kind of temporary charter, and ordered that another national assembly should meet in January, 1830, to make the first constitutional arrangements. He had not held office a month, before he narrowly escaped being the victim of an ultra-republican conspiracy, in which Vice-president Santander, General Padilla, and several other eminent individuals were implicated. His dwelling was attacked in the night, and the sentinels were murdered, and he himself with difficulty escaped, by leaping from the balcony into the street, at the moment when the assassins were breaking into his chamber.

Assassination having failed, insurrection was resorted to. In the autumn of 1829, the standard of revolt was raised by General Cordova, in the province of Antioquia. He was, however, speedily defeated, and fell on the field of battle. This outbreak was but just quelled, when an event occurred of far weightier importance; the whole Venezuelan portion of the confederacy announced its resolution to form itself into a separate republic, and General Paez was nominated president. Such was the situation of affairs when, in January 1830, the congress assembled at Bogota. Bolivar was by this time become weary of the calumny and ingratitude with which his services had been repaid; and, accordingly, his first step, as soon as the congress had met, was to declare that he abdicated the supreme power, and that no consideration whatever should induce him to accept the future guidance of the republic. When the congress had finished its constitutional labour, it was disposed to place him at the head of the new system; but he again expressed his positive resolve not to bear the burden; adding that, for the good of his country, he was determined to exile himself to Europe. The presidency was therefore conferred upon Joachim Mosquera, a man of probity and talent, who was then living in retirement. He accepted the dignity with regret, and soon resigned it in disgust. Bolivar was once more looked up to by numbers; but, had he been disposed, which he was not, to resume the sway, it would have been impossible for

him to do so. He was sinking under the effects of toil, anxiety, and a spirit wounded by ingratitude; and he expired at Santa Marta, in the 48th year of his age, on the 17th of December, 1830. A week before his decease, he addressed to the Colombians a letter in which, with mingled dignity and pathos, he complained of the slanders which had been heaped upon him, and prayed for the welfare of that thankless country which he had delivered from the yoke of Spain.

Happily for the interests of humanity and freedom, the separation of Colombia into three republics was peaceably accomplished; the only subject of debate being how much of the Colombian debt should be borne by each of the states. The republics themselves have, comparatively speaking, been in a tolerably tranquil state. The republic of the Equator has suffered the most from intestine commotion, it having, for a considerable period, been the scene of a sanguinary contest between competitors for the presidency. In Venezuela, too, an attempt to overthrow the government was made in 1835, but it was defeated by the promptitude and energy of General Paez. The conspiracy, in this case, was entirely the work of the discontented soldiery. Much has been done, by the representative bodies, to promote the prosperity of their constituents. It must be mentioned, to the honour of Venezuela, that religious toleration has been established in that republic, by an act of its legislature.

PERU.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1680			3½. and 21½. S. lat.
Breadth, 450 to 1000	between		65. and 78. W. long.

Containing 485,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES.—Peru is bounded by the Pacific, on the west; on the south and south-west by Bolivia; by the republic of Ecuador, on the north; and, on the east, by Brazil. It is divided into the departments of Truxillo, Junin, Lima, Ayacucho, Cuzco, Puno, and Arequipa, each of which is subdivided into several provinces, making fifty-nine in the whole.

MOUNTAINS—RIVERS—LAKES.—The Andes partly belong to this state; but that portion of the chain which appears in Peru has no elevation equal to Chimboraço. On a rough estimate, the mountainous part may be considered as occupying more than half of the country. In the Andes rise many rivers; and Peru claims the source of that noble stream, to which a Spanish officer, merely from seeing a few armed women on its banks, absurdly gave the appellation of the river of the Amazons. It is formed by two large rivers—the Tunguragua (which issues from the lake Lauricocha) and the Ucayal. It receives, in its sinuous course, more than 150 tributary streams, and, after a progress of above 3500 miles, falls into the Atlantic by a great number of channels. It has been navigated to its confluence with the Pachitea, between eight and nine degrees of southern latitude, where its current is gentle; and by the Rio Negro, one of its branches, it communicates with the Cassiquiari, which runs into the Orinoco. Its waters abound with alligators, and its banks, in many places, are covered with woods, the haunts of wild beasts. Of the streams which flow into the river of Amazons, the principal is that which is called Madera, from the abundance of wood on its banks, and is composed of several rivers issuing from the eastern slope of the Andes, on the borders of Peru. The principal lakes are those of Titicaca, Chinchaicocha, and Parinacochas: the latter has brackish water, and is said to be 16,000 feet above the sea.

METALS—MINERALS.—There are mines of gold in different parts: silver, too, is found in abundance in various provinces; and, as the old mines decay, new ones are opened. Peru also produces quicksilver; an article which will appear to be of immense value, if we consider the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. A very productive mine of this semi-metal is that of Huancavelica, where it is found in a whitish mass, resembling bricks ill-burned. In Peru likewise is found the remarkable substance called platina, which may be considered as an eighth metal, and may almost vie with gold itself.

The chief mineral wealth of Peru is in the mountains which surround Pasco. Silver is often found almost pure in this favoured spot, which also affords copper, iron, and tin; and there are mines of gold about five leagues from the town. Excellent coal may be found in the same neighbourhood; and this is a great advantage when steam-engines are employed in the operations of mining. To the working of the silver mines a stop was put some years ago by a royalist general, who destroyed the expensive machinery, because it belonged to a friend of the popular cause; but, after the liberation of the country from despotism, the concern devolved to British capitalists.

CLIMATE—SOIL—PRODUCE.—Though Peru

in the torrid zone, yet, having on one South Sea, and on the other the great the Andes, it is not so hot as other countries. The sky too, which is r cloudy, defends it from the direct he sun. In the part called the Valles rains; but this defect is sufficiently by a soft dew which falls gradually ght on the ground, and so refreshes ts and grass, as to occasion, in many he greatest fertility. In the Mon- the contrary, it rains almost daily, x months, and, a part of the time, in

Along the coast is generally a dry, and, except by the banks of rivers, e soil is very fertile, as are all the low in the inland parts. This country fruits peculiar to the climate, beside those which thrive in Europe. The of maize, of pimento, and cotton, e Spaniards found already established, been neglected; and wheat, barley, potatoes, sugar, as also the olive and ive due attention. The algarroba, or e, is found particularly useful: its taining seeds like beans, furnish goats atary food; afford, by infusion and tion, a palatable liquor; and, when supply the common people with tole- es. An important article in the com- this country is the Peruvian bark. which produce it grow in the moun- arts of Peru. The best bark is always the high and rocky grounds; the ch bears it is about the size of a ee, and has a kind of fruit resembling nd; but it is only the bark that has cellent qualities which render it so intermitting fevers, and other dis- which daily experience extends the on of it. A vegetable production of a ent kind is the destructive coca, a from four to eight feet high, the leaf is used as a stimulant narcotic by the s, and ultimately produces effects so to throw entirely into the shade those sult from the immoderate addiction to his malignant plant is extensively l, and a large revenue is derived

LS.—The principal animals peculiar to the lama, vicuna, and guanaco. The a small head, resembling that of a d a sheep at the same time. It is e size of a stag: its upper lip is cleft of a hare, through which, when en- spits a kind of venomous juice. The the lama is agreeable and salutary; nimal is not only useful in affording d of wool and food, but also as a beast n. It can endure amazing fatigue, l over the steepest mountains with a den. It feeds sparingly, and rarely The vicuna is smaller and swifter lama, and produces wool still finer in In the vicuna is found the bezoar, regarded as a specific against poison. The guanaco is much larger than the lama, and its wool is long and harsh; but in shape they are nearly alike.

Among the feathered part of the creation in Peru, the condor is most conspicuous. The flight of this bird is majestic: it rises with an almost imperceptible tremulous motion of the wings, and descends in the same manner: it pounces on its prey, and bears it off to a neighbouring hill: if the lamb or other animal be too large, the bird will feed on it until it is unable to fly; the villagers then hunt it, and kill it with clubs.

NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL CURIOSITIES.—Among the former may be classed the volcanoes of the Andes, which, from the midst of immense heaps of snow, pour forth torrents of fiery matter and clouds of smoke. Here are streams which, in their course, cover whatever they pass over with a stony incrustation; and fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purposes. Among the artificial curiosities may justly be reckoned a work, conceived and carried on by our own countrymen. Near to the Guallillas Pass, in crossing the Western Cordilleras, at an elevation of 14,700 feet, Mr. Pentland, the British consul, examined the gigantic undertaking of some Englishmen, by which the whole stream of the Uchusuma, now flowing in a contrary direction, will be made to enter into a canal formed for the purpose, at about 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, the extent of the canal being 40,000 yards —nearly 23 miles—before it reaches the culminating point of the Andes, over which it is to pass, on its way into the valley of Tacna, for the purpose of irrigating an extent of territory on the western slope, to which nothing has been denied by nature but a competent supply of water.

ANTIQUITIES.—About 15 miles from Caxamarca are the remains of an old town, built long before the conquest of the country. Many of the houses are yet entire. They are constructed of stone; some consist of seven tiers of rooms; and on the summit of a rocky hill are curious ruins, apparently of a palace or fortress. The extraction of such masses of stone from the quarries, without machinery, and the shaping of them without iron tools, argue some degree of skill and contrivance in the builders.

Near Patavilca, ruins are visible to a great extent, supposed to have been the fortified palace of one of the royal vassals of the Incas. The chief building stood on an eminence, and the walls were continued to the foot of it, like regular circumvallations.

CHIEF TOWNS—POPULATION—MANNERS.—The situation of Lima, the capital, in a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by Pizarro as the most proper for a city. The town was flourishing, when a most tremendous earthquake, in 1746, laid three-fourths of it level

by one of the incas, with some degree of skill. The houses in general are constructed of the same material, and are of fine proportions. The cathedral is large, handsome, and rich; and the other public buildings have an air of dignity and splendour. The town is occupied by 25,500 persons, of whom the majority sprang from the old race. These are very industrious and skilful in the manufacture of cloth and other articles; and many of them excel in painting, some of their productions being admired even in Italy.

Truxillo was founded by Pizarro. It is neatly and regularly built; but the houses are low, and the streets, being unpaved, are generally in a very dirty state. The cathedral is handsome, and opposite to it is the bishop's palace, which is fitted up in a curious style of antique magnificence. The population is about 9000, and the town has a considerable trade.

Caxamarca contains about 7000 inhabitants, and has manufactures of hardware and woollen cloth. The town is pleasantly situated in a fertile valley; the climate is fine; and kindness, hospitality, and innocent amusements, characterise the citizens.

Lambayeque, with 10,000 inhabitants, carries on a flourishing trade. The inhabitants supply their neighbours, and also distant traders, with excellent leather made from the skins of goats, counterpanes, tablecloths, sailcloth, and rush hats.

CONSTITUTION, &c.—By the last constitution —that of 1828—the executive power is exercised by a president, who is elected by the people, and holds office for four years. He has a ministry, selected by himself, and a council of state, chosen by the legislature. The legislative body is elected by the people, and consists of a senate and house of representatives. The separate governments regulate their public and ecclesiastical affairs, without the intervention of the central government, and likewise frame laws for their own provinces; but these laws must be sanctioned by the general legislature before they can be executed.

COMMERCE.—Under proper regulations, the trade of a country so highly favoured by nature would be prosperous and lucrative; and, indeed, it is now increasing. The cotton-plant grows spontaneously in some parts, and will soon furnish a valuable article of exportation. Wool might be more liberally exported than it now is; and a much greater quantity of flax might be raised with little difficulty. The chocolate-nuts and coffee-berries are chiefly used at home, when it would be easy to afford copious supplies to other nations or communities. Coarse linen and cotton goods are manufactured in Peru; but, as the higher and middle classes in the towns are very fond of dress, they receive all fine articles of that description from Europe.

HISTORY. — When the Spaniards had subdued Peru, they found it no difficult task to keep the natives in strict subjection. A small military force generally sufficed for that purpose. The colonists treated the conquered tribes with contempt, and studiously checked their advancement. The progress of such a government furnishes few incidents to the historian, as everything proceeds in a uniform tenor. At length, however, the horizon of Peru exhibited a cloudy aspect. In 1781, Rupac Amaro, asserting that he descended from the incas, erected among the mountains the standard of revolt. The civil war which thus arose continued for two years; and then, after having reduced many considerable districts, the rebel chief was taken with his family, and punished with torture and with death. From that time, the country remained undisturbed, until Spain was convulsed by the ambition of Napoleon. The viceroy of Peru then exerted all his influence to check that zeal for liberty which animated the generality of the creoles, and even sent troops to chastise the revolters of Chilé. In the mean time, an insurrection broke out at Cusco, but it was soon quelled. The arrogance of the royalists rose or fell according to the intelligence which was received from Chilé. At length, in 1820, the appearance of Lord Cochrane, near Callao, as the commander of a Chilean fleet, diffused a great alarm among that party at Lima, and his operations were so spirited, that the advocates for a revolution conceived strong hopes of success. The viceroy Pesuela was compelled to relinquish his authority; but the troops that deposed him were so far from being of the popular party, that they nominated a new governor, better qualified for maintaining the interest of Spain. San Martin, the Chilean commander, now prepared to "break those chains which Pizarro, three hundred years before, had forged with his blood-stained hands." Having defeated the royal troops, the Chileans desisted from hostility, leaving the citizens of Lima to organize a new government. This measure was effected in July, 1821. Peru was declared to be free and independent; but a considerable time elapsed before a regular administration was formed. In the meantime, San Martin acted as protector, while the royalists retained possession of Callao and some other stations. In 1822, the protector and the council of state ordered that deputies should be elected for the purpose of framing a constitution. The troops being still continued, the Chilean troops were attacked by the enemies of freedom, and much loss was sustained. The people were discontented; and, as Monteagudo, a minister employed by San Martin, had conducted himself in a very impolitic and arbitrary manner, the municipality exiled him. The congress, however, complimented the protector with a vote of thanks, and he returned into Chile, while Lord Cochrane, who was honoured in a similar mode, embarked for Brazil, to command the navy of that empire. Disputes having arisen between the congress and the republican army, the people loudly

Atacama, and is little more than a barren waste.

Rivers—Lakes.—The principal rivers are the Pilcomayo, the Mamore, the Beri, and the Ubal. The first is a tributary of the Rio Plata; the others, and the numerous streams which join them, form the Madera, which falls into the Amazons. The Desaguedero pours its waters into the lake of Titicaca, a part of which is in this republic; and there are also several unexamined lakes in the great longitudinal valley, to the east of the Andes.

Climate — Soil — Produce.—The whole eastern part of Bolivia, which forms an extensive plain, 200 miles by 700 miles, is generally unhealthy, in consequence of the excessive humidity from the lakes and inundations, acted upon by the heat which lasts throughout the year. In the valley of the Desaguedero, which has an elevation of 13,000 feet, neither heat nor cold is extreme, except with respect to the latter, in the nights from May to November, which is the winter season. During the summer season it rains nearly every day. Thunder and hail storms are also peculiarly severe. On the coast, which is mostly a desert, no rain ever falls, and the land is consequently sterile. In many parts of Bolivia, however, the soil has a considerable degree of fertility. The eastern portion, though unhealthy, is the most capable of being profitably cultivated. In some districts all the grains and fruits of Europe are produced; in others, those of the tropical countries. Cocoa, sarsaparilla, vanilla, copaiva balsam, caoutchouc, indigo, cotton, Jesuits' bark, and a species of cinnamon, are among the Bolivian products; and, for shipbuilding and other purposes, the finest timber abounds.

Animals.—The wild animals are the agua, leopard, tapir, and various species of monkey. Horned cattle, horses, asses, and mules are plentiful, as are likewise guanacoes, vicunas, and lamas; but the heat of the climate is not equally favourable to sheep.

Metals.—Gold, silver, and copper, are the principal metals of Bolivia. The first is brought down, sometimes in large pieces, by all the rivers that descend from the eastern declivity of the eastern Cordillera, but especially by the river Tipuani. The silver mines of Potosi were once reckoned the richest in the world; but they are so no longer. There are still rich mines in other places. Copper abounds near the surface in some spots, and the ore is very rich; but it cannot be turned to advantage, its distance from the coast rendering the expense of transport too great. It sometimes occurs in enormous masses, crystallised in perfect cubes. Iron, lead, and tin exist, but are not worked.

Chief Towns.—Chuquisaca, which is the seat of the Bolivian government, was formerly called Charcas, or La Plata. It is situated in a delightful valley, and has about 25,000 inhabitants, a fine cathedral, a university, and several good buildings. Potosi, which, two centuries ago, had 100,000 inhabitants, has now only about 30,000. It stands nearly 13,000 feet above the sea level, and its streets are narrow and steep. La Paz has a population of about 20,000 souls, and is the most commercial town in the republic. Oropesa, which has considerable manufactures of cotton and glass, has 16,000 inhabitants. The remaining towns are of much smaller size.

Constitution.—By the constitution which Bolivar established, the executive power was exercised by a president, who held his office for life. The legislature consisted of three bodies —a senate, tribunes, and censors. This order of things was soon after abolished, and the Bolivian constitution was assimilated to that of Peru.

History.—It has already been stated, that Bolivia, or Upper Peru, was, at the period of the revolution, a part of the viceroyalty of La Plata, and consequently might have been expected to form one of the confederated republics into which that viceroyalty was ultimately divided. But its remoteness, and other circumstances, induced the La Platans to relinquish all claim upon it, and allow it to become an independent republic. In gratitude to Bolivar, the deliverer of Peru, his name was given to the new republic, and a constitution drawn up by him was adopted, and he was appointed perpetual protector of the state. When, in 1827, Bolivar was under the necessity of returning to Colombia, General Sucre was nominated president of Bolivia. The subsequent history of Bolivia is closely connected with that of Peru, and has already been given under the head of the latter country.

CHILÉ.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1170	between	25. and 43. S. lat.
Breadth, 100 to 200		70. and 75. W. long.

Containing 170,000 square miles.

Boundaries—Divisions.—Chilé is bounded by Bolivia, on the north; La Plata, on the east; Patagonia, on the south; and the Pacific Ocean, on the west. It is divided into eight provinces—Coquimbo, Aconcagua, Santiago, Colchagua, Maule, Concepcion, Valdivia, and

hiloe. Valdivia is also called Araucania, and he greatest part of it is still possessed by the rauconians.

Rivers—Lakes.—The chief rivers are the iobio, which is the largest, and has a course f 200 miles, the Callacalla, the Maule, the olpen, the Maypu, and the Itata; few of them re navigable to any distance beyond their ouths. There are many small streams, which re serviceable for irrigation.

The principal lakes are those of Tagatagua nd Paren; beside which, there are some salt-ater lakes, that have a communication with he sea for a part of the year. In stormy wea-her the sea forces a way through them, and eaves them full of fish; but in the hot season he water congeals, leaving a crust of fine white alt a foot thick.

Metals—Minerals.—Gold, silver, copper, in, quicksilver, iron, and lead, are found in his country. The richest silver mines are in he desert region between the valleys of opiapo and Huasco. Copper also abounds here. In one district copper is found in a tate of combination with zinc, so as to form a atural brass; and Molina supposes that this ncommon mixture is the effect of subter-aneous fire. Precious stones, such as the gate, jasper, ruby, and sapphire, are occa-ionally found, and fine quarries of marble are ery common. On the northern banks of the iobio there are extensive beds of coal.

Climate—Soil—Produce.—The climate of ourse varies considerably in a country which preads over 18 degrees of latitude; but, for he most part, it is a medium between the in-ense heat of the torrid and the piercing cold f the frigid zone. From the beginning of the pring to the autumn, there is a constant suc-ession of fine weather; and the rains follow uring four months, in the southern parts of he country, but not without intermission. In he northern districts very little rain falls, but he want of it is supplied by the abundance f dew. There are spots in this part where ot a drop of rain falls for several years. hunder is scarcely known, except on the ountains. Slight earthquakes are frequently elt, and more dangerous shocks sometimes ecur.

The soil is remarkable for its fertility; which, owever, is not equal throughout the country, eing more observable at a distance from the ea. In the valleys near the Andes, vegetation s particularly luxuriant and vigorous, and the nimals are larger and stronger than in the ther parts of Chilé. Wheat, barley, and other orts of grain, thrive exceedingly; maize is rown only in the northern districts; the ugar-cane is very productive, the vine and he tobacco-plant grow wild, and various spe-ies of fruit are abundant and delicious. Ex-ensive forests are spread over the country.

Animals.—The horses of this country are in igh estimation, and prodigious numbers of xen, goats, and sheep, are fattened in the luxuriant pastures. Turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry, are found in the same pro-fusion. The coasts abound with various kinds of excellent fish; there are also many whales and seals.

Population—Inhabitants—Manners.—The population of Chilé can only be guessed at, no census of it having been taken. Ten years ago it was estimated at 1,200,000; and, as cir-cumstances have since been favourable to its increase, it is now, perhaps, not less than 1,500,000, exclusive of the unconquered natives, whose numbers are not known. The latter are the Araucanians, the descendants of those brave men who scorned submission when liberty could be maintained by arms. They occupy the country to the south of Valdivia. Their four territorial divisions are governed by four chieftains, who hold provincial assem-blies; but, when affairs of general concern demand attention, a council is convoked, con-sisting of deputies from each division. They have no written laws—only traditional rules for the administration of justice and the pro-tection of property. They practise both agri-culture and pasturage; and, in all work of the former kind, they are greatly assisted by the women, over whom they exercise a high degree of authority. Their complexions are between a red and a brown hue; they are not tall, but robust and well formed, and have a bold and manly, if not a pleasing aspect. A face nearly round, with scarcely any beard, small and lively eyes, a flattish nose, well-shaped legs, small and flat feet, are the usual appendages to their persons. The men wear a woollen shirt, doublet, tight small-clothes, and a pon-cho or mantle, frequently fringed and orna-mented, reaching to the knees. A blue woollen gown without sleeves, a short mantle, a girdle, and a variety of silver ornaments, which even the poorest can obtain, compose the attire of the women. Towns being considered as pri-sons, their habitations are widely scattered over the country; and in these they exercise all the kindness of hospitality. Polygamy being a general custom, the houses are divided into as many rooms as there are wives in the family; and the competition for the husband's favour does not preclude mutual harmony. Feasting is very common, and fermented liquors are too agreeable to the men to allow them to be temperate. Not only when they are intoxicated, but at all other times, they are confident and presumptuous, and disposed to treat persons of a different race or nation with supercilious contempt. They are not destitute of a sense of religion, for they believe in the existence of a Supreme Being, and the immor-tality of the soul; but they mingle with their creed all the absurdity of superstition, for they attend to dreams and omens, give credit to witchcraft, and fancy that the spirits of the dead visit the living.

Of the creoles of Chilé Mr. Myers sneeringly says, "Though they may be said to possess in

no degree a single virtue, they have the credit of possessing fewer vices than other creoles: there is a passiveness, an evenness about them, approaching to the Chinese, whom they strongly resemble in many respects. Even in their physiognomy they have the broad low forehead and contracted eyes; they have the same cunning, the same egotism, and the same disposition to petty theft. They are remarkable, too, for extreme patience and endurance under privations; they can seldom be moved to passion, and are most provokingly unfeeling." Of their learning or acquired knowledge he speaks with the same contempt. "Education can scarcely be said to exist among them. In the country parts schools are absolutely unknown, and, even in the capital, instruction is at the lowest ebb. The egotism and self-conceit of the Chilenos are proportioned to their ignorance, and they pride themselves in not requiring the knowledge of books: they have indeed scarcely any; nor can they endure the trouble of reading those which they have." This picture is, however exaggerated. Mr. Stevenson and Captain Hall, men competent to form a correct judgment, speak of the Chilenos in more candid and liberal terms.

CHIEF TOWNS.—Santiago is the seat of the new government, as it was of the old. It is situated on the river Mapocho, which is a tributary stream of the Maypu. It is built with great neatness and regularity, and the houses, though low, are commodious. Those of the superior inhabitants encompass a square court, and have in the front an ornamented porch, with a stable and coach-house on its two sides. Behind almost every house is a garden, beyond which runs a clear rapid stream. Santiago possesses a university. The cathedral, which is a handsome building, was erected by native workmen, under the superintendence of an English architect. The population is about 40,000.

The port of Santiago is Valparaiso, which has 15,000 inhabitants. Before the earthquake, Valparaiso was partly built on a narrow strip of land, between cliffs and the sea; another part had straggled up the sides of the numerous ravines which intersect the hills; a suburb, called the Almond Grove, larger than the town itself, was spread over a low sandy plain, near a semicircular bay; and the population seemed to be thriving in apparent ease and comfort. On the 19th of November, 1823, an earthquake irreparably damaged a great part of the town: but it is said that, amidst the scene of ruin, few of the inhabitants lost their lives.

The city of Concepcion, in the province of the same name, is pleasantly situated, and has a tolerable harbour; but, from the effect of revolutionary convulsions, and especially of the earthquake in 1835, it is now scarcely more than a mass of ruins. Its remaining inhabitants are still friendly and hospitable, lively in their manners, and gay in their apparel.

Valdivia is one of the best ports on the western coast of South America, and also one of the strongest both by nature and art. The place was taken from the royalists by Lord Cochrane, in 1820. The province to which it belongs is chiefly peopled by the old race. Missions are formed, as in California, for the conversion of the tribes to Christianity; but some of the caciques, or chieftains, refuse to admit into their districts either missionaries or civil officers.

La Serena, or Coquimbo, capital of the province of Coquimbo, has about 3000 inhabitants, and one of the best harbours on the coast. Ballenar, in the same province, which has risen into prosperity from its silver mines, has 7000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE.—The chief trade of Chilé is carried on with Great Britain, the United States, and the new rulers of Peru and La Plata. The exports, beside gold, silver, and copper ore, are hemp, cordage, wheat, flour, jerked beef, tallow, hides, wine, and oil.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.—About the middle of the 15th century, Yupanqui, emperor of Peru, sent an army to attempt the conquest of Chilé; and it is said that the invaders subdued the country as far as the river Rapel, to the south-west of Santiago. In 1535, Diego Almagro extended the sway of the Spaniards over a considerable part of the country, and another portion was overrun by Pizarro; but the establishment of the Spanish colony was reserved for Valdivia, the founder of the city which bears his name. The Araucanians, though they did not act with that energy which could save the whole country from a foreign yoke, retained many districts; and, while they harassed their enemies with desultory warfare, avoided complete subjugation. Their population suffered from hostilities, but they compelled even the Spaniards to respect them, and leave them independent.

After a long interval of colonial tranquillity, the example of Venezuela influenced the inhabitants of Chilé. The majority resolved, in 1810, to assert their pretensions to independence; and, when two parties had warmly contended for the pre-eminence, that which was conducted by Don Bernardo O'Higgins, the descendant of an Hibernian family, obtained the chief power. In 1814, the insurgents were defeated at Rancagua, and fled over the Andes in dismay; yet their party continued to resist the abettors of the old system. The triumph of Spain was of short duration. In 1817, General San Martin crossed the Andes with an army from La Plata, and the battles of Chacabuco and Maypu, in February, 1817, and May, 1818, accomplished the final overthrow of Spanish domination. In the naval operations, a conspicuous part was borne by Lord Cochrane. Like all the other new republics, Chilé has been disturbed by contending factions; but a narrative of these intestine broils would afford little amusement or instruction to the reader. At present the country appears to be

in a comparatively tranquil state. The severest calamity which it has suffered, has been from a tremendous earthquake, by which, in 1835, Concepcion, Talcuahana, and other towns, were reduced to a heap of ruins. The Chilean military expeditions have already been mentioned under the heads of "Peru" and "Bolivia." Chilé has a form of government somewhat resembling that of the United States of America. The executive power is exercised by a supreme director. The legislative functions are performed by a senate and a house of representatives. The senate is not to consist of more than twenty members; and the representative body is composed of one deputy for every 15,000 inhabitants. Since the establishment of the republic, the commerce of Chilé has greatly increased; the annual imports amount to 1,500,000, of which one-half is from England. The traffic with the American states is also considerable; and wheat and flour are occasionally sent to our settlements in Australia. A steam-boat communication has been established with the shores of Chilé.

UNITED STATES OF THE RIO DE LA PLATA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length,	1320	between	14. and 37. S. lat.
Breadth,	620		56. and 70. W. long.

Containing 726,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES — DIVISIONS.—This country, which is sometimes called the Argentine Republic, though it is, in fact, an assemblage of independent and even hostile states, is bounded by Brazil and Bolivia, on the north; by Brazil and the Atlantic, on the east; by Patagonia, on the south; and by Chilé and Bolivia, on the west. It is divided into the following sixteen republics: — Buenos Ayres, Uruguay, Entre Rios, Corrientes, Missiones, Paraguay, Santa Fé, Cordova, San Luis, Mendoza, San Juan, Rioja, Catamarca, Santiago, Tucuman, and Salta. Of these republics, those of Paraguay, Buenos Ayres, and Uruguay appear to be by far the most populous; but that of Buenos Ayres stands first in point of political importance.

RIVERS AND LAKES.—Not only many small rivers flow through this state, but it is also watered by three principal ones, the Paraguay, Uruguay, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or River of Silver. This stream has a course of about 1700 miles, and is remarkable for its breadth at its mouth. It falls into the South Atlantic, between the Capes St. Anthony and St. Mary, which are 130 miles apart from each other; and at Monte Video, a fortified town above 90 miles distant from the sea, the land of either shore cannot be seen from a vessel in the middle of the channel. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, that of Xarayes, is sometimes 250 miles in length, when the immense plain to the eastward of the Andes has been inundated by the mountain rivulets.

CLIMATE — SOIL — PRODUCE — FACE OF THE COUNTRY.—The climate is in some parts extremely hot, in others temperate and pleasant. The soil is very fertile, producing cotton in great quantities, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruit; and in the rich pastures are bred such herds of cattle, that the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcasses being given into the bargain.

The great plains, or pampas, between La Plata and the mountains, form a remarkable feature in the face of the country, of which they occupy about five-sixths. They extend, says Captain Head, about 900 miles from east to west, and may be divided (at least, in the lower latitudes) into three regions—one of clover and thistles, one of long grass without weeds, and one of low trees and shrubs, growing in regular order. The second and third divisions have nearly the same appearance throughout the year; but the first region varies with the seasons. In the winter, the clover is rich and strong, and the thistles are thriving: in the spring, the former plants have vanished, and the latter are luxuriantly spreading: early in the summer, the thistles have shot up into a wood, to the height of nine or ten feet, and their stems are so close that they appear like a natural fortification; but, before the end of that season, they wither, and are blown down by the violent wind, and clover again covers the earth. Wild horses, asses, and dogs abound, as well as ordinary cattle, and the bulls and horses are caught in a peculiar manner. A kind of rope is made of strips of untanned hide, having a slip-knot at one end, the other extremity being fastened by an eye and button to a ring in a strong surcingle, or hide-belt, bound tightly round a tame horse; and the noose is thrown with great dexterity over the wild animal, so that it cannot disentangle itself. This implement is called a lasso.

METALS.—The precious metals are not very abundant within the limits of the La Plata confederacy. In some places where they exist, local circumstances render it impossible to carry on mining operations. In the republic of San Juan de la Frontera there are gold mines, which are worked on a small scale. Gold is

republic of Buenos Ayres has also had to sustain a war with France, which was at last put an end to by the mediation of Great Britain. To give a narrative of all the sanguinary and inglorious scenes to which ambition and faction have given rise would be a waste of time and space. Paraguay, under the dictatorship of Francia, who died recently, is the only one of the states which has not been lacerated by civil discord. The union of the republics, in fact, exists no longer, each of them acting as caprice or interest dictates. Rosas is at present the ruler of Buenos Ayres, which is the most influential of the states.

PATAGONIA.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 1180	between	39. and 56. S. lat.
Breadth, 200 to 420		64. and 76. W. long.

Containing 276,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES.—On the north, Patagonia is separated from the Argentine republic by the river Cusu Leubre; on the east it has the Atlantic; on the south, the Antarctic Ocean; and on the west, the Pacific and the Chilean Andes.

Pigafetta, who accompanied Magellan in his voyage round the world, asserted that the natives of Patagonia were uncommonly large and tall; and Commodore Byron, who landed there in 1764, says, that one who appeared to be a chief "was of gigantic stature, and seemed to realize the tales of monsters in a human shape:" yet this man was under the height of seven feet, and therefore was not prodigiously tall, though his figure might be more broad and muscular than the general forms of those Europeans who attain the same height. He adds, that the stature of the shortest among five hundred of these barbarians did not appear to be less than six feet and a half. All wonders, however, gradually diminish till they reach a rational magnitude. It has recently been ascertained, that the average stature is about six feet or a trifle more. They wore skins with the hair inwards, and had no other clothing, except that a few of the number had something like a boot on each leg. The faces of both sexes were streaked with paint of various colours, which gave them an unpleasing appearance. They were mild rather than fierce in their demeanour, and seemed to invite the society of strangers. These are the inhabitants of the plains, who are divided into four tribes—the Chulian, who live near the Andes; the Moichas, in the interior; the Pehuelche, who dwell along the coast; and the Tehuelhet, who inhabit the plains near the Straits of Magellan. They lead a nomade life, are perpetually on horseback, and subsist by the chase of the wild cattle, and other animals. The Fuegians, on the contrary, who reside in the mountainous region, are a short race, whose stature varies from 4 feet 10 inches to 5 feet 6 inches, live almost wholly in their canoes, and derive their sustenance from fishing.

Some attempts have been made to form settlements on the coast, but they have all proved abortive. Fisheries have, however, been established, and have, in some seasons, been very productive. As the sand-banks abound with sea-elephants of the phoca genus, those traders who are desirous of procuring blubber send out boatmen with spears and fire-arms who make great havoc among those animals. The sea-lions are less molested, because they have very little fat; but the sea-wolves are attacked for the dark grey fur which they afford.

THE EMPIRE OF BRAZIL.

EXTENT AND SITUATION.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length, 2600	between	4. N. lat. & 32. S. lat.
Breadth, 2500		35. & 72. W. long.

Containing 2,800,000 square miles.

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.—Brazil is bounded, on the north, by French, Dutch, and English Guyana, and Venezuela; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the republic of Uruguay, on the south; and by La Plata, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and New Granada, on the west. It is divided into twenty provinces; namely, Rio Grande do Sul, or De San Pedro, Santa Catherina, San Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, Espiritu Santo, Bahia, Sergipe del Rey, Das Alagoas, Pernambuco, Parahyba do Norte, Rio Grande do Norte, Ciarà, Piauhy, Maranhão, Pará, Rio Negro, Solimoes, Matto Grosso, Goyas, and Minas Geraes.

METALS.—MINERALS.—Gold, diamonds, iron, lead, tin, and quicksilver, are among the productions of Brazil. Gold is found in the chan-

nels of rivers or in deep valleys; in some of which, where water appears, frequent excavations occur, made by the gold-washers, 60 or 70 feet wide, and 20 feet deep. At other times, they meet with gold almost immediately under the roots of the grass. It is generally found in a stratum of rounded pebbles and gravel, called cascalhao, resting upon the solid rock. Originally the common method was to open a square pit, until the workmen reached the cascalhao: this they broke up, and, placing it in a wooden vessel, broad at the top and narrow at the bottom, exposed it to running water, shaking it until the earth was washed away, and the metallic particles had all subsided. Lumps of gold were sometimes found, weighing seven or eight pounds; but these were insulated pieces, and the ground where they were discovered was not rich. All the first workings were in the beds of rivers, or in the table-grounds on their sides. In 1724, the method of mining was altered. Instead of opening pits, and carrying the cascalhao to the water, the miners conducted water to the mining ground, and, washing away the mould, broke up the cascalhao in pits, under a fall of the water, or exposed to the same action in wooden troughs. Early in the last century, there was a general complaint in Minas Geraes, that the ground was exhausted of its gold: but scientific men were, and still are of opinion, that only the surface of the earth had been scratched, and that the veins were mostly untouched. The mining was either in the beds of the streams or in the mountains. In process of time the rivers had changed their beds: the miners found that the primary beds were above the recent level: the next step was to the ground on the side of the stream. The first bed was easily worked, because little or no water remained there, and only the surface was to be removed. In the second step, wheels were often required to draw off the water: the new bed could only be worked by making a new cut, and diverting the stream. The wheel was a clumsy machine, which it was often necessary to remove, and its removal required the labour of at least fifty slaves for many hours. This was the only means used to save human labour, for not even a cart or hand-barrow was to be seen; the rubbish and the cascalhao were carried in troughs upon the heads of slaves, who in many instances used to climb up steep ascents, where inclined planes might have been formed with very little trouble. River-mining, however, being most easily and effectually performed, was the most common. The mountains at length began to tempt adventurers. The mode of working there is not by excavation, but by the open cut, laying the vein bare by clearing away the surface. This labour is immense, if water cannot be employed; and even when there is water, it is not always easy to direct it, nor will the nature of the cut always allow its use. When the miners found no cascalhao in the mountains, they suspected that the stones might contain gold; and, by breaking them with iron mallets, they often found this to be the case. When the gold is enveloped in earth or stone, each substance is pounded, and boiled with one-tenth of its weight of quicksilver; this forms an amalgam with the gold, and may be separated by pressure through bags of leather, and by subsequent distillation. So productive were the mines in the province of Minas Geraes, that, in little more than one hundred years, Villa Rica, the chief town, sent out of its smelting-house 2,000,000 lbs. of gold.

The Brazilian diamonds are chiefly procured in the mountainous district called Serra do Frio, in a stratum similar to that which contains gold; and sometimes both are found together. The substances which accompany diamonds, says Mr. Mawe, and are considered as good indications of them, are bright bean-like iron ore, a slaty flint-like substance of iron texture, black oxide of iron in great quantities, rounded bits of blue quartz, and yellow crystal. It is said that the number of diamonds sent to Lisbon during the first twenty years after the discovery of the mines in question, exceeded 1000 ounces in weight.

Topazes are found in abundance near Capao. Artificial hues are sometimes given to them by means of heat; but the natural colour of the stone is greyish, or bright yellow, or a medium between this and the carnation hue — very rarely dark-red. Many are large, clear, and brilliant; but some are found to be so flawed and imperfect in colour, that they are not worth being polished, and are thrown away

Climate, Rivers, Lakes, Soil, and Produce. — In the northern parts, which are situated near the centre of the torrid zone, the air of the lower tracts, near the banks of the Amazon river, is sultry and oppressive: but, even here, vegetation is kept in vigour by the humid atmosphere. In this division there is little distinction of seasons; the ground is constantly covered with flowers, the foliage is evergreen, and the abundant dews, the shade of the forests, and the agreeable coolness of the nights, are represented as giving the country the appearance of perpetual spring. Near the coast, the cooling effects of the trade-wind, after it has swept over the breadth of the Atlantic, are permanently experienced. In ascending toward the sources of the great rivers, the heat is allayed by the elevation of the ground; and, in many parts of the interior, fertile valleys are found, enjoying a temperate climate, where the vegetables of Europe are matured in the vicinity of those which are indigenous to a tropical soil. In some of the inland districts, indeed, the west wind, passing over vast marshy forests, is found unhealthy. The northern provinces, particularly in March and September, are subject to heavy rains, variable winds, tornadoes, and the utmost fury of the elements, while the southern

division of the country is blessed with a settled and temperate climate, and is particularly salubrious.

In our account of Peru, we have taken notice of the river of the Amazons. The largest river of Brazil that is unconnected either with that mighty stream or the Plata, is the Francisco, which, after running to the northward for a great distance along the great longitudinal valley at the foot of the Brazilian Andes, turns to the east, and falls into the Atlantic after a course of 850 miles. The La Plata is the great drain for all the central waters south of the tributary streams of the Amazons. The land which divides one of these great rivers from the other, attains its greatest height between 13 and 14 degrees of southern latitude; and here the Paraguay has its rise. This stream takes the name of the Rio de la Plata (River of Silver,) after it has received the Parana, which is formed by the accumulated waters of several extensive valleys. To the southward of the latter river is the Uruguay, which rushes into the Plata near Buenos Ayres. These three rivers have, in the course of ages, produced some of the most extensive alluvial plains which exist on the face of the globe. In the plain of the Amazons there are many lakes, some of which are of vast extent in the rainy season: that of Xarayes covers several thousand square miles in that season, and entirely disappears in the dry season.

Only a comparatively small part of this immense country is cultivated; but, where the soil has been explored and tried, it appears in general to be highly fertile. Even the sandy soil near the coast promotes the growth of the cocoa-tree to a greater thickness and height than that of India assumes. The wood from which the country derives its name is very hard and heavy, takes a high polish, affords a crimson dye, and is subservient to medicinal purposes: the tree to which it belongs is not lofty, but, at a short distance from the ground, spreads out a number of branches in a straggling manner. Various trees resembling the oak and larch, and many others which are useful for ship-building and cabinet-work, thrive remarkably. There is a species of palm-tree, which has long, serrated, lancet-formed leaves, composed of a multitude of fibres, almost equal to silk in fineness and in strength. The tea-plant is cultivated with success; the sugar-cane flourishes; and immense quantities of sugar are made: and, from the fine grapes which are produced, good wine might be made with proper care and attention. Maize, beans, and cassava, the ordinary food of the inferior people, are abundantly furnished; as are also yams and rice. The cotton-plant supplies the merchants with a good article of exportation: they also export hides to a large amount, tobacco, coffee, drugs, dye-woods, and other commodities, for which they receive all kinds of European manufactures, beside corn, wine, and oil.

Animals.—The woody parts o abound with wild beasts, amo most ferocious are the hyena, wolf, tiger-cat, and saratu, an bling a fox. Wild hogs are com do not particularly molest the largest quadruped is the tapir form like a hog, but grows to heifer: it is amphibious, and di tom of a lake or a pool, where it time without respiring. It is ti less, and is easily killed by the feed upon its flesh, which, they sa in taste from that of an ox. The mals are generally of the Eur having sprung from those whi duced by the first settlers. Of largest is the emu, the fiercest and the smallest is the humm parrots and maccaws of Brazil a and many other birds with bril haunt the fields and the forests. the most formidable is the bc which will so distend itself as young bull entire.

Chief Towns—Population. The capital of Brazil was San quently called Bahia. Its harl the finest in the world. The built on a high and steep rock, on one side, while a lake, formi invests it almost wholly, so as the sea, on the other. Its natur very strong, and it is well fortifie population exceeds 180,000 souls merce is very considerable.

The present capital is San Seb called Rio Janeiro. Its style of general mean, resembling that sion of Lisbon; but many parts a in a better style, and the recent are striking. When the late kir began to reside within its precir lation did not exceed 100,000: i than double that number. The c and other ports gave a stimulus the markets were better supplied fell more within the reach of the ple; white servants were more g and the black slaves were treate rative mildness and humanity. began to assume the appearance city: the idea of a colony seemec be entertained; and Portugal were, a province of Brazil.

The imperial palace is large, b tension to architectural beauty. churches are the cathedral, and Candeleria and S. Francisco de exchange and the theatre are f In some of the squares are foun with water by a noble aqueduct, and six miles long, built in imit which John V. erected near Lisb bour is large, secure, and commo trade of the town is particularl

ıll the produce of the southern pro-
ı shipped at this place; and the pro-
self supplies immense quantities of
ıd cotton.

ief town of the province of Pernam-
next in commercial importance to the
ıs which we have just mentioned. It
ends Olinda, built about the year 1535,
ife, erected by the Dutch under the
ent of Prince Maurice. The former
is finely situated, but is far from being
built or so populous as the latter.
rts contain an aggregate of about
rsons, of whom the whites nearly form
art.

or Gram Pará, formerly called Belem,
-built, populous, and flourishing city,
ıbably 30,000 inhabitants, situated in
ıe finest and most fertile provinces of
re. It has an extensive commerce; it
ıt only the outlet for the produce of
ountries on the Amazons and its tribu-
rs, but also the port through which
re forwarded to the very centre of
merica. Some of its inhabitants are
ip-builders; many are skilful in other
s of art; and the rest of the people
ıken off that indolence which marked
former years.

ty of San Paulo deserves notice, not
ause it is the oldest in Brazil, but for
ngth, activity, and enterprising spirit
ıale inhabitants, and the uncommon
nd gracefulness of the females. The
ideed, is not well built: nor does it
in point of trade; but the population
40,000, and ease, comfort, and gaiety,
o prevail.

population of the whole empire is
y estimated from 4,000,000 to 6,000,000,
ıs being included in the calculation, but
ndependent tribes, the number of which
sed to exceed two hundred, containing
,000,000 of persons. The Europeans
creoles do not bear the best characters;
are represented as proud and haughty
tment, insincere in conversation, and
gether honest in dealing; sometimes
penurious, at other times extravagantly
dissolute and unchaste; much more
show, state, and attendance, than of
sures of free society; extremely indo-
l disinclined to mental improvement,
ll those studies which require a length
and a steadiness of patience. Some of
ıh outlines of this portrait appear to
ın softened of late years; and there is
ıt which may be mentioned as credit-
heir characters: though they continue
ve-trade, they treat their slaves with
and suffer those degraded beings to
ı general, the comforts of life.

regard to their persons, the men have
the look of health nor of strength; and
nen, though pretty in their youth,
rom their secluded and indolent habits,
and frequently from early marriage, a disagreeable corpulence, and, which is a still worse defect, lose all their beauty before they reach the age of 25 years. The men dress chiefly in the European mode; and the ladies, particularly in the capital, also begin to follow our costume; but, in private, they are insufficiently and even immodestly clothed, appearing to their familiar friends with only a chemise, tied round the waist by the strings of a petticoat. Both sexes are attached to music, and the guitar is the favourite instrument, though the piano-forte is rising into vogue among the ladies. They are not very fond of theatrical amusements, and the drama is therefore in an unrefined state. Religious festivals and processions are more numerously attended, and an air of pious zeal is then exhibited. When the gentry appeared abroad, they caused themselves to be carried out in a kind of hammock, called serpentine, and were thus borne on the shoulders of negroes, by the help of a bamboo 12 or 14 feet long. Most of these hammocks were blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they had a velvet pillow, and a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried could not be seen, unless he wished to show himself, but might either lie down, or sit up leaning on his pillow. When he had a wish to be seen, he pulled the curtains aside, and saluted his friends whom he met: for they used to take pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and would even hold long conferences in them; but then the two slaves who carried them made use of a strong staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stuck fast in the ground, and rested the bamboo on two of these, until the conversation was concluded. Scarcely any man of fashion, or lady, would pass the streets without being carried in this manner; but this mode of conveyance is now giving way to the use of a cabriolet or chaise.

Many of the indigenous tribes of Brazil are not in full subjection to the Portuguese, against whom, in the inland parts, they occasionally rise with fierce animosity. Against one of the tribes in the eastern part of the empire the charge of cannibalism is still adduced, but it does not appear to be fully proved. The appellation of Botocudo has been given to this tribe by the Portuguese, in consequence of the strange habit of inserting, for ornament, a circular piece of wood in each ear and in the lower lip. These savages are strong and well-proportioned, and, though they have high cheek-bones, small eyes, and thick lips, have not such unpleasing countenances as many of the other tribes exhibit. They have strong, jet-black, shining hair; many eradicate the eye-brows and the beard, and the women are such determined enemies to hair, that they discard it entirely. The latter wear necklaces of hard berries, or the teeth of animals; and some of the chiefs wear a sort of feathered diadem. Every man attaches a knife to his

neck by a cord; and a bow and arrows are also among their ordinary implements. When they are engaged in hunting, they are capable of great physical exertion; but, at other times, they are remarkably indolent. When they associate with the civilized provincials, they will submit to the trouble of being clothed; but, in their own districts, they go entirely naked. They construct tolerable huts, but do not sleep in nets or hammocks, like most of the Brazilian tribes, being content with reposing on the ground, the bark of a tree supplying them with a rude bed. In a moral respect, they are not the worst of the tribes; and, however ferocious they may be, they are not wholly destitute of the feelings of domestic affection, of friendship, gratitude, or compassion. They bury their dead in or near a hut, and then abandon the spot. They attribute to the moon a wonder-working power in the system of nature, have a tradition of a general deluge, and believe in the existence and malignant practices of demons.

The Patachoes are as brave, but not so fierce, as the Botocudoes. They compose a numerous tribe of naked savages, rude and uncouth in their manners, and particularly unwilling to be on friendly terms with the provincials, with whom, however, they are glad to barter their trifling commodities for knives and red handkerchiefs.

In the province of Matto Grosso we find the Guaycurues, a powerful tribe, consisting of three divisions, hostile to each other. Three classes constitute the community—a species of noblesse, the subordinate warriors, and captives. The women are usually covered with a mantle of coloured cotton, which is fastened by a broad girdle, while the men have no other clothing than a belt of the same cloth. Many of the former encompass their necks, arms, and legs, with ornaments of silver or shells, and the latter wear feathers of various hues. The men are diligent in hunting, fishing, gathering honey and wild fruits, and in the manufacture of arms and canoes, while the females spin, make clothing, cords, and mats. Pasturage is preferred to agriculture, which, indeed, they despise. To avoid the trouble consequent on a large family, not only recourse is had to the means of procuring abortion, but even the guilt of infanticide is contracted.

While the Guaycurues chiefly dwell in the open country, the woods, which border on various streams flowing into the Parana, are inhabited by the Cahans, a half-civilized tribe, supposed to be the descendants of the people who were converted and enslaved by the Jesuits of Paraguay. They still have some practices bordering on barbarism, but retain a sense of religion and morality.

History and Government.—A Spaniard named Pinzon, who accompanied Columbus on his first voyage, crossed the equator in 1500, and reached Brazil, to the southward of Pernambuco. He took formal possession of the country, but did not make any settlement. In the same year, Cabral, who was sent from Portugal to India for the purposes of conquest and colonisation, sailed so far to the westward, to avoid the calms near the African coast, that he unexpectedly found himself on the shores of South America. The place where he landed he denominated Porto Seguro; but it is now, in honour of him, called Cabralia. Americo Vespuccio afterwards disembarked, and commenced a friendly intercourse with the natives, whom he soon found to be cannibals. A settlement was formed in 1503; but the hostilities of the natives checked its progress, and it was not till 1549 that a regular plan of colonization took place under the auspices of John III. Thomas de Souza, being then appointed governor-general, was ordered to build and fortify a city, which was to be called San Salvador, and this he performed near the Bay of All Saints. The colonists, at first, met with some interruption from the king of Spain, who considered all of South America as his. It was at length agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country between the rivers Amazon and Plata. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies, but were expelled by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till 1578, when they received one of those severe blows which generally decide the fate of kingdoms. Don Sebastian lost his life in an expedition against the Moors; and by that event the Portuguese lost their independence, and became the subjects of his Catholic majesty. The Dutch, soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, flushed with the juvenile ardour of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into their remotest territories, and became rich, powerful, and formidable, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the Portuguese possessions; took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brazil, where they reduced seven of the captainships or provinces, and would have subdued the rest, if their career had not been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered troops. The Dutch were, about 1654, entirely driven out of Brazil; but their West India Company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to renounce their interest in that territory.

From that time to the year 1807, nothing particular occurred in the history of Brazil: but, as the ambition of Napoleon then menaced Portugal with subjugation, the regent (afterwards John VI.) adopted the measure, which had been often suggested, of retiring with his court beyond the Atlantic, to a country which his enemies would be obliged to leave unassailed. Having collected his ships of war, he bade adieu to Europe, and, on his arrival at San Salvador, was received with the loudest

is of joy. Transferring to Rio Ja- dignity of the capital, he resided in or some years, and improved by judi- lations the state of the country. In vated Brazil to the rank of a kingdom, ed to be more interested in its pros- n in that of his old realm; but, when ition had broken out in Portugal, he ed, in 1821, to return to Lisbon. The were now so aware of their conse- d power, that they resolved to shake endance on Portugal; and, when the , Don Pedro, acted as viceroy, they to resist the designs of the popular Lisbon, who hoped to reclaim them l subjection. The prince was re- Europe, but refused to quit Brazil, rred with the people in sending away guese troops. It was the general a representative government should ed in the new kingdom, and a decree fore promulgated by the prince for n of deputies. Being menaced with e Portuguese, the leading Brazilians all political connexion with the untry, and even conferred the impe- y on Don Pedro, who bound himself defend with his sword the country xpected constitution. This settle- wever, was not universally approved, nany wished for a republic. Intes- motions now arose: some of the urches of San Salvador were stripped plate by the malcontent party, and chest was carried off. Lord Coch- had been appointed admiral of Bra- epted several ships in their retreat ay, but had no opportunity of reco- spoils of the city. Para was, at the , convulsed with all the acrimony of i. Three parties contended for pre- —the republicans, the adherents of o, and the friends of Portugal. Many ided by a military force, committed trages in the town, until a body of letached by Lord Cochrane, acted in f social order. A number of volun- ed the sailors, and reduced the dis- f the public peace to submission. nem were instantly shot, and about a prison-ship, which, with its former contained 250 men, including a few s. Of the whole number, it is said, remained alive on the ensuing morn- a mutual massacre of the most savage

new constitution, which was com- 1824, the government was declared to editary and representative monarchy; was to be formed by popular election, nembers were to enjoy their dignity ives; deputies, of twice the number nators, were to be chosen for four at the emperor might dissolve this f the legislature whenever he might per, though he was bound to order new elections without delay: the civil and political rights of all the citizens, among whom, however, slaves were not included, were pronounced inviolable: the judicial power was rendered perfectly independent, so as to secure the impartiality of law; and, while the Romish faith was stated to be the religion of the empire, all other modes of worship were to be tolerated, though not allowed to be publicly solemnized. At the time when this constitution began to take effect, the public revenue, which, when John VI. commenced his residence in Brazil, had been less than £600,000, nearly reached the sum of £4,000,000 sterling: the regular army amounted to 27,500 men, and 50,000 composed the militia.

The new constitution had scarcely been promulgated before its existence was endangered. An insurrection against it broke out at Pernambuco, headed by Carvalho, the governor, who proposed that the northern provinces of Brazil should form themselves into a republic, to be called the Confederation of the Equator. Several of those provinces were about to join in the revolt, when it was put down by the exertions of Lord Cochrane, who compelled Pernambuco to surrender, but not till after a severe struggle and much loss of life. In 1825, Portugal recognised the independence of Brazil, and, in the following year, a war arose with Buenos Ayres, on the subject of the Banda Oriental. Hostilities were terminated in 1828, by the emperor consenting to give up the contested territory. From year to year the situation of the emperor became more painful; insurrections occurred in the provinces, his capital was threatened with destruction by a mutiny of the foreign troops, dissatisfaction continued to increase in the legislature, and his popularity to decline, till, at length, in April, 1831, he abdicated the throne in favour of his son, and embarked for Europe. Though a considerable republican party existed in Brazil, and though the son of Don Pedro was only seven years old, no attempt was made to abolish royalty. The boy was proclaimed, under the title of Pedro II., and a regency was established. But, though the throne was not overturned, the peace of the country was not the less disturbed. Seditious outbreaks occurred in various quarters, some of a republican nature, and others with the purpose of restoring the abdicated monarch. In 1834, some change was made in the constitution, for the purpose of blending a kind of federative system with the monarchical government. With this view, a species of minor legislature was granted to each province, and it was enacted that, during the emperor's minority, instead of the regency being exercised by three persons, it should be intrusted to a single person, who should be chosen by the provincial electors, and hold his office for four years. Diego Antonio Feijo, a member of the senate, was elected regent. His inaugural address to the nation was remarkable for its impartiality, conciliating

spirit, and good sense. He soon found that it was no light task which he had undertaken. Rebellions broke out in Bahia and Para: in the first, the slaves had planned a general rising against their enslavers; in the second, the Indians, in conjunction with the soldiers of the garrison, made themselves masters of the capital, and committed the most frightful enormities. Fortunately for the Bahians, the slaves rendered their own plan abortive, by their want of prudence, and the revolt was quelled, though not without much bloodshed. The recovery of Para was a more difficult enterprise. It was not till the middle of the following year (1836) that an army of 4000 men succeeded in recovering the capital of Para; and even then the province continued to be desolated throughout by bands of insurgents. Scarcely had the imperial troops obtained this imperfect success in that quarter, before the flames of insurrection broke forth in another; the province of Rio Grande declared itself an independent republic, and this was followed by a second revolt at Bahia, and a declaration of independence. Having become weary of the burden which was imposed upon him, the regent resigned his office, and was in 1838, by Pedro de Araujo Lima. T lion in Bahia was put down with difficulty; but that in Rio Grande obstinately maintained, and the impe were more than once defeated by F noel, the leader of the insurgents. till the contest had lasted above two the forces of the government gained dancy over the republicans. Mara other provinces were, meanwhile, in disturbed a state as that of Rio Gr 1840, a political revolution took pla Janeiro. Irritated by an intentio roguing them, and disliking some m a new ministry which had been form regent, the two chambers decided th peror, then in his fifteenth year, declared of age, and requested to a government. The young emperor ac took the prescribed oaths; and, in th year, the ceremony of his coronation formed. On his assuming the crown amnesty was proclaimed, which seem had the desired effect, in restoring tr to the disturbed provinces.

GUAYANA.

This extensive country, which is about 500 miles long, and 450 miles broad, with an area of 276,000 square miles, is divided among the Venezuelans, Brazilians, English, French, and Dutch.

British Guayana comprehends the three colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice. The first borders on the Venezuelan territory, and the last on Surinam. Georgetown, formerly called Stabrock, on the Demerara river, is the seat of government, and has 10,000 inhabitants. These three settlements flourish, in point of cultivation, far more than they did when they were possessed by the Hollanders. M. de Pradt says, that the colony of Berbice, which was established in 1626, has, after passing through various hands, fallen into a state of great weakness; and he adds, that Essequibo and Demerara are much more valuable: but the first has also been greatly improved by its new possessors, who have peopled and brought into use an extensive tract evidently borrowed from the sea. The whole of the land, to a considerable distance from the ocean, is, in fact, alluvial soil. The principal objects of cultivation are coffee, cotton, sugar, and rice. Almost the whole population consists of blacks and people of colour; but the chief power is exercised by the whites. Savage tribes are dispersed over the country. They are as indolent as the colonists are industrious; for they only have recourse to labour when they are urged by absolute necessit rarely wear any other apparel than cloth tied round the waist; and th women, is sometimes decorated in with beads and other ornaments. practise polygamy, treat their wives i trary and imperious manner, watch t jealous eyes, and compel them to pe most laborious tasks. Exclusive of barians, the population may be est about 100,000, of whom scarcely m one-twentieth are whites.

Dutch Guayana includes the colon nam, which once belonged to the En was given up to the Hollanders whe Netherlands were obtained by Gres The interior parts are ill-peopled, and settlements are not very distant from The chief town is Paramaribo, inh 20,000 persons. It stands on the Surir and is a place of considerable trade. gress of interior cultivation, ho checked by the occasional hostilitie savages, who are sometimes joined revolters. In some expeditions ag insurgents, the soldiers have been o march almost up to their necks in wa climate is very unhealthy; venomou and the most mischievous serpents, h alarm the colonists; the vampire b their blood when they are sleeping; beasts augment the danger. The cl

ductions of the country are cotton, flax, coffee, sugar, tobacco, and dyeing drugs. This province was taken by the English, in the year 1804; but was restored by that treaty which closed the war. Its population is about 60,000.

French Guayana extends 300 miles to the north of the Brazilian division. The French began to colonize this country about the year 1643; but, for twenty years, made very small progress. Many of the buccaneers cast an eager eye upon this spot, and were apparently inclined to put an end to their wanderings, when they thought of plundering Surinam. They failed in that enterprise, and were driven by the French from their possessions in Cayenne. This is the name of an island which borders on the coast of Guayana; but the appellation is sometimes given to the whole French province. The island is about forty-five miles in circuit. Its air is unhealthy, and the soil poor. The chief town is fortified with walls and bastions; but it is ill built and thinly peopled. The total population of the colony is not more than 23,000. When the French were dispossessed of Canada, they sent 9000 persons to improve the colony of Cayenne; but the greater part perished miserably in the rainy season. The island and its dependencies were taken by the English and Portuguese, in 1809, but were restored at the peace. The Oyapoc was then made the boundary between French and Brazilian Guayana.

Brazilian Guayana is now comprehended under the general head of Brazil, and forms a part of the province of Parà, the northern extremity of that empire. The Venezuelan portion constitutes the department of Orinoco, which is larger than France, but has very few inhabitants.

AMERICAN ISLANDS, BELONGING TO DIFFERENT POWERS.

In the West Indies, the largest island is Cuba, which still belongs to Spain. It is between 700 and 800 miles long, and nearly 130 miles broad in the widest part, but not more than 50 miles on an average. It was conquered by a very small army under Velasquez, in 1511. It is divided by a chain of mountains, from which, it is said, above a hundred streams, none of which are navigable for more than a boat, pour down into the plains, some of them producing gold. At the foot of each mountain, the country opens into extensive meadows, which afford abundant pasture to numerous herds, both wild and tame. Of its 2000 miles of coast, scarcely one-third is accessible to ships; the approach being obstructed by reefs, rocks, and small islands. The air is less sultry than that of Hispaniola, being cooled by the north and east breezes. July, August, and sometimes September, are rainy months: the rest of the year, with the exception of a short winter, resembles a continued spring. The products are maize, manioc, aloes, cassia, mastic, coffee, ginger, sugar, honey, and the best tobacco. The country does not abound with mineral riches; but it appears that some mines of copper and iron have been discovered. Within the last twenty years, Cuba has made an astonishing progress in prosperity. Havana is the seat of government, and is so well fortified, that the Spaniards consider it as impregnable. In 1828 the population of this city was 125,000, and is now 130,000. The houses, in general, have only two floors, and are usually painted with some bright colour. All the good houses are built in the following mode: a gallery, surrounded by a piazza, extends around the first floor, and forms, with the court below, a place of recreation in the evening, and a shelter from the heat during the day. The inhabitants are gay, and fond of amusement. Balls, plays, bull-fights, and other diversions, alternately enliven them; and the drawing of the national lottery, which takes place every month, resembles a fair or a festival. The men who compose the lower classes, viz. the common Spaniards, the people of colour, free negroes, and slaves, are in general very dissolute and unprincipled; and the city, says Mr. Howison, "is the scene of more outrages and daring crimes than any other of its size in the civilized world." The Havana is also an extremely unhealthy city. The other principal towns of Cuba are Puerto Principe, Santiago de Cuba, Guanabacoa, Matanzas, Santo Espiritu, and Trinidad de Cuba. The population of the whole island is supposed to amount to 1,000,000.

Puerto-Rico, which is about 84 miles long, and 34 broad, was reduced under the Spanish yoke, by Ponce de Leon, about the year 1509. It is divided in the centre by a range of mountains, is well watered, beautifully diversified with woods, valleys, and plains, and very fertile in the usual products of the West Indies. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but it has no longer any considerable quantity of this metal. The capital, called San Juan, which has 30,000 inhabitants, stands in a small island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, joined to the chief island by a causeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken

by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland, but not retained.

Puerto-Rico has made gigantic strides in the career of improvement within the last forty years. It was originally a penal settlement, and was long in a languishing state. Its sole trade was in sending cattle, horses, and plantains to the neighbouring islands, in exchange for manufactured goods; and it made scarcely sugar enough for the supply of its inhabitants. It now exports immense quantities of sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, cotton, and tobacco; besides hides, cattle, and horses. In 1802, its population was only 163,192; in 1836, it was 357,086, of which latter number 189,000 were whites, and, of the remainder, only 42,000 were slaves. Puerto-Rico now, instead of being a burden to the mother country, contributes considerably to its revenue, while, at the same time, the inhabitants are less heavily burdened than they formerly were.

HAYTI, the Hispaniola of Columbus, also called ST. DOMINGO, is about 400 miles long, and, in its widest part, 150 miles. It was long possessed by the Spaniards alone; but the buccaneers subsequently settled on various parts of the coast, and the treaty of Ryswick gave an establishment to a French colony, with which the piratical adventurers were incorporated. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and rivers, and the soil is exceedingly fertile, abundantly producing sugar, coffee, cotton, tobacco, maize, and cassava. The European cattle have become so numerous that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks silver and gold were formerly discovered; but the colonists are now content with procuring those metals in the way of trade.

The most ancient town in this island, and in the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded, in 1504, by Bartholomew Columbus, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city. While the French occupied the most fruitful part of the island, the town which took its name from Cape François, on the northern coast, was their capital. It stood on the verge of a well-watered and highly-cultivated plain, 50 miles long, and 10 miles in breadth, intersected by straight and wide roads, lined with hedges of lemon and lime trees, leading to plantations which produced a greater quantity of sugar than any other spot of the same extent in the world. Before the year 1793, it had a population of 8000; but it was then set on fire amidst the commotions of the colony, and the white inhabitants were massacred by the revolted negroes. It has now 12,000 inhabitants, and is called Cape Haytien. After the French division of the island had been for some years convulsed with civil war, the English interfered, and took possession of various posts; but, after a c men in that unhealthy climate, abandoned their acquisitions. had received the French nam l'Ouverture, was afterwards in chief command of the negroes He appears to have been a man and to have exercised his auth dence and moderation. Buon an armament to reduce him t pendance upon France, and r the colony. After several negro chief was induced to a French perfidiously seized hi founded charge of treacheron sent him to France, where h dungeon. The other black submitted, Christophe and D themselves by flight; the negr toes again flew to arms, and th rapidly fell victims to the cli vivors were given up as prisor fleet; and Dessalines obtained When that tyrant had lost his l nation which his conduct had p tophe assumed the title and king; and this adventurer wa lightened as to neglect the m ing the civilization of his peo deavoured to subject them to of judicious laws, and establis schools. For his occasional cr he deservedly suffered, in 1820, predecessor.

The French had obtained, fr Spain, a cession of his divisio but they only so far profited b the city of St. Domingo for a was then retaken by the Span assisted by British troops. lutionists of Colombia had Spanish yoke, the inhabitants of placing their town under th the new state; but, before any that kind were adjusted, Boyer, himself to the chief power, un president, found an opportuni that part of the island to the te Haytian republic. In 1825, h the French king, for £6,250,000 nunciation of all claims on th supposed act of justice was expected by the less honest Europe; and he was, therefore, To please his new friends, he at deprived the British merchants and preference which they had enjoyed at Port-au-Prince and the island. Port-au-Prince, wh in the Bay of Gonaives, is now Hayti, and has about 30,000 inh whole population of the island from 1,000,000 to 1,200,000. Coff and dye-woods are now the pri of Hayti.

MARTINIQUE was discovered b

then peopled by Caribs. In 1635, the French made a settlement upon it, and in less than thirty years the natives were exterminated. It is about 120 miles to the north-west of Barbadoes, and is distinguished at a considerable distance by a lofty mountain near the centre. It has an area of between 380 and 390 square miles. From its hills are poured out, on every side, agreeable and useful rivers, which highly adorn and enrich it. The products of the soil are cotton, indigo, tobacco, ginger, and the finest fruit; but sugar is the chief commodity, of which a great quantity is exported. The bays and harbours are numerous, and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to all attacks. However, in the war that commenced in the year 1755, when the English arms were triumphant in every quarter, this island was added to the British empire; but it was given back at the treaty of peace. It was again taken in 1794, but restored to the French by the treaty of Amiens. A subsequent seizure, in 1809, was also followed by restitution.

The island contains some well-built towns; and St. Pierre, in particular, which has 20,000 inhabitants, makes a better appearance than Fort Royal, the capital, which has only half the number. The inhabitants are gay, lively, frank, and generous; but proud, arbitrary, and self-willed. The population of the island, in 1835, was 116,031, of whom not more than 9000 are whites.

Guadaloupe, which was discovered by Columbus in 1493, and settled by the French in 1635, scarcely yields to Martinique in value or importance. It is about 75 miles to the south of Antigua, has an area of about 530 square miles, and is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, in some places scarcely eighty yards wide, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinique, and the produce is of the same kind. The island is in a flourishing state, and its exports of sugar are very abundant. In 1759 it was reduced by the British arms, but was given back at the peace of 1763. It was captured in 1794, but evacuated a few months afterward. When it had fallen into our hands in the last war, it was transferred to the Swedes, in return for their accession to the grand confederacy against France; and, when it was deemed expedient to conciliate the French by a restoration of their principal colonies, we kindly gave the Swedes £1,000,000 sterling, that they might be induced to relinquish the island with a good grace. In 1835, it contained about 107,000 inhabitants, of whom more than three-fourths were slaves.

The isle of St. Bartholomew, with 1600 inhabitants, which the French resigned in 1785, is the only spot in the West Indies possessed by the Swedes; and it is so small and sterile, that the acquisition appears to be one of very little value. The produce is confined to a small quantity of cotton and sugar, by the sale of which the poor in the interior principally subsist. Sour-sops, prickly pears, and some other wild fruits, grow here spontaneously, as also a few tamarind trees, and the poisonous manchineel in great abundance. Gustavia, the chief town, has 900 inhabitants.

St. Eustatius, or Eustatia, is a small island, about 25 miles in circumference, three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, and makes a remarkable appearance, as it rises out of the sea in the form of a huge pyramidal rock. The sides of the mountain are disposed in pleasant settlements; but the inhabitants have neither springs nor rivers. They raise sugar and tobacco, and rear nogs, goats, and poultry, in such abundance, that they can supply their neighbours as well as themselves. The island is subject to thunder storms and hurricanes, which usually occur in August and September. The population is said to consist of about 400 white and coloured persons, and 2000 slaves. The island has a bay, but no harbour; and there is only one landing-place, which is therefore well fortified. The town of St. Eustatius is a free port. The Dutch, in various wars with the English, have been dispossessed of this settlement; but they have never failed to recover it on the return of peace.

Curaçao is likewise a colonial dependency upon the kingdom of the Netherlands, and is situated in the Caribbean sea, near the Venezuelan coast. It is about 35 miles long, and 6 miles broad. The population is 14,000, of whom 6000 are slaves. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should everywhere, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for this island is not only barren, but dependant on the rains for water. The principal harbour is that of Santa Anne, which has a very narrow entrance, but is capacious within. On one side of the port is Fort Amsterdam; on the other the town of Curaçao, or Willemstadt, which is a small but well-built place. The public buildings are handsome, the private houses commodious, and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines, some of them being so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. The island produces a small quantity of tobacco, and has also good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. It has been twice captured by the English, and restored to the Dutch, by whom it was settled in 1632.

Sainte Croix, or Santa Cruz, and the isle of Saint Thomas, two of the Virgin Islands, while they remained in the hands of the Danish West India Company, were ill managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but, when the king had purchased the Company's stock, and laid the trade open, both islands began to flourish, and they are now in a high state of

cultivation. They were taken by the English in 1801, but were restored a few months afterwards. They were again captured in consequence of the war which followed the seizure of the Danish fleet, in 1807; but they were replaced under their former government, in 1814, when the Danes had consented to give up Norway to our Swedish allies. Santa Cruz is about 21 miles long, and 6 miles wide, and has a population of 32,500, of whom not 3000 are whites. St. Thomas is 12 miles long, and 4 miles wide, and has 8000 inhabitants, and an excellent port.

Passing along the eastern coast of South America, we find, almost at the southern extremity of that region,

The FALKLAND or MALOUIN islands, which were discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594. They are about two hundred in number, but only two, those of East and West Falkland, are of considerable size. The name of Falkland was probably given to them by Captain Strong, in 1639; but the French call them the Malouin islands, from the people of St. Malo, whom they consider as the discoverers. They occasioned a contest between Spain and Great Britain; but they were abandoned by the latter in 1774. They were again occupied by the British, in 1823; and there is now a small settlement at Port Louis. Excellent harbours abound; and there are great numbers of wild cattle and horses.

SOUTH GEORGIA.—This island is situated to the east of the Falkland islands, about two degrees further south. It is 90 miles long, and 10 miles broad, and much resembles them. It has of late years been greatly frequented by whalers, in consequence of the multitudes of seals and sea-elephants. In the course of a few years 20,000 tuns of oil, and 1,200,000 fur seal-skins were obtained here. The sea-elephants have been nearly exterminated; the stupid avidity of the whalers having induced them not to spare the pregnant females.

TIERRA DEL FUEGO, which the Spaniards are supposed to have so named from some volcanic appearances, is an archipelago, consisting of seven extensive islands, and many smaller. The largest is King Charles's Southland, which extends 170 miles from north to south, and 260 miles from east to west, and has an area of 20,000 square miles. These islands are separated from the main-land of South America by that strait which was explored by Magalhaens, a Portuguese adventurer in the service of Spain, who sailed through it in 1520, and thus discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. In 1616, Le Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the southward of that strait, discovered, between the isle called Statenland and Tierra del Fuego, another passage, since known by his name; and this route, which has been generally preferred by succeeding navigators, is called the doubling of Cape Horn.

When Captain Weddell visited this country, in 1824, the natives were filled with amazement at the sight of the vessels, and fear at first prevented them from approaching; but some of them at last ventured on board. These islanders, he says, "are of low stature, rarely exceeding five feet five inches. They have small eyes, flat noses, small arms, full and well-formed chests; their legs are ill shaped, in consequence, perhaps, of the custom of sitting on their calves, in which position their appearance is truly awkward. The women are better featured than the men; many of their faces are interesting; and, in my opinion, they have a more lively sense of what passes. The only clothing which the males wear is a skin over their shoulders, reaching little more than half-way down the back; some have not even this sorry garment. The females have generally larger skins over their shoulders, and are in other respects clothed as decency requires." They seem likewise to do almost all the work; they construct the huts; paddle the canoes, while the men sit at their ease; collect shell-fish for the sustenance of the family; and make baskets of plaited grass. With regard to their mode of living, they appear to have everything in common; no system of government prevails among them; and their families live in mutual friendship, in a state of patriarchal simplicity.

Before we bend our course to the northward, we must cast a glance upon the various discoveries which, with one exception, have been made within the present century. To the south-east of South Georgia lies a group of small islands, extending between 56 and 60 degrees of N. latitude. The name of Sandwich Land was given to them by Captain Cook, under the idea that they formed part of a continent. Steering still onward towards the pole, we reach, in the following order, the New Orkneys, New Shetland, Graham Land, and Peter and Alexander isles; of which the last two, in latitude 69, were discovered by a Russian expedition. But the most important discovery, in this quarter, is that which was made, in 1841, by Captain Ross. Penetrating nearer to the southern axis of the earth than any previous navigator, he, in latitude 71, fell in with extensive coasts, which he traced to the 79th degree, when his progress was stopped by impenetrable ice. The land is mountainous and volcanic: from a volcano, 12,400 feet above the sea, to which he gave the name of Mount Erebus, he witnessed a magnificent eruption. On this voyage Captain Ross approached to within 160 miles of the magnetic pole. To this newly-found territory he gave the name of Victoria Land.

Beyond Cape Horn, as we proceed northward in the Great South Sea, after having passed the group called the Patagonian islands, we arrive at CHILOE, which has some harbours well fortified. It is situated near the coast of Chilé, and is about 100 miles long, and 40 miles broad. It is the chief island of a considerable group, about forty in number,

thirty of which are inhabited by Europeans, creoles, mulattoes, and converted natives of the old Chilean race. The archipelago, with a narrow tract of the adjoining coast, forms one of the provinces of the Chilean republic. The land is mountainous, and covered in many parts with almost impenetrable thickets. The rains are frequent and excessive, and are sometimes accompanied with tremendous hurricanes. Castro was formerly the chief town; but San Carlos afterwards became the seat of government. Chiloe remained in the possession of the king of Spain for many years after the revolutionists had organized the Chilean state; but it was at length reduced by their arms.

About 300 miles to the west from the coast of Chilé is an island called JUAN FERNANDES, from the name of its first discoverer. It is famous for having given rise to the romance of Robinson Crusoe. One Alexander Selkirk, a North Briton, was left on this solitary spot by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by Captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709. When taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood. He was dressed in goat-skins, would drink only water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode there, he had caught 1000 goats by running them down; half of which he marked on the ears, and dismissed. Some of these were caught thirty years after by Lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect, and majestic beards, manifest strong symptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, it is said, on his return to England, was advised to publish his adventures, and accordingly to have put his papers into the hands of Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of these communications and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned the papers to Selkirk; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. Such is the story which some have credited; but in which there is no truth whatever. There exists not an atom of proof that Selkirk ever drew up any account of his residence in Juan Fernandes, or that Defoe had any knowledge of him.

This island was colonized by the Spaniards in 1767; and a small town was built and fortified near the north-west point. It is, for the most part, a rocky spot; but it contains some fertile valleys, abounding with trees.

The other islands which claim transient notice are the Galapagos Isles, situated 400 miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the Bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands. The former are so called from the turtles with which they abound: some of them are well wooded, and others have a fertile soil; and the climate is more temperate than might be expected from their situation. They belong to the republic of the Equator. A settlement has been formed on Charles's Island.

Having thus conducted our readers through the four quarters of the terraqueous globe, we might repose under the idea of a termination of our labours, if we did not consider that some parts of the world, not included in any one of those great divisions, call for our notice. The territories to which we allude are styled AUSTRALASIA and POLYNESIA.

AUSTRALASIA.

THE name of Australasia, which was once given to New Holland, is now used to signify, collectively, Australia, Van Diemen's Land, New Zealand, Papua or New Guinea, Louisiade, New Hanover, New Ireland, New Britain, Solomon Islands, New Hebrides, and New Caledonia. The whole of these territories are situated to the south of the equator, extending to the 47th degree of latitude, and between the 114th and 179th degrees of W. longitude. By some geographers the name of Melanesia is given to this insular portion of the globe.

AUSTRALIA.

THIS island, originally known by the name of New Holland, and for awhile by that of Australasia, is the largest in the world, and may rather be regarded as a continent. Its extent, from east to west, is about 2900 miles, and from north to south 2000 miles, and its area is estimated at from 3,000,000 to 3,300,000 square miles. Torres, whose name is attached to the strait which separates New Guinea from Australia, and the captain of the Duyven, a Dutch vessel, were the first two voyagers who are known to have seen the Australian coast; but they merely saw it, and both in the same quarter, the north-east. Various parts of the western and southern coast, as far as Nuytsland, were a few years afterwards discovered by Dutch navigators; and, in 1642, Tasman discovered Van Diemen's Land and New Zealand. The north-western coast was next examined by Dampier, who ascertained that New Holland was divided from New Guinea. By the voyages of Cook the whole of the eastern coast was made known, from Cape York, in Torres' Strait, to Cape Howe, at the entrance of Bass's Strait; and to this coast he gave the name of New South Wales. At a later period, Bass, Grant, Fenders, D'Entrecasteaux, Baudin,

id, as a zoological phenomenon. It fly in the water, has a mule-like body, perfect bill of a duck, lays eggs, and ts young. On the foot of the male is a ch emits a poisonous liquor, rendering al dangerous. Little progress has yet de in exploring the mineral riches of ıtry. It has, however, been ascer- at iron ore and coal abound; and cop- , and tin, are said to have been dis-

Of limestone, stone for building, slate, and potter's clay, there is also il supply.

tional character has been summed up, it quaintly and antithetically, but not, hole, incorrectly, by a recent imparver. "They are," says he, "a singular eings; shrewd and intelligent, yet not ig even the first rudiments of civiliza- erly ignorant of art or science, yet btain a ready livelihood where a civil- ig would starve; knowing nothing of il, possessed of no mechanical tool, ible to fashion weapons of a most for- description; having neither house nor omesticating neither bird nor beast; ig neither grain nor fruit; naked, yet to bear the trammels of clothing; own upon as the lowest in the scale of eings, yet proudly bearing themselves, emning the drudgeries to which those ected who despise them; confiding, kindly of disposition, yet, to suit their treacherous, inflexible in revenge, and in massacre; enjoying the most un- d state of liberty, yet in daily danger living in a state of society resolved very first elements; revering no God, no devil, acknowledging no law, divine; without rule of conduct, save wild wills in this life, and without eward or fear of punishment in the t is necessary to remark here, that es of the western part of Australia, the same race, are far more intelli- humane than those of the east. It is that the latter have been deteriorated juries inflicted on them, and by the example of the runaway convicts, enominated bush-rangers.

ustralians are slight in person, com- h the muscular frame of Europeans, e, and capable of enduring much ien left to their own habits of under-

A considerable degree of symmetry oo, is not uncommon among them. ession of their countenances is fre- easing, although their features, taken , are usually otherwise. They are hed by a narrow retreating forehead, stless eyes, a broad flattened nose, large mouth; they are furnished, with close-set brilliantly white and rful teeth; which serve, when other ts are wanting, to crush and rend od, and, strange as it may sound, even iron itself. More than one of them has owed his escape from confinement to the strength of his teeth, having made them subservient to wrenching open the padlock or the handcuff designed to secure them. They are quick of apprehension, have a keen sense of the ridiculous, and great talents for mimicry. The latter quality is often usefully exerted, and enables them to catch up with quickness our language, our modes of acting and of expression, and thus to render themselves serviceable and not unamusing attendants in traversing the country. They track the human footstep by sight, as accurately as a blood-hound could do by scent; and their rare sagacity in this particular, combined with their thorough knowledge of the country, and of the best pastures, render them excellent shepherds and herdsmen."

Among the peculiarities of the Australians may be reckoned their tenacity of life. A native recovers speedily from wounds which would bring inevitable death to a European. The ingenious construction of his weapons, which is alluded to in a preceding paragraph, is another striking peculiarity. One of these instruments of war is the boomarang, or kyle, which is of a curved form, and so ingeniously contrived, that, after being hurled at an object, it returns back to the person who threw it.

Among the favourite amusements of the natives is a dance called the corobboree, which is thus described by Major Mitchell. "The surrounding darkness," says he, "seems necessary to the effect of the whole, all these dances being more or less dramatic—the painted figures coming forward in mystic order from the obscurity of the back ground, while the singers and beaters of time are invisible. Each dance seems most tastefully progressive, the movement being at first slow, and introduced by two persons displaying the most graceful motions both of arms and legs, while others, one by one, drop in, until each imperceptibly warms into the truly savage attitude of the corobboree jump, the legs striding to the utmost, the head turned over one shoulder, the eyes glaring and fixed with savage energy in one direction, the arms raised and inclined towards the head, the hand usually grasping waddies (clubs,) boomarangs, or other warlike weapons. The jump now keeps time with each beat, and at each leap the dancer takes six inches to one side, all being in a connected line, led by the first dancer. The line is doubled or tripled according to space and numbers: and this gives great effect; for, when the first line jumps to the left, the second jumps to the right, the third to the left again, and so on until the action acquires due intensity, when all simultaneously and suddenly stop."

BRITISH AUSTRALIAN COLONIES.

New South Wales, the earliest settled and the most important British colony in this

quarter, is situated on the eastern and part of the south-eastern coast of Australia. It may be considered as, at present, including within its limits all the territory between the ocean and the 131st degree of east longitude, and between 25 and 39 degrees of south latitude. This, however, comprehends the recently discovered territory called Australia Felix, and the settlement of Port Philip, which will, probably, be formed ere long into a separate colony. That portion of the country which is regularly divided, and more or less peopled, and which may be called New South Wales Proper, lies between the 31st and 36th degrees of south latitude. It forms 20 counties. Ascending the coast from south to north, the maritime counties are those of St. Vincent, Camden, Cumberland, Northumberland, Gloucester, and Macquarie. Proceeding in the same direction, the inland counties are Murray, Argyle, King, Georgiana, Westmoreland, Bathurst, Cox, Roxburgh, Hunter, Philip, Wellington, Bligh, Brisbane, and Durham. The principal county, which contains the capital, and is most densely peopled, is Cumberland.

The population of New South Wales was 36,598 in 1828; 60,794 in 1833; 77,096 in 1836; and 101,904 in 1839. The number of emigrants to Sydney and Port Philip, in the year ending January 5, 1842, was 27,386. The value of British exports to the Australian colonies (New Zealand not included) was £835,637 in 1836; £921,568 in 1837; £1,336,662 in 1838; £1,679,390 in 1839; £2,004,385 in 1840; and £1,269,351 in 1841. The chief exports from New South Wales are wool and the produce of the whale fishery. The quantity of wool exported in 1837 was 7,060,000 lbs; of whale oil, 15,490 tons; of spermaceti oil, 6312 tons; and of whalebone, 7067 cwts.

Society in New South Wales suffers, and will continue to suffer for some time, from its original taint as a convict colony. The voluntary emigrants shrink from amalgamating with the class of reclaimed convicts. Many of the emancipists, as they are called, possess large fortunes, and are even scrupulously honest; but there are too many of them who have made money discreditably, and spend it in an equally discreditable manner. It is, however, a fortunate circumstance "that the young men born in the colony, of convict parents, acquire often a character the reverse of that of which the example is set to them by their progenitors." But, as long as criminals continue to be sent to New South Wales, and perhaps long after, will society be unfortunately divided into two antagonist classes, each hating and shunning the other. "The voluntary emigrants," says Mr. Murray, "come out with the view of finding or making a country and society as like as possible to what they had left at home. In the towns especially, the habits of fashionable society in England are almost punctilliously copied, though of course on a reduced scale. The pride of station is said to be carried to an extravagant height, as is usual among those who have least pretensions to it. But the most deep-rooted and unhappy distinction is that which the emigrants can scarcely fail to make between themselves and the freed convicts, or, as they are termed, emancipists. The emigrants *pure* refuse to hold any social intercourse with this class, and brand as confusionists those who admit them at all to their houses or society. This treatment is borne most indignantly by the emancipist, who has been admitted to a complete footing of political equality, with the exception of being summoned upon juries at quarter sessions. He himself, however, has established a similar distinction between the emancipist *pure*, who, since his landing, has maintained an irreproachable character, and the emancipist *impure*, who, having come out as an offender, has been committed and punished for offences within the colony. These distinctions have been the sources of deep and lasting feuds. Governor Macquarie made great efforts to equalize and unite the classes; but, endeavouring to carry his point rather by power and authority than by time and conciliation, he only widened the breach. Meantime, the emigrants have constituted another classification among themselves, expressed by the factiful title of *sterling*, or natives of the mother country, and *currency*, or those born in the colony. The currency are said to be fine spirited youths; yet, from some cause of climate or country, they have the same tall form and pallid aspect which present themselves in the children of the back settlements of America. In return for the unjust ridicule with which they are treated as currency, they adhere closely to each other, and have an exclusive attachment to the land of their birth, with a contempt for the mother country, which is generally by no means lessened by a visit to it."

It would seem as though the projectors of the colony had no other object than to get rid of the criminals whom they sent thither, or that they supposed them to be so irreclaimably bad that nothing could reclaim them; for, at the outset, no religious instructor was provided for them; and it was only on the suggestion of a pious individual that the Rev. Mr. Johnson was at length appointed to accompany them as chaplain. For six years Mr. Johnson performed his duties in the open air, at the expiration of which period he built a temporary place of worship at his own expense. It was not till 1800 that a church was built at Paramatta, and another at Sydney. Since then the requisite attention has been paid to public worship; and, about three years ago, the archdeaconry of New South Wales was erected into a bishopric of Australia. The state of education was, for many years, scarcely more favourable. There is now a considerable number of government and other schools, and two colleges at Sydney.

xecutive authority is vested in the go- who is aided by the advice of a council, ied of the superior government officers. poses any new law to another council, the legislative, which must refer it to ief justice to decide whether it is in with the laws of England. Both coun- appointed by the queen. Every enact- subject to the approbation of the Bri- vernment. A chief justice and two exercise the judicial power, both civil minal; but, in cases of the latter kind, a kind of jury, consisting of naval or y officers, who are nominated by the or; and in civil cases the decision rests ie of the judges and two assessors. The is said to be in an admirably efficient

The revenue by which the colonial shments are supported, is derived from s on imports, a few internal duties, and le of the crown lands. It more than the expenses. In 1837, the receipt was 00, while the expenditure was only 77.

ey, the capital of the colony, is situated south side of the capacious and beauti- bour of Port Jackson, in the county of rland, in 33. 55. S. latitude, and 151. 23. itude. Within the last thirty years, and larly the last eight, Sydney has rapidly ed in elegance and population. In 1810, at part of it which is called the Rocks, existence; and "it was little better than gular village of houses, cottages, and overed huts, built by each proprietor in situation and in such a manner as suited nvenience. Macquarie, however, laid plan for the construction of the town, ing to which the greater part of it is now the principal streets run inland to the and are crossed at right angles by others terminate on the west, at the shore of g Harbour. The government house and ment domain limit the extension of the o the east and north-east; it extends to ith, from Dawes's Battery to the burial- a, nearly three miles. Sydney Cove s only a short distance inland. There are rts at the entrance—Macquarie Fort, at nt of the east promontory, and Dawes's y, on the ridge of the west promontory. g Harbour is much more extensive than r Cove, running inland to the south istance beyond the town. A finer situa- or a large mercantile city can hardly gined. The water is deep, the shores cipitous, and the wharfs so situated that s can be hoisted from the holds of the ships up to the floors of the warehouses. uses in the principal streets are gene- wo stories high, but many are three; re built of brick, some of sandstone, and re of wood. Many of the shops are fitted h plate-glass windows, chandeliers, and lecorations, in the most costly style of n or Paris. The side-pavements for foot passengers are made with small stones, not with flags; but asphalte has been introduced, and is extending." The increase of houses and population, within the last eight years, is remarkable; in 1833, the town had only 1800 houses, and 16,232 inhabitants; in 1841, the houses were 4503 in number, of which 3457 were of stone or brick, and 1136 of wood, and the inhabitants were 29,973. Sydney has a variety of public buildings, among which are the government-house, six churches and chapels, and a theatre; but none of them are remarkable for architectural beauty. There are six banks, with large capitals; a savings bank; a mutual insurance company; two colleges, with nearly 200 scholars; several free schools; a colonial society; a mechanics' institute; and eight newspapers are issued from the press, one of them daily, the others twice and thrice a week.

The other towns of New South Wales have no claim to particular notice. Beside Sydney, Cumberland county contains four other towns. Paramatta, a few miles from Sydney, has about 4000 inhabitants; Windsor, 1200; Richmond, 1000; and Liverpool, 700. Maitland, Bathurst, and Newcastle are the principal places in the other counties. In 1836, a colony was established at Port Philip, in the southern extremity of New South Wales. A considerable emigration has taken place to it, and it is now in a thriving condition. Melbourne, which is said to have had 350 houses in 1839, is the principal place.

South Australia.—This colony, which was established in 1836, comprehends a portion of Australia situated between 26 and 38 degrees S. latitude, and 132 and 141 degrees E. longitude. Its line of sea-coast extends from Discovery Bay, on the east, to Cape Adieu, on the west. In this space there are several harbours; but the deepest indentations of the land are the extensive gulfs of Spencer and St. Vincent, the former of which penetrates into the interior for a distance of nearly 300 miles. Beyond the head of this gulf, in latitude 29. 20. S. is a low country, consisting of stony and sandy plains, perfectly level, devoid of water, grass, and timber, but evidently subject to inundations. "I found," says Mr. Eyre, the discoverer, "that the whole of the low country round Flinder's Range was completely surrounded by Lake Torrens, which, commencing not far from the head of Spencer's Gulf, takes a circuitous course of fully 400 miles, with an apparent width of from 20 to 30 miles, following the sweep of Flinder's Range, and almost encircling it in the form of a horse-shoe. The bed of this vast lake is for the greater part dry: it consists of a soft mixture of sand and mud, the water being some miles from the outer margin. The water was, however, reached at a small arm of the lake near the most westerly part, and, on being tasted, was found to be as salt as that of the sea." In the south-east angle of South Australia there is also a lake of considerable magnitude, called Alexandrina, which receives

the waters of the Murray, the largest river yet known on this island-continent. In 1840, a navigable passage was found from the sea into this lake, and up the Murray to the 34th degree of latitude.

This colony, which is estimated to contain about 300,000 square miles, or 192,000,000 of acres, was founded under the auspices of the South Australian Company, and on a new plan, To avoid the obvious inconveniences resulting from the employment of convicts, and yet to obtain a sufficient supply of labour, it was arranged that the land should be sold at 12s. per acre, and that, for every £20 of the purchase-money, each colonist should select for himself a labourer, to be conveyed over at free cost.

Various circumstances conspired, for some years, to retard the prosperity of the colony; but it is at length beginning to realize the hopes of its founders. A communication is even kept up overland with New South Wales. The total number of settlers is probably about 15,000, of whom more than 4000 reside in Adelaide, the capital. A town has also been founded at Port Lincoln, which has 300 inhabitants; and others, of minor importance, are either in progress or projected. The avocations of the colonists are chiefly agricultural and pastoral.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.—This colony, which is more familiarly known by the name of Swan River, includes within its ample bounds a larger space than any other Australian settlement. It comprehends the whole western coast, and a part of the southern, extending, in a north and south direction, from Cape Londonderry, in 13. 44. to West Cape Horne, in 35. 8. S. latitude; and, in an east and west direction, from Hartog's island, in 112. 52. to 129. E. longitude. Its length is, therefore, about 1280 miles, and its breadth 800. Its few settlements, and its scanty population, are in striking contrast with its enormous magnitude. At present, only a small portion of its south-west angle is reclaimed from the desert state. This, however, is a defect which time will doubtless remedy; as the exclusion of convicts from the country, the saving of a month or six weeks in the passage from England, and its being within a month's sail of the Cape, India, and the Indian Archipelago, cannot fail to attract colonists to its shores.

This colony was first projected in 1829, and 10,000 emigrants were intended to be forwarded to it in the course of four years; but the scheme proved abortive. In 1832, the total number of persons in the colony was only 1511; in 1841, it had increased to 2760. A new impulse has been recently given to it by the establishment of the Western Australian Company, and the formation of a new settlement called Australind, on the Les chenault Inlet. There is plenty of good land, both for tillage and pasturage; the coast is favourable for the whale fishery, the climate is salubrious, and nothing but the scarcity of labour has hitherto prevented these natural advantages from being turned to account. The small portion of the colony which is at present marked out is divided into twenty-six counties. The capital town is Perth, beautifully situated on the Swan River, which has 800 inhabitants. Freemantle, about 10 miles from Perth, with 400 inhabitants, may be considered as its seaport. The other towns are Australind, Guildford, and Albany. The administration is vested in a governor, who is assisted by an executive council, consisting of four members. This council, with the addition of four influential settlers, who are nominated by the crown, constitute the legislative council, which is assembled annually. The origination of all laws rests with the governor; the executive council having only the power of suggesting alterations.

NORTH AUSTRALIA.—This is the most recent of all the Australian colonies. It was founded in the autumn of 1838, under the superintendence of Captain Sir Gordon Bremer, and is designed to occupy the territory called Arnheim Land, which is situated between Cambridge Gulf and the Gulf of Carpentaria. The new town, which is called Victoria, stands on the western side of a harbour, 70 feet above the sea, on Coburg peninsula, 11. 20. S. latitude, and 132. 9. E. longitude. In a letter from Port Essington, dated in March 1839, Sir Gordon says, "Our operations commenced on the 3rd of November, and have proceeded with as much vigour that we have now an admirable town. The position is on a considerable piece of rising ground, midway on the western side of the inner harbour. The soil around is of the finest description, and we have already four wells sunk, which supply abundance of water. A finer harbour is scarcely to be met with in the world. Around our settlement are large ponds, and many running streams, all excellent. The rains have fallen but slightly this season, and, in consequence, our gardens have not made that progress I had hoped for; nevertheless, the orange, lemon, banana, plantain, and cocoa-nut trees are in beautiful order; while the pumpkins, melons, &c., give ample promise. As regards climate, I have no hesitation in expressing my opinion, that it is as fine as any tropical one in the world. We have had very hard labour, and been constantly exposed to the sun; occasionally the sun in the shade has been 98 and 100 degrees; yet not one case of serious sickness has occurred. I feel that I am abundantly warranted in congratulating the British government on their having caused the occupation of this noble harbour, and on the acquisition to the country of a colony which must answer all the purposes contemplated by her majesty's government in its formation; nor can I entertain a doubt but that, with the due encouragement it will receive from home, its admirable geographical position will excite attention, its capabilities for mercantile purposes be appreciated, and its soil, which evidently will produce the

le articles, be speedily and success-
ated." In November 1839, the rising
levastated by a tremendous hurri-
rivalled in violence those of the
s; but the colony appears to have
recovered from the injury it thus
nd to bid fair to attain commercial

MEN'S LAND, or TASMANIA.—This
h is divided from the north-east
of Australia by a strait about 50
called Bass Strait, lies between
degrees S. latitude, and 145½ and
E. longitude: it is about 239 miles
0 miles wide, and has an area of
e miles, or about one-seventh less
d. It was discovered, in 1642, by
o, however, believed it to be a part
lland. This belief continued, in-
general till 1798, when Bass sailed
e strait which bears his name.
n's Land was not settled till 1803,
in Bowen led thither a band of
m Sydney. The first establish-
nade at Risdon Cove; but, in the
ear, it was removed to Hobart
ce that period the colony has made
gress, mainly in consequence of the
gration having flowed strongly to
r, the climate of Van Diemen's
still more favourable to an Eng-
ution than that of New South
pulation has, of course, advanced
erated pace: in 1821 it was only
5 it had swelled to 43,895; and it
ounts now to between 50,000 and
aboriginal race, on the contrary, is
act. The natives appear to have
ore pacific disposition than their
brethren; but, irritated by the
ries which the convicts inflicted
they turned their undiscriminating
n all the settlers, and the result
contest, which ended in the de-
f numbers of them, and the re-
e remnant to an island in Bass
e they seem to be gradually dwind-

nen's Land, at the outset, was
two counties—Buckinghamshire
, and Cornwall on the north: as it
re populous a new division was
ourteen districts. Another change
taken place, by which it is formed
ix counties.

d presents neither the same long
ountain ranges, nor the same vast
he mainland. In general, it is
hill and dale, and even the high
sually fit either for cultivation or
The chief lines both of mountain
from north to south through the
of the colony. Table, or Welling-
n, the most elevated hill in the
nearly overhangs the southern set-
Hobart Town, rising to the height
of 3936 feet, being covered for nine months in the year with snow, and subject to violent whirlwinds. The northern peaks, called Ben Lomond and Tasmania, are also considerable; but the chain of most continuous elevation is that nearly in the centre of the island, called the Western Mountains, which extend north and south for its whole length. They possess a general height of 3500 feet. MR. EVANS describes the face of the country as being richly diversified by ranges of moderate hills and broad valleys, presenting the most agreeable scenes, and replete with the useful products of a rich soil and fine climate. The hills are for the greater part wooded, and from their summits are to be seen levels of good pasture land, thinly interspersed with trees. These plains are generally of the extent of 8000 or 10,000 acres. The scenery along the whole course of the Derwent is beautiful, and in some places highly romantic and picturesque. Lofty perpendicular rocks, rich groves of evergreens, luxuriant meadows, and numerous farms in a good state of cultivation, tend to vary the prospect along its banks. Ships of any size may find good anchorage in every part, from its southern entrance to twelve miles of Hobart Town. Such is the character of that part of the country, amounting to about one half, which has been explored and settled, and which forms a sort of zone, extending from Storm Bay to Port Dalrymple. The territory on either side of this zone has not as yet been examined; but it is probable that, in the course of a few years, it will be surveyed, and brought under cultivation.

In the Western Mountains there are several lakes, among which may be noticed the Great Lake, sixty miles in circumference, Western Lagoon, and Sorell Lake. The river Shannon issues from Great Lake, and the Clyde from Sorell Lake. The principal rivers are the Tamar and the Derwent, each of which receives several considerable streams. The harbours are numerous and excellent.

The climate is very healthy; epidemic and contagious diseases have hitherto been unknown, and those of an acute nature are generally mild, short in duration, and yield to medical treatment more speedily than in other countries. The soil is in some parts rich, and, in general, well calculated both for tillage and pasturage. The wheat, barley, and oats are of superior quality; wheat usually weighs from 62 to 64 lbs. per bushel. European vegetables and fruits are plentiful and good. Black cattle and sheep are numerous, and wool and live stock are exported to a large amount. The forest trees resemble those of Australia. Copper, iron, coal, sandstone, and marble are among the mineral treasures of Van Diemen's Land, and traces have been found of manganese, zinc, and lead.

The number of towns in Van Diemen's Land is at present but scanty. Hobart Town is the capital. Overlooked by the lofty Mount Wel-

lington, the town is built upon an undulating surface, receding from a cove on the left of the Derwent. "Seen from the water, it seems to run up before you on a variety of ascents, and to spread itself abroad upon the hills in the distance." There are about twenty streets, all wide, macadamized, but not flagged, intersecting one another at right angles. The houses are about 1600 in number, some of brick, and others of stone, and all are roofed with shingles. Many of the shops rival those of the British metropolis. There are numerous handsome churches and public buildings. Seven newspapers are published here, besides an official gazette, and two gratuitous advertisement sheets. The population of the town and immediate neighbourhood, military and convicts included, is at least 10,000.

Launceston, the next town in point of importance, is situated at the confluence of the North and South Esk, which together form the Tamar, at the distance of 124 miles from Hobart Town. It has several churches and public buildings, and contains about 7000 inhabitants, who are an active and enterprising race, and carry on commerce to a more considerable extent than those of Hobart Town. There are four newspapers published here. Between this place and the capital an excellent road has been made, on which, at convenient distances, there are inns, scarcely inferior to those of England in comfortable accommodation.

The principal articles of export are wool, whale oil, whalebone, sheep, &c. Wool is, however, the most considerable. The export of wool, in 1838, was nearly 2,500,000 lbs. the value of which was from 1*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.

The government of the colony is vested in a lieutenant-governor, who proposes all laws. He is assisted by an executive and a legislative council, the former of which consists of official members, and the latter official and non-official; but the whole of the members are appointed by the crown, and removable at pleasure by the governor. If any act is objected to by two-thirds of the legislative council, it cannot be passed. The judicature is composed of a supreme court with two judges, courts of quarter sessions, and courts of request. In all the populous districts there are police magistrates, who sit daily for the trial of petty offences.

Norfolk Island.—This island, the penal settlement of Australia, lies in the Pacific, 900 miles from Port Jackson, and is about 6 miles long, and nearly 4 miles broad. Its steep cliffs rise from the sea to an elevation of from 200 to 300 feet, and can be ascended by only a few paths. The surf roars continually on a number of large rocks, which are scattered near the shore, so that there are only three places where boats can land; and even these are sometimes unapproachable for weeks. Nearly the whole of the island is covered by a forest of gigantic timber-trees. It was first occupied as a settlement, the soil and climate being exceedingly good; but was abandc quence of the difficulty of landi cently it has been converted i jail for the worst class of crimi cipline is said to be so severe, have committed enormous cri view of being sent back to Aus they knew that certain death aw their arrival there.

NEW ZEALAND

The group which constitutes consists of three islands, two o considerable magnitude, and the They lie between 34½ and 47½ S 166 and 179 E. longitude, and miles distant from New Holland nearly 1000 miles in length, bu breadth does not exceed 100 mi is estimated at 62,160 square mil acres. The northern large islan elnomauwe; the southern, Tav the small island, which is the seems to have no native name, known by that of Stewart. Sin tion of this group by the Britis New Ulster, New Munster, and have been given to them; the fi (the largest) are separated by the second and third, by Foveau Strait. New Zealand was first Tasman, who mistook it for a po continent. It was only by the v that its real nature was ascertai

The winters in New Zealand a those in England, and the summ though more equably warm. I of vast extent, filled with very l timber of which is of an excellen among the plants are bindwee speedwell, sow-thistle, virgin's- bia, crane's-bill, cudweed, ki rushes: but the species of eac from those of Europe. One of able of the vegetable tribe is tenax, a species of flax, from wh manufacture large garments b of knotting. The leaves of th form a tolerable substitute for t resembling celery and scurvy-g ingredients in soup or in pottage the fern forms one of the princi subsistence among the natives. peds, except rats and dogs, wer the first visitants; but various since been introduced from Eur multiplied greatly. The native robust, and equal in stature to t ropeans. Their colour in genera in few deeper than that of a Spa been exposed to the sun, and is deep; and both sexes have good fi smear their heads and faces with hang in their ears beads, pieces bits of cloth. With regard to dr that the men do not deem it abo

sary either for warmth or for decency; yet they usually wear some covering. It consists of a mat made of flax, which is very fine and silky, and skilfully woven by the women. It is thrown over the shoulders, and another mat, of the same substance and texture, is fastened round the waist by a belt. In winter, at night, or in wet weather, they use a very coarse kind of mat, which is very warm, and impervious to rain, and so large as to envelop the whole body. The dress of the women is the same as that of the men; and they are slightly tattooed on the upper lip, in the centre of the chin, and above the eyebrows. Some of them have a few lines upon their legs, others upon their breasts, and some are tattooed nearly as much as the men. Many wear necklaces of sharks' teeth, or bunches of long beads, and some have triangular aprons, adorned with feathers or shells, fastened about the waist with a double or treble row of cords.

These islanders are ingenious in various arts: they are good weavers, and construct canoes with a very considerable degree of skill, and adorn them with some elegance; but we cannot highly praise their architectural dexterity. Some of their store-houses, indeed, are not ill built, and their ornamental carving is curious; but their dwelling-houses are neither substantial nor commodious. The houses of the chiefs are built upon the ground, not, like the store-houses, upon stages, or posts floored over; the floor and the space in front are neatly paved; but they are so low that few of the occupants can stand upright in them, and the small sliding door of entrance is the only aperture for light or air. The verandahs and carved work, however, being painted red, have a showy appearance. The huts of the inferior people are wretched, being very little better than sheds; but the practice of sleeping in the open air is so common, that it must be very bad weather that can force them to seek the shelter of their houses.

The government is aristocratical, being chiefly conducted by the chieftains and the elders. When the chiefs prepare for a military expedition, the war-dance is ordered to be practised. In the common dance there is a striking air of violence; but the war-dance is still more accordant to the ferocious character of the nation. "It is, perhaps," says Captain Cruise, "as frightful an exhibition as can be witnessed. The performers, who are entirely naked, assemble in an irregular group, and jump perpendicularly from the ground, as high and as frequently as possible, uttering a most piercing and savage yell. As the dance continues, their countenances become violently distorted; and they appear under the influence of an ungovernable frenzy, which, they suppose, inspires them with courage to attempt the most daring actions." The weapons of the New Zealanders formerly were spears, various kinds of clubs, and a sort of battle-axe; but these have been nearly superseded by muskets and English bill-hooks. Though the musket is the weapon which they prefer to all others, they are by no means proficients in the use of it. For defence against invaders, many villages had strongholds, called hippahs, which were always erected on an eminence. Cook describes one which he visited on the east coast, and which was placed on a high point of land projecting into the sea, as wholly inaccessible on the three sides on which it was enclosed by water, while it was defended on the land side by a ditch of 14 feet deep, having a bank raised behind it which added 8 feet more to the glacis. Both banks of the ditch are also, in general, surrounded by palisades, about 10 feet or 12 feet high, formed of strong stakes bound together with withies, and driven very deep into the ground. Within the innermost palisade is usually a stage, supported by posts, from which the besieged throw down darts and stones upon their assailants; and, in addition to this, the interior space, which is generally of considerable extent, is sometimes divided into numerous petty eminences, each surrounded by its palisade, and communicating with each other by narrow lanes, admitting of being easily stopped up, in case of the enemy having effected his entrance within the general enclosure. The only road to the stronghold is by a single narrow and steep passage. This kind of fortification is now, however, falling into disuse.

Though the New Zealanders are terribly addicted to war, and carry it on with brutal ferocity, and though they have the additional demerit of cannibalism, they are not without some good points in their character. "To the members of their own tribe, or those whom they regard as friends, they are not only mild and courteous, but display the fondest attachment and most tender sensibility. Families live together in great harmony, and are seen assembled in pleasing and harmonious groups. On the death of their relations, they exhibit the most impassioned and affecting symptoms of grief, cutting their faces with pieces of shell or bone, till the blood flows and mixes with their tears. Several even of the females, who had formed an irregular connexion with the sailors, showed them every mark of faithful and tender attachment." They have considerable acuteness of intellect, and are eager to learn the useful arts of civilized life, to accomplish which they will make even painful sacrifices. Since 1814, missionaries have been established at New Zealand, whose labours have produced a beneficial influence on the natives, and made a considerable number of converts.

In 1825, a Company was formed in London, by which an attempt was made to colonize New Zealand; but the project failed. Nothing was done till 1836, when another Company was established under better auspices. This Company, which bears the name of the New Zealand, has followed up the work of colonization with equal energy and prudence. It has already

chosen Cook's Strait, between the two large islands, as the scene of its operations, and has already conveyed thither about 5000 settlers, and founded the towns of Wellington and New Plymouth. The colony is now in a flourishing state. Another town, called Auckland, is also rising, on the west side of the northern island. In 1840, Great Britain assumed the sovereignty of New Zealand, and a bishop has since been appointed, to exercise ecclesiastical authority in the three islands which constitute New Zealand.

Bending our course in a north-north-west direction from New Zealand, we reach the island of NEW CALEDONIA, which lies between 20 and 23 degrees S. latitude, and 164 and 167 degrees E. longitude. It is about 250 miles long, but not more than 60 miles broad, and is encircled by coral reefs, which extend to a very considerable distance from the land. The coast rises gradually from the shore to a mountain range which intersects the whole of the island longitudinally, and raises its conical peaks to an elevation of from 2000 to 3000 feet. Though New Caledonia does not possess the exuberant fertility of some of the neighbouring islands, it is not sterile. The population, which is black, is variously estimated at from 25,000 to 50,000. They live chiefly on yams and fish, and occasionally indulge in eating their enemies. Around New Caledonia there are several small isles, among which are those of Pines, Sebert, and Balabea.

Steering to the north-east, after passing a minor cluster, called the Loyalty Isles, we reach the considerable group to which Cook gave the name of the NEW HEBRIDES. It consists of several islands, the principal of which are Espiritu Santo (the largest of them,) Mallicollo, Sandwich, Erromanga, and Tanna. They lie between 14 and 20 degrees S. latitude, and 166 and 170 degrees E. longitude. Espiritu Santo, which is 70 miles long by 25 miles broad, was discovered by Quiros, in 1605. Mallicollo, the inhabitants of which are the ugliest of the South Sea islanders, has a length of more than 60 miles, and a breadth of 28 miles. Erromanga, Tanna, and the other islands, are of less dimensions. Some of them are of volcanic origin, and there is still an active volcano in Tanna. They are in general fertile, and have a great variety of vegetable productions. The natives are of the negro race, and devour the enemies whom they have slain. The total population has been estimated at 200,000. At the southern extremity of this archipelago is a small group called Banks Islands. North of these are the isles of Santa Cruz, on one of which, named Vanikoro, the vessels of the unfortunate La Perouse were wrecked.

Proceeding in a north-west course from the New Hebrides, we arrive at an extensive range of islands, which bears the name of SOLOMON ISLANDS, and NEW GEORGIA ARCHIPELAGO, and stretches between 5 and 10½ degrees S. latitude, and 154½ and 162½ E. longitude. They were first discovered by Mendana, in 1567, after which they remained unnoticed by Europeans for two centuries. They have since been visited by Carteret, Bougainville, and others; but many of them have not yet been approached by navigators. Indeed, our knowledge of the whole of them is very imperfect. The natives are of the black Papuan race, and believed to be cannibals. They excel in the construction of their canoes, which are of great magnitude. The principal islands are S. Cristoval, Guadalcanar, Georgia, Ysabel, Choiseul, Bougainville, and Bouka. The shores are steep, and the interior parts rugged and mountainous, but the soil is fertile. Mount Lammer, in the island of Guadalcanar, is said to rival in loftiness the Peak of Teneriffe. The small isle of Sesarga is said to contain a volcano.

Pursuing our voyage westward, from the most northerly point of the Solomon Islands, after having traversed about two degrees of longitude, we reach an extensive archipelago, consisting of the large islands of New Britain and New Ireland, and many smaller, all of which lie off the north-eastern coast of Papua. New Britain, New Ireland, and New Hanover, form a sort of irregular semi-ellipsis, of which the western point is divided from New Papua by Dampier's Strait. Beyond the western side of New Hanover, which is the other extremity of the curve, but at a considerable distance, are the Admiralty Isles, twenty-five in number, of which Basco is the principal. New Britain, which is long and comparatively narrow, has, on its southern side, a coast line 350 miles in extent. It is situated between 5 and 7½ degrees S. latitude, and 148 and 153 degrees E. longitude, and is separated from Papua by Dampier's Strait, and from New Ireland by St. George's Channel. New Ireland, which is more than 170 miles long, is not wider than 12 miles, on an average. New Hanover is about 30 miles in length. The whole of these islands are mountainous, but are all well wooded and fertile, and yield a great variety of productions. The natives are of the Papuan and Malayan races, but chiefly of the former. From the observations made by Carteret, it appears that there is an active volcano in New Britain.

PAPUA, PAPUASIA, or NEW GUINEA, which is separated by Dampier's Strait from the islands last described, and from Australia by Torres Strait, ranks next in magnitude to Australia. It extends from 10 degrees S. latitude to the equator, and from 130 to 149½ degrees E. longitude; and is about 1300 miles in length, with a variable breadth of from 250 to 500 miles in the broadest part. But there are spots where the breadth from sea to sea is not more than 18 miles; which arises from the western portion being, as it were, composed of two separate islands joined to the main one by narrow isthmuses. One of these isthmuses is formed by a gulf called Geelwick, which, on the northern side, penetrates 200 miles into the land. The other isthmus is made by a

smaller gulf, 100 miles long, called M'Cluer's Bay, which enters from the west. There are, perhaps, few countries of which less is known than of New Guinea. No traveller has made his way into the interior, and even the coasts have been very imperfectly explored. There seems, however, to be reason for believing that this is a beautiful and fertile land. Hogs, wild cats, and dogs, appear to be the only animals. There are at least two races of people in Papua—the Papuas and the Haraforas. The former resemble the Australians in colour and woolly hair, but vary from them in some respects, they being stouter, and not so short and slender. They inhabit the western coast, and build their houses upon piles in the water. The Haraforas, who dwell in the interior of the western half of the island, and on some parts of the southern coast, live in huts built between the branches of high trees, entered by a ladder, which they draw up at night. They are stronger and more active than the Papuas, are of a lighter colour, and have straight hair. They are cannibals, but have made some progress in agriculture. A considerable trade is carried on with the northern coast by the Chinese, and with the southern shores by the natives of Ceram, Lant, and Goram Isles.

Passing along the northern coast of Papua, and through Dampier's Strait, we terminate our Australasian voyage at the archipelago which bears the name of Louisiade. This group of islands, which is yet imperfectly known, lies to the south-east of Papua, and extends about 400 miles in length, and 150 miles in breadth. It is doubtful whether some part of Louisiade is not really a portion of the eastern peninsula of Papua. This group was discovered by Bougainville in 1768, and was visited by D'Entrecasteaux, in 1793. The navigation is rendered dangerous by numerous coral reefs and islets. None of the islands are large, but they appear to be fertile. The natives are of the Papuan race, are averse from holding intercourse with foreign vessels, and are supposed to be cannibals. Their war canoes are of great magnitude, and well constructed. None of the islands are of a large size; the principal are those of Trobicand, South East, D'Entrecasteaux, and Rossel.

POLYNESIA.

Under this denomination, which signifies many islands, are classed a multitude of single and clustered isles, which are dispersed over the North and South Pacific; excluding, however, those which are ranked under the head of Australia. The Polynesian groups extend, on the north, to the tropic of Cancer, and on the south, to that of Capricorn. On the side of Asia, the boundary is formed by a line drawn from the tropic of Cancer to the equator, in 135. E. longitude, continued along the equator to 170. and descending by that degree to the tropic of Capricorn. On the American side, the whole of Polynesia lies within 130. W. longitude.

Commencing our tour in 20. N. latitude, and 156. W. longitude, we find Owhyee, or Hawaii, which is one of ten islands called the Sandwich Islands. It has 81,000 inhabitants, and is about 98 miles long, and 78 miles broad. The names of the other isles are Oahu, Maui, Tauai, Morokai, Ransi, Morokini, Nihau, Taura, and Tahurawe. Of these the largest are Hawaii, Tauai, and Maui. Taura is only a rocky islet. The whole population is probably above 150,000. The climate is less sultry than that of the West Indies, nor has it their violent hurricanes. The vegetable productions resemble those of the Tonga and Society Islands. The quadrupeds found by the English were hogs, dogs, and rats; to which have been added the horse, bull, sheep, goat, rabbit, and mouse. Though the birds are numerous, the variety is not great. Some are only visitants; others are residents. The tropic bird is common, and its beautiful rose-coloured tail-feathers are highly valued by the natives. The yellow wing and tail-feathers of the uho are also greatly admired as appendages to articles of dress. The insects are few; small copper-coloured lizards are sometimes seen, but there are no serpents. Sharks are too common along the coast: the bonito, flying-fish, red and grey mullets, and pearl oysters, abound; and corals and zoophytes vary the maritime scene.

Geologically speaking, the islands may be described as a group of volcanoes rising amidst coral banks and reefs. On the island of Hawaii are some remarkable mountains, the loftiest of which is Mouna Keah. It is about 16,000 feet high, and is always capped with snow. Its eruptions have long ceased; but the volcano of Peli, on the flank of Mouna Roa, is frequently and dreadfully active. From the edge of the crater, there is a downward view for more than 1300 feet, over rocks of lava and masses of sulphur, to a rugged plain, where many cones, raised by the action of the fire below, throw up columns of flame, while floods of fire slowly wind through ashes. Within the sunken plain, the stream from below, by its

condensation, forms pools, to which wild birds resort, and in which the water is fresh and cool.

The best harbour at Hawaii is Byron Bay: it is not, indeed, perfectly easy of access, but it leads into an extensive and safe basin. The north-east coast of Hawaii is very remarkable. From Toarra Point the land gradually rises to lofty, abrupt, dark-coloured cliffs, between which numerous cascades pour down in every direction. This kind of scenery continues for about ten miles, when it terminates in two valleys of extraordinary richness and beauty. The chief town in this island is Kairua, where the governor occupies a very good house, built in the European style, near a fort which has superseded a famous morai. This town has a population of 3000. It was on this island that Captain Cook, in the year 1779, lost his life. A cutter having been stolen, he laid an embargo on the canoes, and was proceeding to take the king on board as an hostage; but, on the natives resisting, he gave up the point. They did not seem disposed to offer him any personal injury, before it was reported that one of their chiefs had been shot; then they attacked him with stones; and, when he had killed one of the assailants, he was stabbed in the back, and pierced with many wounds, to the great regret not only of his countrymen, but even of the islanders themselves, when cool reflection succeeded the transient burst of indignation.

Next to Hawaii, the island of Maui, or Mowee, is the most populous; and the district of Lahaina, in that island, is particularly fertile and picturesque. As it seldom rains, irrigation is found necessary; and therefore water is brought from the mountains in stone courses, which are carefully closed every evening. Few of the huts are more than 10 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 6 feet high; and the owners are obliged to crawl into them. In the summer these huts are not generally used, for the people are then content with the shelter of the bread-fruit tree. A church has been built here for the use of the new Christians; and the chiefs have given a house and some land to the minister, to whose exhortations the people listen with profound attention.

The seat of government for the Sandwich Island kingdom is now at Honoruru, in the isle of Oahu, or Woahoo. This town has some regular streets, a house built of stone for the court, and several commodious wooden houses, the frames of which were imported from North America; but the habitations in general are rudely constructed of poles fastened with cords made of the twisted fibres of various plants, and covered with broad leaves or a long kind of grass. The town contains about 8000 inhabitants. Near the entrance of the harbour is a well-built fort, furnished with artillery; and there is a pier to facilitate the unloading of vessels. When Captain Cook visited Hawaii, its sovereign was Terreeoboo, or Teraiopu, who claimed authority over other isl checked by the independent j chieftains. Kevalao, one of his his pretensions to kingly power, prevent the seizure of a part of his cousin Tamehameha, an ente It is said that they fought for 1781, and the contest was decide of Kevalao. On the arrival of couver, in 1792, Hawaii and Mau to Tamehameha; and he was the war with the kings of Taui and hope of securing British favou formal cession of Hawaii to Kin and from that time treated ou with peculiar kindness and res length procured a considerabl fire-arms and a number of schoo jugated the whole group of isla proved the country in point o promoted the mechanic arts, enc peans to establish shops, and e vessels to trade with China. To power he added the spiritual; and that he meditated the subversio but delayed to execute his religi because he thought they requi mature deliberation. He died in lamented by his subjects. His s Riho-Riho, unjustly and impud tized by the navigator Kotzebue stupid of all brutes, succeeded h menced his reign as Tamehame spirited and magnanimous act. E the isle of Taui, crushed the con rival chieftain, pardoned him, and friend. He then deliberated on religion, and resolved to desecrat destroy the idols, and put an end He was opposed in his views by chief, who even took up arms; bu the friend and minister of the l tacked and slew the rebel, whos carried off in triumph. The vic mander, and his brother Boki, declared themselves converts to and were baptised by the chaplai cinet, the French circumnavig missionaries from the United Sta allowed to erect a church in Oa the doctrines of Christianity and of literature, and to introduce printing.

After having governed for some hameha II., dreading the encroac the Russians and the people of States, and desirous of securing t of the British monarch, appointed regent of the islands, and underto of his wives, a voyage to England. received with every mark of attes not live to revisit their native co queen sickened of the measles: th had caught the infection, might p recovered; but her death gave

shock, that all the symptoms of his disorder were fatally aggravated. He died in 1824, in the 28th year of his age. He was succeeded by his brother Kiaukiauli, during whose minority the political ability of Karaimoku was exercised. Kiaukiauli now reigns, under the name of Tamehameha III., and is said to possess equal elegance of manners and benevolence of heart, and to be a sincere and enlightened Christian. Civilization has, indeed, made an almost miraculous progress in every class of society.

The nature of the government requires some notice. The king has the right of imposing taxes to maintain his household and support his dignity. He has the power of punishment, but cannot take away the life of a subject for a supposed offence, without the concurrence of twelve chiefs. He is not allowed to deprive, at will, the chiefs or the gentry of their lands, but must suffer them to be inherited by the legitimate offspring. The people are free, and not bound to the service of a particular chieftain, or proprietor of land. We are not precisely informed of the prevailing modes of punishment; but it appears that high treason is deemed a capital offence; for a chief who revolted from the minor king was condemned to death, and, being permitted to choose his manner of atoning for his crime, preferred drowning.

With regard to the personal appearance of the islanders, we may observe, that in general they are of the middle size, and are stoutly and well formed, with long rather than round visages, a kind of olive and sometimes reddish-brown complexions, and good eyes and teeth. They usually wear a piece of coarse cloth, which passes between the legs, and is fastened round the waist; the women sometimes throw loose pieces of fine cloth over their shoulders, like the Otaheitean females; but some of the chiefs, the women of rank, and many others, now array themselves nearly in the European mode. Both sexes wear necklaces, consisting of small shells strung together; and bracelets of various kinds also adorn the women. Tattooing is not so common as it was; but it is still practised, and the punctures are neatly executed in various forms. Mats or short cloaks are used by the men, as an indication that they are preparing for war: they are made of the leaves of the pandanus, and, like their cloth, are beautifully worked in various patterns, and stained with different colours.

In point of intellect, they are by no means deficient: they have strong powers of observation, and many can draw conclusions as justly as a logician. They are inquisitive from a real desire of information, and they generally retain what they learn. They are cheerful and good humoured, without being giddy or volatile, and are mild and affectionate in their social characters. The married persons, in general, are chaste; and even the unmarried are not so licentious as the inhabitants of many other islands in the Pacific. Among their amusements we may reckon games of chance, races between boys and girls, the habit of swimming and diving amidst a violent surf, with a floating-board attached to the body; pugilism and the practice of wrestling; also dancing and minstrelsy: the dancing, although it exhibits great activity of motion, chiefly consists in the advance of one step in the front or in the rear, to the right or the left, while two calabashes fastened together serve for a drum, and dogs' teeth, appended to the buskins of the dancer, rattle in unison; and the songs of the bards, though not unpleasing, do not display much of talent or elegance.

Steering from the Sandwich Islands towards the Asiatic coast, after having passed several unimportant islets we reach the group called the Ladrone, or Marian Islands, which has already been described under the head of "Asia." Turning our course southward, we arrive at the Palaos, or Pelew Islands, more than twenty in number, which are almost surrounded by a coral reef. The largest of them, named Babeltoup, is nearly sixty miles in circumference. They were hardly known to Europeans till 1783, when Captain Wilson was wrecked upon one of them. These islands are long, narrow, and a considerable part of them is covered with well-wooded hills. The climate is temperate and agreeable; the soil is fertile, producing sugar-canes, cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, yams, plantains, bananas, oranges, lemons, and limes; and the surrounding seas abound with turtles, and the greatest variety of shell and other fish. The natives, who are of the Malay race, are exceedingly good natured, stout and well made, and above the middle stature. Their complexions, though not black, are of a deeper tinge than the Indian copper-colour. The men in general wear no clothes, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa-nut, dyed with various shades of yellow. Prince Lee Boo, who was brought over to England by Captain Wilson, was a son of Abba Thule, the monarch of these islands.

Considerably to the west of the Pelew Islands, and extending nearly 2000 miles, are the Caroline Islands, or New Philippines, which were discovered by Lazeano, a Spanish navigator, in 1686. Hogoleu, the largest, is 80 miles long, and 35 miles broad. Yap, Walan, and Pounipet are the next in point of size. The inhabitants of some of the Carolinas resemble those of the Philippines; in others, particularly Ulea, they are more like the people of Pelew. They seem to enjoy some regularity of government; and, though they have no exterior worship, they listen to the councils of their priests, and believe in a future state. They have an idea of astronomy, which they consider as useful in navigation. In boat-

building they are more skilful than in the construction of houses, the latter being in general wretched huts, while their barks are neat and commodious. They, in fact, excel as sailors, and venture upon long and perilous voyages.

Leaving to the northward the Mulgrave, Gilbert, and Marshal groups, on which it is unnecessary to dwell, we cross to the south of the equator, and proceed to the FRIENDLY ISLANDS, so called by Cook, from the seemingly friendly nature of their inhabitants: as this character has, however, been found not to belong to them, the name of Tonga, the most flourishing of the islands, has since been given to the whole archipelago. This island, called Amsterdam, by its Dutch discoverers, is about fifty-five miles in circuit, and is nowhere more than eighty feet above the sea level. It is regularly laid out, for the people are diligent cultivators. Their yam and plantain fields are extensive; of the plantains they make bread, by burying them in the earth, while unripe, till they ferment, when they are taken up and made into balls. Their dwellings are merely thatched roofs, upheld by poles, and closed to windward by mats or interwoven cocoa-nut tree branches. The furniture consists of wooden stools, which serve for pillows; baskets, in which combs, fish-hooks, and tools are kept; and bowls, in which they prepare kava, an intoxicating liquor, from a species of pepper plant. Their canoes are neatly and skilfully made of the bread-fruit tree, and the double ones are even fit for distant navigation. Their military weapons are clubs, spears, and darts. The amusements are dancing both by day and night, singing, playing upon a bamboo flute, spear-throwing, wrestling, boxing, and shooting with bows and arrows at rats, which the common people frequently eat.

The people of these islands are of the middle stature; they are strongly made, and well proportioned, and their features not unpleasing. Their complexions are mostly a shade deeper than the copper-brown; but many have an olive hue. Both sexes dress nearly in the same manner: the chief garment, for those who are not of the lowest order, is a long or wide piece of cloth or matting, drawn round the body, and hanging from the breast half-way down the legs. The common people are content with small pieces, and many have only a kind of sash, made of the leaves of plants. The men are tattooed, but not the women. The latter are the chief makers of apparel, and other articles of ordinary use, and the mats which they make are fabricated very neatly, and sometimes in a way that is tastefully ornamental. Their decorations for the ears, neck, breast, and arms, are usually made by the men, from the teeth of sharks, the bones of birds, shells, &c. The men are also the cooks; and this branch of business is considered as a regular profession, being carried to the extent of preparing between thirty and forty different kinds of dishes.

In most of the islands the government is monarchical, and the various ranks under royalty are four; namely, the chiefs or nobles, the ministers or advisers of those great men, the superintendents of the public morals, and the bulk of the people. There are some laws for the security of property; but the general government is arbitrary. A belief in a plurality of gods, and an idea of the existence of the soul in a more refined state, after its separation from the body, mark the prevailing religion; and the priests are supposed to be divinely inspired, but they do not officiate in regular worship. A shocking part of their system consists in human sacrifices. These practices, however, are declining, as is also, we believe, the strange custom of the taboo. This implies the prohibition of anything, in consequence of a supposed connexion with religion. For instance, intrusion into a consecrated place is forbidden; the touch of a chieftain's dead body, the eating of certain kinds of food at particular times, and other acts unobjectionable in themselves, are supposed to require penance or expiation before the reputed offender can mingle as before with society.

These islands have a fine climate, are fertile, and are not infested with wild beasts; and it is said that they have no venomous creatures of the insect or reptile kinds, except scorpions and centipedes. Among the birds are parrots, cuckoos, king-fishers, herons, curlews, landrails, swallows, pigeons, and plovers.

To the north-west of the Tonga Islands are those which are inhabited by the Feejis, an ingenious but savage race, fond of war, and known to be addicted to the practice of cannibalism, and to the most cruel acts of superstition. The two largest are named Sandalwood or Paou, and Navite Levou or Ambou. The small ones are numerous. Some geographers have reckoned the Feejis among the offspring of the Malays; but this appears to be an erroneous opinion, as they bear strong traces of Ethiopian extraction.

The NAVIGATORS' ISLANDS, which were discovered by M. de Bougainville, in 1678, and explored by the unfortunate Perouse, are ten in number, situated to the northward of the Tonga Islands, between 10 and 15 degrees S. latitude, and 185 and 195 degrees E. longitude. Opoun, Leone, and Fanfoue, are small; but Maouna, Oyolava, and Pola, may be reckoned among the largest and finest islands of the South Sea. They all appear to be volcanic. Combining the advantages of a soil fruitful without culture, and a climate that renders clothing unnecessary, they produce in abundance the bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, banana, guava, and orange. The inhabitants are a strong and handsome people, of the Malay race. Their usual height is 5 feet 10 inches, or 6 feet; but their stature is less astonishing than their

colossal proportions. The men are painted or tattooed, so that they appear at a distance as if they were clothed, though they go almost naked, having only a girdle of sea-weeds reaching to their knees. Their hair is very long, and they often twist it round their heads, and thus add to their native ferocity of countenance. The women are tall, slender, and not without grace, though in general disgusting from their gross effrontery and indecency. The houses of the islanders have even a kind of elegance; and they finish their work very neatly, with tools made of a fine and compact species of basaltes. They are almost continually on the water, and do not even go from one village to another, except in canoes; on which account M. de Bougainville gave them the appellation of navigators. In their disposition they appear to be thievish, treacherous, and ferocious. The captain and ten other Frenchmen, belonging to one of Perouse's ships, were wantonly murdered by the natives of Maouna.

Otaheite, one of the Society Islands, was discovered in 1606, by Quiros, who called it Sagittaria. Captain Wallis, who visited it in 1767, and believed himself to be its first discoverer, called it King George's Island. It was Cook who restored to it its native name. It consists of two peninsulas, joined by a narrow isthmus, and is surrounded by a coral reef, which forms several excellent bays and harbours. The face of the country is singular; for a belt of low land almost encompasses each peninsula, and behind it the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of each division, and these form mountains visible thirty leagues off. The soil, except upon the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by many rivulets, and covered with fruit-trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The belts of low land are in few places more than one mile and a half broad; and these, with some of the valleys, are almost the only inhabited spots.

The people, who are of the Malay race, have clear olive complexions: the men are strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior stature, but handsome and very amorous; and both sexes are particularly attentive to personal cleanliness. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and most of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses in general are oblong, with a shelving roof supported by three parallel rows of posts. The usual height within is about nine feet, and the eaves on each side reach within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats, which serve as seats and beds. It must be observed, however, that many houses have been built on this island with greater substantiality and convenience, since the missionaries and other Europeans have extended their connexions with the nations of the Pacific.

The inhabitants of this and the neighbouring islands, when they were first visited by Europeans, had no tools made of metal; and those which they used were formed of stones or bones. They had no tame animals except hogs, dogs, and poultry; but the English have since supplied them with bulls, cows, sheep, goats, horses, geese, ducks, peacocks, turkeys, and also cats. The only wild animals are tropical birds, peroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds; rats and a very few serpents.

Unlike the people of most other countries, the Otaheitan women cut their hair short round their ears; and the men, except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water, suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. The youth of both sexes, when they are about 12 or 14 years of age, are tattooed on various parts, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three sorts, made of the bark of three kinds of trees. The finest and whitest species is made of the paper-mulberry-tree, and this is chiefly worn by persons of distinction. Another manufacture is matting, some of which is finer than any in Europe; the coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker-work; their baskets are of innumerable patterns, and many of them are exceedingly neat.

Among the Otaheitans a subordination is established, which resembles the early state of Europe under the feudal system. When a general attack is made upon the island, or it is merely threatened, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of warriors. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs, about six or seven feet long, made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations; and the new ones are more skilfully constructed than their former vessels.

With regard to their religion at the time when they became known to Europeans, it appears that they adored a supreme God, and at the same time acknowledged a number of subordinate deities. They believed the soul to be immaterial and immortal; that, during the pangs of death, it flutters about the lips, then ascends, and is eaten by the Deity; that it continues in this state for some time; after which it takes its passage to a certain place, destined to receive the souls of human beings, and has existence in eternal night, or rather in a kind of dawn or twilight. Their only places of worship were the morais, or receptacles of the dead. Here they offered fruit and animal food to the Deity, and sometimes sacrificed

their fellow-creatures, chiefly criminals, for the same purpose of propitiation. But, in consequence of the zealous exhortations of the missionaries, who have introduced Christianity among them, these practices are falling into disuse; and the crime of infanticide, so prevalent among the profligate associations devoted to promiscuous concubinage, has been eradicated by the same pious influence.

The chief Society Islands beside Otaheite are Huaheine, Ulietea, Otaha, and Bolabola. The first is about thirty leagues to the north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are the same; but vegetation appears to be more forward by a month. The inhabitants seem to be more stoutly made than those of Otaheite; the women are fairer; but in dress, language, and almost every other circumstance, they are the same. Their houses are neat, and they have boat-houses which are remarkably large. Ulietea is eight leagues to the south-west of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but is neither so fertile nor so populous. The principal refreshments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa-nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls. Otaha is divided from Ulietea by a strait which, in the narrowest part, is not above two miles broad. This island affords two good harbours, and its produce is similar, in species and quality, to that of the other islands. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks and small islands, and is distinguished by a lofty mountain in the centre. In one respect, it resembles our colony in New South Wales, as the earliest inhabitants are said to have been banished malefactors. In all these islands Christianity has made considerable progress.

Of the islands called the Marquesas, or Mendana archipelago, situated to the north-east of the Society Isles, and extending between 7 degrees 50 minutes and 10 degrees 30 minutes south latitude, and 139 and 141 degrees east longitude, the most considerable are Noukahiva, which has a circumference of 70 miles; Ohivaoa or Dominica, Owahouga or Washington, Taowatte, or Santa Christina. Dominica is about 40 miles in circuit, and its inhabitants, in language, manners, and religion, resemble those of Otaheite; but the women are more distinguished by personal beauty, and some of them are nearly as fair as Europeans. The natives of the Marquesas excel in the art of tattooing their bodies, and have the demerit of being cannibals. Both Dominica and Santa Christina seem to be volcanic islands: they abound in rugged hills, rising in ridges directly from the sea, and separated by deep valleys which, as well as the sides of the hills, are clothed with fine trees. The French have very recently taken possession of two of these islands.

About 700 miles to the south-east of Otaheite, Captain Vancouver discovered an island called Oparo, which forms part of a group called the Austral Isles. "Its principal character," he says, "is a cluster of high, craggy mountains, forming in several places most romantic pinnacles, with perpendicular cliffs nearly from their summits to the sea." The tops of six of the highest hills seemed to him to be fortified places, each having a sort of block-house with palisades. The inhabitants whom he saw were exceedingly well made, and had cheerful open countenances; they had no other covering than a wreath round the waist, formed of a long-leaved plant, and were not tattooed. Their canoes were neatly made: much better, indeed, than could have been expected from the wretched tools used in the construction of them.

Eastward of the Society Islands, between the parallels of 14 and 26 degrees south, there exists a multitudinous group of islands, and what may be termed incipient islands, which has the very appropriate appellation of the Dangerous, or Low Archipelago. The natives call them the Paamuto Islands. The major part, if not the whole, of these isles is the work of the coral insect. They consist of narrow ribbons of coral rock, generally describing a circular figure, and enclosing a lagoon, in many instances of great depth. These ribbons rarely exceed an elevation of ten feet above the sea, and half a mile in breadth; they all have the pandanus, and some the cocoa-nut tree, upon them. The roar of the surf breaking on them may be heard at a distance of six or eight miles off, at night. Many of them are inhabited, but not all by the same race.

Pitcairn's Island, the most southerly of this group, has acquired celebrity by a singular circumstance. It has a circumference of seven miles, and its rocky sides rise precipitously from the ocean. Some of its rocks, the loftiest of which is 1109 feet above the sea, are of volcanic origin. It was discovered by Cook in 1777. Nothing more was heard of it in Europe for thirty-two years, when an American captain found it inhabited by persons who spoke the English language. The mystery was solved in 1814. The colony consisted of the descendants of the mutineers, and their Otaheitan wives, whom, in 1789, Fletcher Christian prevailed upon to assist him in seizing the Bounty. Their offspring had increased to nearly fifty in number, and were remarkable for their morality, piety, and simplicity. In 1831, when they amounted to eighty-seven, fears began to be entertained that the supply of water would be deficient; and they were consequently removed to Otaheite. They were, however, soon dissatisfied with their new abode, and they returned to Pitcairn's Island in the following year; but, unfortunately, they carried back with them a habit of drinking spirits, which cannot fail to have a baneful effect on their moral and social character.

Easter Island, which lies nearly equidis-

tant from the coast of Chilé and Otaheite, has a circumference of 35 miles. It is evidently volcanic—the hills, which are lofty, being chiefly lava; and there being an extinct volcano at the southern extremity of the island. It contains some remarkable monuments, consisting of pyramidal heaps of stones; and on scattered platforms are colossal statues, or rather busts, which display considerable art. It has been supposed by some, that these figures were the work of men superior in mechanic skill to the present race of inhabitants. The plantations of the natives are well managed; they regularly cultivate the yam, banana, and sugar-cane, and appear to be acute and intelligent.

Such is our view of the world, and such are our delineations of its wonders both in nature and art; and such are our portraitures of its varied and multiplied inhabitants. Within the narrow limits of a compendium we have concentrated the essence of a great number of copious volumes; and, as we have studiously aimed at truth and accuracy, we rest assured that the purity of our intentions will concur with the obvious difficulty of our task, to suggest a ready excuse for errors and imperfections.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

CONTAINING THE NAMES AND SITUATIONS OF THE CHIEF CITIES, TOWNS, SEAS, GULFS, BAYS, STRAITS, CAPES, AND OTHER REMARKABLE PLACES, IN THE KNOWN WORLD; COLLECTED FROM THE MOST AUTHENTIC CHARTS, MAPS, AND OBSERVATIONS.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries or Seas.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Aalborg	North Jutland	Denmark	Europe	57 3 N.	9 57 E.
Aarhus	North Jutland	Denmark	Europe	56 10 N.	10 14 E.
Abbeville	Somme	France	Europe	50 7 N.	1 50 E.
Aberdeen	Aberdeenshire	Scotland	Europe	57 9 N.	2 6 W.
Abo	Finland	Russia	Europe	60 27 N.	22 20 E.
Abonkir	Bairah	Lower Egypt	Africa	31 20 N.	30 17 E.
Acapulco		Mexico	N. Amer.	16 50 N.	99 49 W.
Achen	Sumatra	India	Asia	5 36 N.	95 19 E.
Acre, Cape	Syria	Asiatic Turkey	Asia	32 55 N.	35 6 E.
Aden	Yemen	Arabia	Asia	12 43 N.	45 14 E.
Adrianople	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41 45 N.	26 27 E.
Adriatic Sea, or Gulf of Venice		Between Italy and Turkey	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Adventure Isle		Pacific Ocean		17 5 S.	144 17 W.
Agde	Herault	France	Europe	43 18 N.	3 28 E.
Agen	Aveyron	France	Europe	44 12 N.	0 36 E.
Agues (lights)	Scilly Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49 54 N.	6 19 W.
St Agnes	Agra	India	Asia	27 12 N.	78 17 E.
Agra	Mouths of the Rhone	France	Europe	43 31 N.	5 27 E.
Aix	Somme	France	Europe	41 55 N.	8 44 E.
Ajaccio	Bessarabia	Russia	Europe	46 12 N.	30 44 E.
Akerman	New York	United States	N. Amer.	42 38 N.	73 44 W.
Albany	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36 11 N.	37 10 E.
Aleppo	Lower Egypt		Africa	31 13 N.	29 55 E.
Alexandria	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36 8 N.	5 26 W.
Algiers	Algiers	Barbary	Africa	36 48 N.	3 5 E.
Alicant	Valencia	Spain	Europe	38 21 N.	0 29 W.
Altona	Holstein	Denmark	Europe	53 33 N.	0 57 E.
Amboyna	Amboyna Isle	India	Asia	3 40 S.	129 15 E.
Amiens	Somme	France	Europe	49 53 N.	2 18 E.
Amoy	Fuh-kien	China	Asia	24 10 N.	118 10 E.
Amsterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 22 N	4 53 E.
Amsterdam, New	Berbice	Guiana	America	6 20 N.	57 15 W.
Amsterdam Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		20 15 S.	174 31 E.
Ancona	March of Ancona	Italy	Europe	43 39 N.	13 29 E.
Angers	Maine and Loire	France	Europe	47 28 N.	0 33 W.
Angra	Tercera Isle	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38 39 N.	27 12 W.
Anholt	Aarhus	Denmark	Europe	56 44 N.	11 39 E.
Antioch	Syria	Turkey	Asia	36 10 N.	36 40 E.
Antwerp	Brabant	Belgium	Europe	51 13 N.	4 24 E.
Appletree	New Castle	Spain	Europe	40 2 N.	3 36 W.
Archangel	Archangel	Russia	Europe	64 34 N.	40 43 E.
Archipelago		Isles of Greece	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Arica	Arequipa	Peru	S. America	18 27 S.	70 18 W.
Ascension Isle		S. Atlantic Ocean	Africa	7 57 S.	13 58 W.
Astracan	Astracan	Russia	Asia	46 21 N.	48 2 E.
Athens	Livadia	Turkey	Europe	37 58 N.	23 46 E.
Augsburg	Upper Danube	Bavaria	Europe	48 22 N.	10 55 E.
St. Augustin	East Florida	United States	N. Amer.	30 8 N.	81 35 W.
St. Augustin	Madagascar	S. Indian Sea	Africa	23 35 S.	43 8 E.
Aurora Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		15 8 S.	168 17 E.
Ava	Ava	Birmah	Asia	20 25 N.	95 30 E.
Avignon	Vaucluse	France	Europe	43 57 N.	4 48 E.
Avranches	Channel	France	Europe	48 41 N.	1 21 W.
Babelmandeb Cape	Yemen	Arabia	Asia	12 40 N.	43 31 E.
Bagdad	Arabian Irac	Turkey	Asia	33 19 N.	44 24 E.
Bahama (Grand)	West Indies	England	America	26 43 N.	78 56 W.
Balbec	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33 30 N.	37 0 E.
Baltic Sea	between Germ. and Sweden		Europe		
Baltimore	Maryland	N. America	America	39 21 N.	77 48 W.
Banda Isle		Ind. Archipelago	Asia	4 31 S.	130 0 E.
Barcelona	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	41 21 N.	2 10 E.
Bardeur	Channel	France	Europe	49 40 N.	1 15 W.
Basle	Basle	Switzerland	Europe	47 34 N	7 35 E.
Basse-Terre	Guadaloupe	Caribbean Sea	N. Amer	15 59 N.	61 45 W.
Bastia	Corsica	Italy	Europe	42 31 N.	9 27 E.
Batavia	Java	India	Asia	6 8 S.	106 52 E.
Bath	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51 22 N.	2 16 W.
Bay of Bengal	Coast of India		Asia	Indian Ocean.	
Bay of Biscay	Coast of France		Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Bayonne	Lower Pyrenees	France	Europe	43 29 N.	1 28 W.
Beachy Head	Sussex	England	Europe	50 44 N.	0 15 E.
Behring's Isle	Sea of Kamstchatka	Kamstchatka	Asia	55 36 N.	167 46 E.
Belgrade	Servia	Turkey	Europe	45 0 N.	21 20 E.
Belleisle	Morbihan	France	Europe	47 17 N.	3 5 W.
Bencoulen	Sumatra	India	Asia	3 48 S.	102 0 E.
Bender	Bessarabia	Russia	Europe	46 50 N.	29 36 E.
Berlin	Brandenburg	Germany	Europe	52 32 N.	13 22 E.
Bermuda Isles		Atlantic Ocean	N. Amer.	32 22 N.	64 30 W.
Berne	Berne	Switzerland	Europe	46 57 N.	7 26 E.
Berwick	Berwickshire	Scotland	Europe	55 46 N.	1 59 W.
Besancon	Doubs	France	Europe	47 14 N.	6 3 E.
Bilbao	Biscay	Spain	Europe	43 26 N.	3 18 W.
Birmingham	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52 30 N.	1 50 W.
Black, or Euxine Sea	Turkey in Europe and		Asia		
Bogota		Columbia	S. America	4 10 N.	73 50 W.
Boiadur Cape		Atlantic	W. coast of Africa	26 12 N.	14 27 W.

Aicherets	Kamstchatka	Russia	Asia	52	54	N.	156	42	E.	Canton	Canton	China	Asia	23	8 N.	113	3 E.
Bologna	Bolognese	Italy	Europe	44	30	N.	11	22	E.	Cape Clear		Irish Sea	Europe	51	25 N.	9	29 W.
Bombay	Bombay Isle	India	Asia	18	54	N.	72	56	E.	Cape Comorin		India	Asia	8	5 N.	77	44 E.
Bona	Constantina	Algiers	Africa	36	48	N.	7	49	E.	Cape Corse	Fantee country	Gold-coast	Africa	5	18 N.	2	25 W.
Bonifacio	Corsica	Mediterranean	Europe	41	23	N.	9	9	E.	Cape Finisterre	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42	54 N.	9	16 W.
Bornholm Isle		Baltic Sea	Europe	55	18	N.	14	48	E.	Cape of Good Hope		Cafraria	Africa	34	29 S.	18	23 E.
Boston	New England	United States	N. Amer.	42	22	N.	70	59	W.	Cape Horn	Terra del Fuego Isl.		S. America	55	58 S.	67	21 W.
Bourbon Isle		Indian Ocean	Africa	20	52	S.	55	30	E.	Cape Verd		Western coast of	Africa	14	44 N.	17	30 W.
Boulogne	Strait of Calais	France	Europe	50	44	N.	1	37	E.	Cape St. Vincent	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37	3 N.	8	59 W.
Bourdeaux	Gironde	France	Europe	44	50	N.	0	34	W	Caracas	Caracas	Venezuela	S. America	10	31 N.	67	5 W.
Breda	Brabant	Netherlands	Europe	51	35	N.	4	46	E.	Carcassone	Aude	France	Europe	43	13 N.	2	21 E.
Bremen	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	53	4	N.	8	48	E.	Carlscrona	Schouen	Sweden	Europe	56	7 N.	15	33 E.
Breslau	Silesia	King. of Prussia	Europe	51	6	N.	17	2	E.	Carmona	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	37	28 N.	6	40 W.
Brest	Finisterre	France	Europe	48	23	N.	4	29	W.	Carmel Cape	Syria	Turkey in Asia	Asia	32	51 N.	35	0 E.
Bridge Town	Barbadoes	Atlantic Ocean	N. Amer.	13	5	N.	59	41	W.	Carnicobar Isle	Nicobar Isles	Bay of Bengal	Asia	9	10 N.	92	56 E.
Brighton	Sussex	England	Europe	50	49	N.	0	8	W.	Carrickfergus	Antrim	Ireland	Europe	54	45 N.	5	45 W.
Bristol	Somersetshire	England	Europe	51	27	N.	2	35	W.	Carthagena	Murcia	Spain	Europe	37	36 N.	1	0 W.
Bruges	Flanders	Belgium	Europe	51	12	N.	3	13	E.	Carthagena	Rio Magdalena	New Granada	S. America	10	25 N.	75	30 W.
Brunswick	Lower Saxony	Germany	Europe	52	16	N.	10	32	E.	Casan	Casan	Russia	Asia	55	48 N.	49	21 E.
Brussels	Brabant	Belgium	Europe	50	51	N.	4	22	E.	Caslin	Irak	Persia	Asia	36	11 N.	49	33 E.
Bucharest	Walachia	Turkey	Europe	44	27	N.	26	8	E.	Caspian Sea		to the N. of Persia	Asia				
Buda		Lower Hungary	Europe	47	30	N.	19	2	E.	Cassel	Hesse Cassel	Germany	Europe	51	19 N.	9	35 E.
Buenos Ayres	Buenos Ayres	Argentine Repub.	S. America	34	37	S.	58	24	W.	St. Catherine's Isle		Atlantic Ocean	S. America	27	35 S.	49	12 W.
Burgos	Old Castile	Spain	Europe	42	21	N.	2	40	W.	Cattegat		between Sweden & Denm.	Europe		Atlantic Ocean.		
Bushier	Farsistan	Persia	Asia	29	0	N.	47	40	E.	Cayenne	Cayenne Isle	Guiana	S. America	4	56 N.	52	15 W.
Bussora	Bagdad	Turkey in Asia	Asia	30	29	N.	47	40	E.	Cazamarca	Truxillo	Peru	S. America	7	9 S.	78	35 W.
Byron Bay		Hawaii between Asia and	America	19	43	N.	155	1	W.	Cefalonia Isle	Ionian Isles	Mediterranean	Europe	38	27 N.	20	33 E.
										Cette	Herault	France	Europe	43	23 N.	4	0 E.
Cader Idris	Merionethshire	North Wales	Europe	52	42	N.	4	28	W.	Chandernagor	Bengal	India	Asia	22	51 N.	88	29 E.
Cadiz	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36	32	N.	6	17	W	Charleston	South Carolina	United States	N. Amer.	32	45 N.	80	39 W.
Caen	Calvados	France	Europe	49	11	N.	0	21	W.	Charlton Isle		Hudson's Bay	N. Amer.	52	3 N.	79	0 W.
Caffa	Crimea	Russia	Europe	45	6	N.	35	13	E.	Chartres	Eure et Loire	France	Europe	48	27 N.	1	29 E.
Cagliari	Sardinia	Italy	Europe	39	13	N.	9	5	E.	Cherbourg	Channel	France	Europe	49	38 N.	1	37 W.
Cairo		Lower Egypt	Africa	30	2	N.	31	19	E.	Chernon	Nicolajef	Russia	Europe	46	38 N.	32	39 E.
Calais	Strait of Calais	France	Europe	50	57	N.	1	51	E.	Chester	Cheshire	England	Europe	53	11 N.	2	53 W.
Calcutta	Benga.	India	Asia	22	34	N.	88	26	E.	Christiania	Aggerhus	Norway	Europe	59	55 N.	10	48 E.
Calient	Malabar	South India	Asia	11	15	N.	76	5	E.	St. Christopher's Isle		Caribbean Sea	N. Amer.	17	19 N.	62	49 W.
Callao		Peru	S. America	12	4	N.	77	4	E.	Chusan Harbour	Tche-kiang	China	Asia	30	26 N.	121	41 E
Calmar	Smaland	Sweden	Europe	56	40	N.	16	26	E.	Civita Vecchia	Patr. di S. Petro	Italy	Europe	42	5 N.	11	45 E.
Calvi	Corsica	Mediterranean	Europe	42	34	N.	8	45	E.	Clarke's Isles		Atlantic Ocean	S. America	55	5 S.	34	37 W.
Cambodia	Cambodia	India	Asia	13	30	N.	2	105	E.	Clermont-Ferrand	Puy de Dome	France	Europe	45	47 N.	3	10 E.
Cambray	North	France	Europe	50	10	N.	3	14	E.	Coimbra	Beira	Portugal	Europe	40	12 N.	8	23 W.
Cambridge	Cambridgeshire	England	Europe	52	13	N.	0	1	E.	Colmar	Upper Rhine	France	Europe	48	4 N.	7	27 E.
Camisha	{ Entre Douro e Minho	Portugal	Europe	41	53	N.	8	48	W.	Cologne	Duchy of the Rhine	Germany	Europe	50	55 N.	6	55 E.
Campbelltown	Argyleshire	Scotland	Europe	55	30	N.	5	40	W.	Colombo	Ceylon	Indian Ocean	Asia	6	57 N.	80	0 E.
Campeche	Yucatan	Mexico	N. Amer.	19	51	N.	90	30	W.	Constance	Suabia	Germany	Europe	47	36 N.	9	8 E.
Canary, N. E. Point	Canary Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28	13	N.	15	33	W	CONSTANTINOPLE	Romania	Turkey	Europe	41	1 N.	28	56 E.
Candia	Candia Island	Mediter. Sea	Europe	35	19	N.	25	18	E.	COPENHAGEN	Zealand Isle	Denmark	Europe	55	41 N.	12	35 E.
Candl	Ceylon	Indian Ocean	Asia	7	54	N.	79	0	E.	Cordovantower	Gironde	France	Europe	45	35 N.	1	10 W.
										Corfu	Ionian Isles	Mediterranean	Europe	39	38 N.	19	56 E

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Corinth	Morea	Turkey	Europe	37 58 N.	23 28 E.
Cork	Munster	Ireland	Europe	51 52 N.	8 16 W.
Courtray	West Flanders	Belgium	Europe	50 5 N.	3 16 E.
Coutances	Channel	France	Europe	40 3 N.	1 26 W.
Coventry	Warwickshire	England	Europe	52 21 N.	1 30 W.
Cowes	Isle of Wight	England	Europe	50 46 N.	1 14 W.
Cracow	Gallicia	Poland	Europe	50 4 N.	19 57 E.
Cremona	Kingdom of Lombardy	Italy	Europe	45 8 N.	10 2 E.
Cronstadt	St. Petersburgh	Russia	Europe	59 59 N.	29 49 E.
Cuddalore	Carnatic	India	Asia	11 43 N.	79 48 E.
Cumana	Maturin	Venezuela	S. America	10 28 N.	64 10 W.
Curacao Island		West Indies	America	12 8 N.	69 0 W.
Cusco	Cusco	Peru	S. America	12 25 S.	70 0 W.
Cuxhaven	Bremen	Hamburgh	Europe	53 52 N.	8 43 E.
Dacca	Bengal	India	Asia	23 30 N	89 20 E.
Damascus	Syria	Turkey	Asia	33 15 N.	37 20 E.
Damietta	Damietta	Lower Egypt	Africa	31 26 N.	31 49 E.
Dantzic	Western Prussia	Prussia	Europe	54 21 N	18 38 E.
Dardanelles		Turkey	Europe & Asia	40 9 N.	26 19 E.
Delft	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 1 N.	4 22 E.
Delhi	Delhi	Upper India	Asia	28 37 N.	77 4 E.
Denderah		Upper Egypt	Africa	26 10 N.	32 40 E.
Diarbekir	Diarbekir	Turkey in Asia	Asia	37 54 N.	39 54 E.
Dieppe	Lower Seine	France	Europe	49 55 N.	1 5 E.
Dijon	Cote d'Or	France	Europe	47 19 N.	5 2 E.
Disco Isle	Baffin's Bay	Greenland	Europe	69 10 N.	54 40 W.
Die	Guzarat	India	Asia	20 42 N.	71 6 E
Dol	Isle et Vilaine	France	Europe	48 33 N.	1 35 W.
Dominica	Windward Islands	West Indies	America	15 18 N.	61 32 W.
Dominica	The Marquesas	Pacific Ocean		9 39 S.	139 5 W.
Dongola		Nubia	Africa	19 20 N.	32 3 E.
Dordrecht	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51 49 N.	4 40 E.
Dorpat	Livonia	Russia	Europe	58 23 N.	26 42 E.
Dover	Kent	England	Europe	51 7 N.	1 19 E.
Dresden	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51 3 N.	13 43 E.
Drontheim	Drontheim	Norway	Europe	63 26 N.	10 23 E.
Dublin	Leinster	Ireland	Europe	53 23 N.	6 20 W.
Dundee	Angus	Scotland	Europe	56 28 N.	2 56 W.
Dungeness	Kent	England	Europe	50 52 N.	1 4 E.
Dunkirk	N. Department	France	Europe	51 2 N.	2 22 E.
Duesseldorf	Lower Rhine	Prussia	Europe	51 14 N.	6 46 E.
Easter Isle		Pacific Ocean		27 9 S.	109 25 W.
Eastern Ocean, between the N.W. of North America & N.E. of Asia. North Pacific Ocean.					
Eem	N. Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 31 N.	5 E.
Edenburgh	Edinburghshire	Scotland	Europe	55 57 N.	3 11 W.
Edystone	English Channel	England	Europe	50 11 N.	4 16 W.
Ehing	Dantzic	Prussia	Europe	54 14 N.	19 22 E.
Elsineur	Seeland	Denmark	Europe	56 2 N	12 36 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Embden	Westphalia	Germany	Europe	53 22 N.	7 11 E.
English Channel		betw. England and France	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ephesus	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38 1 N.	27 30 E.
Erzeroum	Armenia	Turkey	Asia	39 56 N.	40 35 E.
Escurial	Segovia	Spain	Europe	40 36 N.	4 8 W.
Ethiopian Sea		Coast of Guinea	Africa	Atlantic Ocean.	
Eustatius	Caribbean Sea	West Indies	N. Amer.	17 29 N.	63 5 W
Evreux	Eure	France	Europe	48 55 N.	1 9 E.
Exeter	Devonshire	England	Europe	50 43 N.	3 31 W.
Falmouth	Cornwall	England	Europe	50 8 N.	4 57 W.
Fayal Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	38 32 N.	28 43 W.
Ferrara	Ferrara	Italy	Europe	44 50 N.	11 36 E.
Ferro Town	Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	27 47 N.	17 40 W
Ferrol	Galicia	Spain	Europe	43 29 N.	8 15 W.
Fez	Fez	Morocco	Africa	34 6 N.	5 1 W.
Figueras	Catalonia	Spain	Europe	42 16 N.	2 58 E.
Finisterre Cape	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42 54 N.	9 16 W.
Fiume	Litoral	Illyria	Europe	45 20 N.	14 26 E.
Florence	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43 47 N.	11 16 E.
Flushing	Zealand	Netherlands	Europe	51 27 N.	3 35 E.
Foul Point	Madagascar	African Ocean	Africa	17 40 S.	49 53 E.
Francois, Isle of		Indian Ocean	Africa	20 9 S.	57 28 E.
Frankfort	Upper Rhine	Germany	Europe	50 7 N.	8 36 E.
Francois, Cape		Hayti	America	19 46 N.	72 18 W.
Funchal	Madeira	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	32 37 N.	17 0 W.
Gallipoli	Roumelia	Turkey	Europe	40 25 N.	26 37 E.
Geneva	Geneva	Switzerland	Europe	46 12 N.	6 9 E.
Genoa	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44 25 N.	8 58 E.
St. George's Isle		one of the Azores, in the	Atlantic	38 31 N.	27 31 W.
St. George's Town		Bermuda	America	32 22 N.	64 31 W.
Ghent	East Flanders	Belgium	Europe	51 3 N.	3 43 E.
Gibraltar	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	36 7 N.	5 22 W.
Glasgow	Lanarkshire	Scotland	Europe	55 51 N.	4 16 W.
Gloucester	Gloucestershire	England	Europe	51 52 N.	2 14 W.
Gluckstadt	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53 48 N.	9 27 E.
Goa	Malabar	India	Asia	15 30 N.	73 53 E.
Gomera Isle	Canaries	Atlantic	Africa	28 6 N.	17 8 W.
Gonave Isle	Hayti	Caribbean Sea	N. Amer.	18 49 N.	73 1 W.
Gondar	Ambara	Abyssinia	Africa	12 34 N.	37 33 E.
Goree Isle	Senegambia	Atlantic	Africa	14 40 N.	17 26 W.
Gotha	Saxony	Germany	Europe	50 56 N.	10 44 E.
Gottenborg	Gothland	Sweden	Europe	57 42 N.	11 57 E.
Gottingen	Hanover	Germany	Europe	51 32 N.	9 56 E.
Gravelines	North	France	Europe	50 59 N.	2 8 E.
Grenada Isle	Caribbean Isles	Caribbean Sea	America	12 3 N.	61 48 W.
Greve		France	Europe	43 12 N.	5 44 E.
Guadaloupe Isle		Caribbean Sea	America	15 59 N.	61 48 W.
Guanaxuato	Guanaxuato	Mexico	N. Amer.	21 0 N.	100 55 W.
Guayaquil	Guayaquil	Ecuador	S. America	2 11 S.	79 41 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.		D. M.	
Haarlem	North Holland	Netherlands	Europe	53 23	N.	4 38	E.
Hague	South Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 5	N.	4 19	E.
Halifax	Nova Scotia		America	44 44	N.	63 35	W.
Hamburgh	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53 33	N.	9 58	E.
Hammerfest	Finmark	Norway	Europe	70 38	N.	24 43	E.
HANOVER	Hanover	Germany	Europe	52 22	N.	9 43	E.
Hatteras, Cape	North Carolina	United States	N. Amer.	35 14	N.	73 34	W.
Havana	Isle of Cuba		America	23 9	N.	82 23	W.
Havre de Grace	Lower Seine	France	Europe	49 29	N.	0 7	E.
St. Helena			S. Atlantic	15 55	S.	5 43	W.
Heligoland	Holstein Coast	German Ocean	Europe	54 12	N.	7 53	E.
Helsingborg	Scania	Sweden	Europe	56 3	N.	12 43	W
Helsingfors	Finland	Russia	Europe	60 10	N.	25 0	E.
Helvoetsluys	South Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51 49	N.	3 28	E.
La Hogue, Cape	La Manche	France	Europe	49 43	N.	1 51	W.
Honoruru	Oahu, between Asia and		America	21 18	N.	157 56	W
Horn, Cape		Tierra del Fuego	America	55 58	S.	67 21	W
Heasleine			S. Pacific	16 43	S.	151 9	W.
Hull	Yerkshire	England	Europe	53 45	N.	0 15	W.
Hunter, Port	Gloucester County	New S. Wales	N.Holland	32 56	S.	151 43	E.
Hyderabad	Golconda	India	Asia	17 12	N.	78 51	E.
Ingolstadt	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	48 46	N.	11 26	E.
Inspruck	Tyrol	Germany	Europe	47 16	N.	11 24	E.
Irkutsk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	52 17	N.	104 12	E.
Ispahan	Irak	Persia	Asia	32 25	N.	51 50	E.
Isthmus of Suez, joins Africa to Asia.							
Isthmus of Darien, joins North to South America.							
Jackson, Port	CumberlandCounty	New S. Wales	N.Holland	33 51	N.	151 16	E
Jaffa	Syria	Turkey	Asia	32 5	N.	34 46	E.
Jago, St.	Cape Verd Isles	Atlantic	Africa	14 53	N.	23 32	W
Jakutsk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	62 2	N.	129 43	E.
Janeiro, Rio		Brazil	America	22 53	S.	43 12	W
Jassy	Moldavia	Turkey	Europe	47 8	N.	27 30	E.
Jena	Saxe Weimar	Germany	Europe	50 56	N.	11 37	E.
Jersey Isle	North coast of France	Channel	Europe	49 13	N.	2 11	W.
Jerusalem		Palestine	Asia	31 48	N.	35 20	E.
John's, St.	Newfoundland	Atlantic	N. Amer.	47 44	N.	52 40	W.
Juan Fernandez		Pacific Ocean	S America	33 40	S.	78 58	W.
Kaminieck	Poland	Russia	Europe	48 41	N.	27 1	E.
Kano		Soudan	Africa	12 0	N.	7 20	E.
Karek Isle	Farsistan	Persian Gulf	Asia	29 16	N.	50 27	W.
Kertch	Crimea	Russia	Europe	45 21	N.	36 21	E.
Kinsale	Cork	Ireland	Europe	51 41	N.	8 28	W.
Kingston	Jamaica	West Indies	America	18 15	N.	76 35	W.
Kiow	Ukraine	Russia	Europe	50 27	N.	30 28	E.
Konigsburg	Eastern Prussia	Prussia	Europe	54 42	N.	20 29	E.
Koomeir	Egypt	Egypt	Africa	26 8	N.	34 15	E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat.		Long.	
				D. M.		D. M.	
Lagos	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37 6	N.	8 38	W.
Lancaster	Lancashire	England	Europe	54 3	N.	2 48	W.
Land's End	Cornwall	England	Europe	50 3	N.	5 41	W.
Landscroon	Malse	Sweden	Europe	55 52	N.	12 51	E.
Latakia	Tripoli	Turkey	Asia	35 30	N.	35 48	E.
Lausanne	Vaud	Switzerland	Europe	46 31	N.	6 45	E.
Leghorn	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43 33	N.	10 17	E.
Leipsic	Saxony	Germany	Europe	51 20	N.	12 22	E.
Leyden	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	52 10	N.	4 29	E.
Lima	Lima	Peru	S. America	12 3	S.	76 57	W.
Limerick	Limerickshire	Ireland	Europe	52 35	N.	8 48	W.
Lintz	Austria	Germany	Europe	48 19	N.	14 17	E.
Lisbon	Estremadura	Portugal	Europe	38 42	N.	9 8	W.
Lisle	North	France	Europe	50 37	N.	3 9	E.
Liverpool	Lancashire	England	Europe	53 25	N.	2 59	W.
LONDON	Middlesex	England	Europe	51 31	N.	1st Mer.	
Londonderry	Londonderry	Ireland	Europe	55 0	N.	7 15	W.
Loretto	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	43 27	N.	13 35	E.
Louisbourg	Cape Breton Isle		N. Amer.	45 54	N.	59 55	W.
Louvain	Brabant	Belgium	Europe	50 53	N.	4 42	E.
Louvean	Siam	India	Asia	12 42	N.	100 56	E.
Lubeck	Holstein	Germany	Europe	53 51	N.	10 41	E.
St. Lucia Isle	Windward Isles	West Indies	N. Amer.	13 24	N.	60 46	W.
Lunden	Gochland	Sweden	Europe	55 43	N.	13 13	E.
Lyons	Rhone et Loire	France	Europe	45 46	N.	4 49	E.
Macao	Canton	China	Asia	22 11	N.	113 31	E.
Macassar	Celebes Isle	India	Asia	5 9	S.	119 39	E.
Madras	Coromandel	India	Asia	13 4	N.	80 22	E.
MADRID	New Castile	Spain	Europe	40 25	N.	3 42	E.
Magdalena Isle			S. Pacific Ocean	10 25	S.	138 44	W.
Magdeburg	Saxony	Prussia	Europe	52 8	N.	11 39	E.
Mahon, Port	Minorca	Mediter. Sea	Europe	39 51	N.	4 18	E.
Majorca Isle		Mediter. Sea	Europe	39 34	N.	2 38	E.
Malacca	Malacca	India	Asia	2 12	N.	102 15	E.
Malaga	Granada	Spain	Europe	36 43	N.	4 25	W.
Maliose	Brabant	Belgium	Europe	51 1	N.	4 29	E.
Malino	Scania	Sweden	Europe	55 37	N.	13 1	E.
St. Malmo	Morbihan	France	Europe	48 39	N.	2 1	W.
Malta Isle		Mediter. Sea	Africa	35 53	N.	14 30	E.
Manchester	Lancashire	England	Europe	53 29	N.	2 14	W.
Manilla	Luconia, Philippine Isles	India	Asia	14 36	N.	120 58	E.
Mantua	Lombardy	Italy	Europe	45 9	N.	10 48	E.
Marie-galante Isle		Atlantic Ocean	S. America	15 51	N.	61 19	W.
Marseilles	Department of the Rhone	France	Europe	43 17	N.	5 22	E.
Martinique	Caribbean Isles	West Indies	America	14 36	N.	61 6	W.
St. Mary's Isle	Scilly Isles	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	49 57	N.	6 38	W.
St. Mary's Town	Azores	Atlantic Ocean	Europe	36 57	N.	25 18	W.
Maskelyne Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		16 32	S.	166 4	E.
Matapan Cape	Morea	Greece	Europe	36 23	N.	22 30	E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Payta Point	Truxillo	Peru	S. America	5 4 S.	81 2 W.
Pegu	Pegu	India	Asia	17 0 N.	97 0 E.
Pekin	Peche-lee	China	Asia	39 54 N.	116 28 E.
Pembroke	Pembrokeshire	Wales	Europe	51 45 N.	4 50 W.
Pensacula	West Florida	United States	N. Amer.	30 24 N.	87 12 W.
Perekop	Taurida	Russia	Europe	46 9 N.	33 42 E.
Perigueux	Dordogne	France	Europe	45 11 N.	0 44 E.
Perpignan	East Pyrenees	France	Europe	42 42 N.	2 54 E.
Perth	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56 22 N.	3 12 W.
Perth Amboy	New Jersey		N. Amer.	40 30 N.	74 20 W.
Petersburg	Ingria	Russia	Europe	59 56 N.	30 19 E.
St. Peter's Isle		N.AtlanticOcean	America	40 46 N.	56 12 W.
St. Peter's Fort	Martinique	West Indies	N. Amer.	14 44 N.	61 16 W.
Petropaulouskoi	Kamtschatka	Russia	Asia	53 0 N.	158 49 E.
Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	United States	N. Amer.	39 57 N.	75 11 W.
Pico Isle	Azores	Atlantic	Europe	38 28 N.	28 33 W.
Pillau	East Prussia	Prussia	Europe	54 34 N.	19 52 E.
Pines, Isle of	N. Caledonia	Pacific Ocean		22 38 S.	167 43 E.
Pisa	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43 43 N.	10 24 E.
Pitcairne's Isle		S. Pacific	Europe	25 4 S.	130 25 W.
Pittsburgh	Pennsylvania	United States	America	40 26 N.	78 58 W.
Placentia	Newfoundland Isle		N. Amer.	47 26 N.	55 0 W.
Plymouth	Devonshire	England	Europe	50 22 N.	4 7 W.
Plymouth	Massachusetts	United States	N. Amer.	41 48 N.	70 25 W.
Pondicheri	Coromandel	East Indies	Asia	11 56 N.	79 50 E.
Port au Prince	Hayti	West Indies	America	18 34 N.	73 27 W.
Port Royal	Jamaica	West Indies	America	17 58 N.	76 52 W.
Port Royal	Martinique	West Indies	America	14 35 N.	61 4 W.
Porto Bello	Panama	New Granada	S. America	9 34 N.	79 43 W.
Porto Caballo	Caracas	Venezuela	S. America	10 28 N.	79 43 W.
Porto Ferrajo	Island of Elbe	Mediterranean	Europe	42 49 N.	10 20 E.
Porto Vecchio	Corsica	France	Europe	41 35 N.	9 17 E.
Portland Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		39 25 S.	178 17 E
Portland Isle		N.AtlanticOcean	Europe	63 22 N.	18 49 W.
Portsmouth	Hampshire	England	Europe	50 48 N.	1 5 W.
Potosi	Potosi	Bolivia	S America	19 50 S.	70 15 W.
Prague		Bohemia	Europe	50 5 N.	14 25 E.
Presburg		Upper Hungary	Europe	48 8 N.	17 10 W.
Prince of Wales Fort	New North Wales		N. Amer.	58 47 N.	94 14 W.
Providence	Rhode Island	United States	America	41 51 N.	71 20 W.
Pulo Condor		Indian Ocean	Asia	8 40 N.	107 25 E.
Quebec	Canada		N. Amer.	46 47 N.	71 10 W.
Queen Charlotte's Isles		S. Pacific Ocean		10 11 S.	161 35 E.
Queen Charlotte's Sound	New Zealand	S. Pacific	Australasia	41 6 S.	174 21 E.
Quiberon, St.	Aiane	France	Europe	49 51 N.	3 18 E.
Quimper	Finisterre	France	Europe	47 58 N.	4 6 W.
Quito	Chimborazo	Ecuador	S. America	0 13 S.	78 45 W.
Ragusa	Ragusa	Dalmatia	Europe	42 39 N.	18 6 E.
Ras-el-hat, Cape	Oman	Arabia	Asia	22 22 N.	59 58 E.
Ratisbon	Bavaria	Germany	Europe	49 1 N.	12 4 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Ravenna	Romagna	Italy	Europe	44 25 N.	12 11 E.
Reikaness, Cape	Guldbringe Syssel	Iceland	Europe	63 55 N.	22 47 W.
Randsborg	Holstein	Denmark	Europe	54 19 N.	9 40 E.
Rennes	Isle et Vilaine	France	Europe	48 6 N.	1 41 W.
Resolution Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		17 23 S.	141 45 W.
Revel	Esthonia	Russia	Europe	59 27 N.	24 35 E
Reykiavik	Guldbringe Syssel	Iceland	Europe	64 9 N.	21 50 W.
Rhe Isle	Lower Charente	France	Europe	46 15 N.	1 33 W.
Rheims	Marne	France	Europe	49 15 N.	4 3 E.
Rhode Island		United States	N. Amer.	41 25 N.	71 20 W.
Rhodes	Rhodes Island	Levant Sea	Asia	36 26 N.	28 15 E.
Riga	Livonia	Russia	Europe	56 57 N.	24 8 E.
Rochefort	Lower Charente	France	Europe	46 56 N.	0 57 W.
Rock of Lisbon	{Mouth of Tagus River}	Portugal	Europe	38 43 N.	9 30 W.
Rome, St. Peter's	Pope's Territory	Italy	Europe	41 54 N.	12 30 E.
Rosetta	Garbyeh	Egypt	Africa	31 25 N.	30 28 E.
Rotterdam	Holland	Netherlands	Europe	51 55 N.	4 29 E.
Rotterdam Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		20 16 N.	174 21 W.
Rouen	Lower Seine	France	Europe	49 26 N.	2 0 E.
Rypen	North Jutland	Denmark	Europe	55 20 N.	8 47 E.
St. Domingo, City	Hayti	West Indies	America	18 30 N.	69 49 W.
St. George's Channel	{betw. England and Ireland}	Atlantic Ocean	Europe		
St. Iago		Chile	S. America	34 0 S.	71 0 W.
St. Salvador	Bahia	Brazil	S. America	13 5 S.	38 28 W.
Sackatoo		Soudan	Africa	13 4 N.	6 12 E.
Sal Isle	Cape Verd Isles	Atlantic	Africa	16 41 N.	23 3 W.
Salee	Benihassen	Morocco	Africa	34 5 N.	6 43 E.
Salisbury	Wiltshire	England	Europe	51 4 N.	1 47 W.
Salonica	Macedonia	Turkey	Europe	40 38 N.	22 56 E.
Salvador, St.	Bahia	Brazil	S. America	13 5 S.	38 28 W.
Samarang Bay	Java	Indian Ocean	Asia	6 53 S.	110 34 E.
Sandy Hook	New Jersey	United States	America	40 25 N.	74 13 W.
Santa Cruz	Teneriffe	Atlantic Ocean	Africa	28 27 N.	16 40 W.
Santa Fe	Santa Fe	Mexico	N. Amer.	36 12 N.	102 53 W.
Santa Fe de Bogota	Cundinamarca	New Granada	S. America	4 36 N.	74 14 W.
Santander	Santander	Spain	Europe	43 28 N.	3 41 W.
Santona	Asturias	Spain	Europe	43 27 N.	3 20 W.
Saratoff	Saratoff	Russia	Europe	51 31 N.	46 0 E.
Savannah	Georgia		N. Amer.	32 1 N.	86 56 W.
Scarborough	Yorkshire	England	Europe	54 18 N.	0 10 W.
Scone	Perthshire	Scotland	Europe	56 24 N.	3 10 W
Sea of Azof	Little Tartary	Europe and Asia			
Sea of Marmora	Turkey in Europe and Asia, Black Sea				
Sea of Okhotsk	between Siberia and Kamtschatka, Asia, North Pacific Ocean				
Sea, Yellow	between China and Corea, North Pacific Ocean.				
Senegal		Negroland	Africa	15 53 N.	16 26 W.
Seringapatam	Mysore	India	Asia	12 25 N.	76 42 E.
Setuval	Estremadura	Portugal	Europe	38 39 N.	8 53 W.
Seville	Andalusia	Spain	Europe	37 15 N.	6 5 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Sheerness	Kent	England	Europe	51 11 N.	0 44 E.
Shetland Isles, New		Atlantic	S. Amer.	62 52 S.	63 42 W.
Shrewsbury	Shropshire	England	Europe	52 4 N.	2 45 W.
Siam	Siam	India	Asia	14 21 N.	100 50 E.
Sidon	Holy Land	Turkey	Asia	33 45 N.	36 15 E.
Sienna	Tuscany	Italy	Europe	43 22 N.	1 10 E.
Sierra Leone, Cape	Grain-coast	Guinea	Africa	8 31 N.	13 18 W.
Sincapore	Malacca	Indian Ocean	Asia	1 12 N.	105 30 E.
Sinope	Anatolia	Turkey	Asia	42 2 N.	34 41 E.
Siout	Siout	Egypt	Africa	27 13 N.	31 14 E.
Skagen, Cape	Jutland	Denmark	Europe	57 44 N.	10 38 E.
Sleswick	Sleswick	Denmark	Europe	54 31 N.	9 34 E.
Sluys	Dutch Flanders	Netherlands	Europe	51 19 N.	3 23 E.
Smyrna	Natolia	Turkey	Asia	38 25 N.	27 6 E.
Snowdon, Mount	Caernarvonshire	Wales	Europe	53 4 N.	4 4 W.
Socotra Isle	Arabian Sea	Africa		12 30 N.	54 10 E.
Soderhamm	Helsingland	Sweden	Europe	61 18 N.	17 5 E.
Sonderburg	Sleswick	Denmark	Europe	54 55 N.	9 47 E.
Soolo Isle	Philippines	East Indies	Asia	6 1 N.	121 12 E.
Sound between	Denmark & Sweden	Baltic Sea.			
Sourabaya	Java	Indian Ocean	Asia	7 14 S.	112 41 E.
South, Cape	Van Diemen's Land	S. Pacific Ocean	Australasia	43 37 N.	146 49 E.
Southampton	Hampshire	England	Europe	50 54 N.	1 24 W.
Spartivento, Cape	Naples	Mediterranean	Europe	37 56 N.	16 4 E.
Spartel, Cape	Morocco	Mediterranean	Africa	35 48 N.	5 55 W.
Spezzia	Genoa	Italy	Europe	44 4 N.	9 51 E.
Spencer, Cape	S. Australia	New Holland	Australasia	35 18 S.	136 53 E.
Stade	Hanover	Germany	Europe	53 37 N.	9 29 E.
Start Point	Devonshire	England	Europe	50 13 N.	3 28 W.
Stavanger	Stavanger	Norway	Europe	58 58 N.	5 45 E.
Stettin	Pomerania	Prussia	Europe	53 32 N.	14 53 E.
Stockholm	Upland	Sweden	Europe	59 20 N.	18 3 E.
Strait of Babelmandeb, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
Strait, Behring's, between North America and Asia, in the Frozen Ocean.					
Strait of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
Strait of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
Strait of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego and Patagonia, South America.					
Strait of Le Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic, and Pacific Oceans.					
Strait of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
Strait of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
Strait of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Strait of Waigat, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Stralsund	Pomerania	Prussia	Europe	54 19 N.	13 32 E.
Strasbourg	Lower Rhine	France	Europe	48 34 N.	7 45 E.
Stromboli Isle	Naples	Mediterranean	Europe	38 48 N.	15 12 E.
Stromness	Pomona, Orkneys	Scotland	Europe	58 56 N.	3 31 W.
Stromstadt	W. Gothland	Sweden	Europe	58 55 N.	11 19 E.
Stutgard	Wirtemburg	Germany	Europe	48 46 N.	9 11 E.
Suez	Suez	Egypt	Africa	30 0 N.	32 28 E.
Sunderland	Durham	England	Europe	54 55 N.	1 21 W.
Surat River	Guzerat	India	Asia	21 0 N.	72 51 E.
Swan River	West Australia	New Holland	Australasia	31 50 S.	115 50 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Syra Isle	Cyclades	Archipelago	Europe	37 26 N.	24 55 E.
Syracuse	Syracuse	Sicily	Europe	37 2 N.	15 16 E.
Tacuba		Mexico	N. Amer.	19 31 N.	99 7 W.
Taganrock		Russia	Europe	47 13 N.	38 39 E.
Tanna Isle		New Hebrides	S. Pacific Ocean	19 32 S.	169 20 E.
Taragona		Catalonia	Spain	41 9 N.	1 15 E.
Tanris		Aderbijan	Persia	38 20 N.	47 17 E.
Taflis		Georgia	Russia	42 5 N.	46 10 E.
Tellicherry		Malabar	India	11 44 N.	75 49 E.
Tenedos Isle		Anatolia	Archipelago	39 54 N.	25 53 E.
Teneriffe Peak		Canaries	Atlantic Ocean	28 17 N.	16 40 W.
Terceira Isle		Azores	Atlantic	38 39 N.	27 14 W.
Tetuan		Fez	Barbary	35 40 N.	5 18 W.
Texcuco		Mexico	Mexico	19 31 N.	98 51 W.
Thebes		Thebes	Upper Egypt	25 43 N.	32 39 E.
St. Thomas' Island		Virgin Isles	West Indies	18 20 N.	65 3 W.
Thorn		Prussia Proper	Prussia	52 56 N.	19 0 E.
Tiburon Cape		Hayti	West Indies	18 19 N.	73 34 W.
Timor, S.W. Point			India	10 10 S.	126 36 W.
Tinian Isle		Marian Isles	Pacific	14 58 N.	145 51 E.
Tobago Isle		Carribee Isles	West Indies	11 10 N.	60 27 W.
Tobolsk		Siberia	Russia	58 12 N.	68 6 E.
Toledo		New Castile	Spain	39 50 N.	3 25 E.
Tongataboo Isle			S. Pacific Ocean	21 8 S.	175 13 W.
Tonningen		Sleswick	Denmark	54 19 N.	8 59 E.
Tornea		Bothnia	Sweden	65 51 N.	24 12 E.
Toulon		Var	France	43 7 N.	5 51 E.
Trafalgar, Cape		Andalusia	Spain	36 10 N.	6 0 W.
Trichinebar		Carnatic	India	11 1 N.	79 55 E.
Trebisond		Natolia	Turkey	41 3 N.	39 28 E.
Trent		Trent	Germany	46 6 N.	11 4 E.
Trieste		Illyria	Austria	45 38 N.	13 47 E.
Tripoli		Barbary	Africa	32 54 N.	13 11 E.
Tripoli		Syria	Turkey	34 26 N.	35 51 E.
Tula		Tula	Russia	54 12 N.	31 7 E.
Tunis		Barbary	Africa	36 48 N.	10 11 E.
Turin		Piedmont	Italy	45 4 N.	7 40 E.
Turtle Isle			S. Pacific Ocean	19 48 S.	178 2 W.
Tver		Tver	Russia	56 52 N.	35 57 E.
Tyre		Palestine	Turkey	32 32 N.	36 0 E.
Uddevalla		Bahus	Sweden	58 21 N.	11 56 E.
Udine		Friuli	Italy	46 3 N.	13 15 W.
Ulietea Isle			S. Pacific Ocean	16 45 S.	151 26 E.
Ulm		Wurtemberg	Germany	48 23 N.	9 56 E.
Unst Isle		Shetland	Scotland	60 44 N.	0 45 W.
Upsal		Upland	Sweden	59 52 N.	17 39 E.
Ushant Isle		Finisterre	France	48 28 N.	5 3 E.
Utrecht		Holland	Netherlands	52 5 N.	5 7 E.
Valdivia		Chile	S. America	39 50 S.	73 34 W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries or Seas.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Valencia	Valencia	Spain	Europe	39 29 N.	0 23 W.
Valona	Albania	Turkey	Europe	40 28 N.	19 26 E.
Valparaiso	Santiago	Chile	S. America	33 0 S.	71 38 W.
Venice	Veuice	Italy	Europe	45 26 N.	12 21 E.
Vera Cruz	Vera Cruz	Mexico	N. Amer.	19 12 N.	96 9 W.
Verd, Cape	Senegambia		Africa	14 44 N.	17 30 W.
Verona	Veronese	Italy	Europe	45 26 N.	11 1 E.
Versailles	Seine et Oise	France	Europe	48 48 N.	2 7 E.
Vienna	Austria	Germany	Europe	48 13 N.	16 23 E.
Vigo	Galicia	Spain	Europe	42 13 N.	8 33 W.
Vincent, Cape St.	Algarve	Portugal	Europe	37 2 N.	8 59 W.
Vologda	Vologda	Russia	Europe	59 13 N.	40 11 E.
Voronetz	Voronetz	Russia	Europe	51 40 N.	39 21 E.
Wardhuus	Norwegian Lapland	Lapland	Europe	70 23 N.	31 7 E
Warsaw	Masovia	Russian Poland	Europe	52 14 N.	21 3 E.
Washington	Columbia	United States	N. Amer.	38 55 N.	76 59 W
Weimar	Saze Weimar	Germany	Europe	50 59 N.	11 21 E.
Whitehaven	Cumberland	England	Europe	54 33 N.	3 35 W.
Whitsuntide Isle		S. Pacific Ocean		15 44 S.	168 25 E
Wiborg	Finland	Russia	Europe	60 43 N.	28 46 E.
Williamsburg	Virginia		N. Amer.	37 16 N.	76 54 W.
Willes' Isles	South Georgia	Atlantic Ocean	America	54 0 S.	38 24 W.
Wilna	Lithuania	Poland	Europe	54 41 N.	25 18 E.
Winchester	Hampshire	England	Europe	51 4 N.	1 18 W.
Windsor Castle	Berkshire	England	Europe	51 29 N.	0 35 W.
Wittenberg	Upper Saxony	Germany	Europe	51 52 N.	12 46 E.
Wrekin Mountain	Shropshire	England	Europe	52 40 N.	2 31 W.
Wurtzburg	Franconia	Germany	Europe	49 46 N.	9 55 E.
Yakutsk	Siberia	Russia	Asia	62 2 N.	129 42 E.
Yarmouth	Norfolk	England	Europe	52 45 N.	1 48 E.
York	Yorkshire	England	Europe	53 58 N.	1 4 W.
Ypres	W. Flanders	Belgium	Europe	50 51 N.	2 53 E.
Ystadt	Schonen	Sweden	Europe	55 26 N.	13 48 E.
Zante Town	Ionian Isles	Mediterranean	Europe	37 47 N.	20 55 E.
Zurich	Zurich	Switzerland	Europe	47 23 N.	8 31 E.
Zutphen	Guelderland	Netherlands	Europe	52 8 N.	6 12 E.

Greenwich Observatory, Kent, England, Europe, 51 degrees 28 minutes 40 seconds N. 5 minutes 37 seconds E. of St. Paul's, London.

of the Hebrews. 1571. Moses, brother to Aaron, is born in Egypt, and adopted by Pharaoh's daughter. 1556 (or 1371.) Cecrops brings a colony of Saites from Egypt into Attica, and founds the kingdom of Athens, in Greece. 1550. Job died, aged one hundred and eighty-nine years. 1546. Scamander lands in Phrygia from Crete, and founds the kingdom of Troy. 1521. Deluge of Deucalion, in Thessaly. 1493. Cadmus carries the Phœnician letters into Greece, and builds the citadel of Thebes. 1491. Moses performs a number of miracles in Egypt, and departs from that kingdom with six hundred thousand Israelites. 1453. The first Olympic games are celebrated at Olympia, in Greece. 1452. Moses dies, aged one hundred and twenty years. He was succeeded by Joshua. 1451. The Israelites, under Joshua, enter the land of Canaan. 1444. First division of the promised land among the Jews. 1438. Joshua died, aged one hundred and ten years. 1406. Iron is found in Greece, from the accidental burning of the woods. 1193 (or 1095.) The Trojan war arises from the rape of Helen, by Paris. 1184 (or 1096.) Troy is totally destroyed. 1052. David is sole king of Israel. 1026. Hiram began to reign at Tyre. 1008. The temple solemnly dedicated by Solomon.

916. The Rhodians began to be powerful at sea.

894. Money first made of gold and silver, at Argos. 869. The city of Carthage, in Africa, founded by Queen Dido. 814. The kingdom of Macedon begins. 807. The kingdom of Macedon commenced, by Caranus. 801. Capua was founded.

776. The first Olympiad begins. 772 (or 771.) Birth of Romulus. 758 (or 752.) Foundation of Syracuse. 753. Era of the building of Rome, in Italy, by Romulus. 758 (or 750.) Rape of the Sabines. 743. Commencement of the first Messenian war. 718. Samaria taken, after three years' siege, and the kingdom of Israel finished by the Assyrians, who carried the ten tribes into captivity. The first eclipse of the moon on record. 716. Death of Romulus.

672. Numa, king of Rome, died. 685. Second Messenian war; it lasted twelve years. 670. Byzantium, now Constantinople, built by a colony of Athenians. 669. Combat between the Horatii and Curatii. 640. Death of Tullus Hostilius, king of Rome. 621. The prophet Daniel born. 616. Death of Ancus Martius, king of Rome. 606. Capture of Jerusalem, and commencement of the seventy years' captivity. 604. By order of Necho, king of Egypt, some Phœnicians sail from the Red Sea round Africa, and return by the Mediterranean. 600. Thales, of Miletus, travels into Egypt; acquires a knowledge of geometry, astronomy and philosophy; returns to Greece; inculcates general notions of the universe, and maintains that one supreme intelligence directs and regulates all its motions. Maps, spheres, and sun-dials, invented by Anaximander, the scholar of Thales.

594. Solon gave laws to Athens. 591. The Pythian games established at Delphi. 588. The city of Jerusalem taken, after a siege of eighteen months. 578. Death of Tarquinus Priscus, king of Rome. 562. The first comedy at Athens, acted upon a moveable scaffold. 559. Cyrus, the first king of Persia. 548. Cyrus destroyed the Lybian empire. 538. The kingdom of Babylon finished, that city being taken by Cyrus, who, in 536, issues an edict for the return of the Jews. 534. The first tragedy is acted at Athens, in a waggon, by Thespis, and his itinerant companion. Death of Servius Tullius, king of Rome. 529. Cyrus died, and was succeeded by Cambyses. 526. Learning is greatly encouraged at Athens, and a public library founded. 516. The second temple at Jerusalem is finished under Darius. 511. The prophet Daniel died. 509. Tarquin, the seventh and last Roman king, is expelled, and Rome is governed by two consuls. 508. The first census taken at Rome.

490. Victory of the Greeks, at Marathon. 481. Xerxes, king of Persia, begins his expedition against Greece. 480. The Persian fleet defeated at the battle of Salamis. 479. Mardonius defeated by the Greeks at Platæa. 458. Ezra is sent from Babylon to Jerusalem, with the captive Jews. 454. The Romans send to Athens for Solon's laws. 431. Commencement of the Peloponesian war. 404. Athens taken by the Lacedemonians. 401. Retreat of ten thousand Greeks, under Xenophon. 400. Socrates, the founder of moral philosophy in Greece, believes the immortality of the soul: for which, and other sublime doctrines, he is put to death by his ungrateful and inhuman countrymen.

387. Peace of Antalcidas, between the Greeks and Persians. 371. The Lacedemonians defeated at Leuctra, by Epaminondas. 356. Birth of Alexander the Great. 338. The Athenians defeated at Cheronæa, by Philip of Macedon. 334-326. Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, conquers Darius king of Persia, and various nations of Asia. 324. He dies at Babylon; and his empire is divided by his generals into four kingdoms. 301. Battle of Ipsus, in Phrygia. Antigonus is slain.

285. Dionysius of Alexandria began his astronomical era, on Monday, June 26, being the first who found the exact solar year to consist of three hundred and sixty-five days, five hours and forty-nine minutes. Ptolemy Philadelphus, king of Egypt, employs seventy-two interpreters to translate the Old Testament into the Greek language, which is called the Septuagint. 280. Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, invades Italy. 269. The first coining of silver at Rome. 264. The first Punic war begins. It ends 241 B. C. 260. The Romans first apply themselves to naval affairs. 235. Temple of Janus, at Rome, closed for the first time since the reign of Numa. 225. Terrible defeat of the Gauls, by the Romans. 218. The second Punic war begins. Annibal passes the Alps, and defeats the Romans in several battles. 208. Annibal

recalled from Italy to defend Carthage. 202. Annibal defeated at Zama, and the Carthagenians compelled to make peace.

190. The Romans first enter Asia, and, from the spoils of Antiochus, bring the Asiatic luxury to Rome. 168. Perseus defeated by the Romans, which ends the Macedonian kingdom. 167. The first library erected at Rome, of books brought from Macedon. 163. The government of Judea, under the Maccabees, begins, and continues one hundred and twenty-six years. 146. Carthage, the rival of Rome, is destroyed by the Romans. The third Punic war began, 149. B. C. 102. Marius gives a terrible defeat to the Teutons and Ambrons, near Aix.

83. Temple of Apollo, at Delphi, consumed. 64. Conspiracy of Catiline. 57. Gaul subjugated by Cæsar. 55. Julius Cæsar makes his first expedition into Britain. 49. Commencement of the civil war between Cæsar and Pompey. 48. The battle of Pharsalia, between Cæsar and Pompey, in which the latter is defeated. 46. The war of Africa, in which Cato kills himself. The solar year introduced by Cæsar. 44. Cæsar, having overturned the liberties of his country, is killed in the senate-house. 37. Jerusalem taken, and an end put to the Asmonæan dynasty. 31. The battle of Actium, in which Mark Antony and Cleopatra are totally defeated by Octavius, nephew to Cæsar. 30. Alexandria is taken by Octavius; upon which Antony and Cleopatra put themselves to death, and Egypt becomes a Roman province. 27. Octavius, by a decree of the senate, obtains the title of Augustus, the imperial dignity, and an absolute exemption from the laws. 18. Herod begins to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem. 1. The temple of Janus is shut by Augustus, as an emblem of universal peace; and JESUS CHRIST is supposed to have been born in September, or on Monday, December 25.

AFTER CHRIST.

14. Augustus Cæsar died, aged 76. 33. The crucifixion of our Redeemer is referred to Friday, April 3; his resurrection to Sunday, April 5; his ascension to Thursday, May 14. 40. Pontius Pilate put an end to his existence, near Vienne, in Gaul, where he was living in exile. 43. Claudius Cæsar's expedition into Britain. 49. London is founded by the Romans. 61. Boadicea, the British queen, defeats the Romans, but is soon after conquered by them. The Gospel, the Acts of the Apostles, and other sacred documents, are promulgated; and Christianity makes great progress. 64. Rome set on fire, and burned for six days; upon which began (under Nero) the first persecution against the Christians. 66. St. Peter and St. Paul put to death. 68. Nero put an end to his own existence. 70. Titus, the Roman general, takes Jerusalem, which is razed to the ground. 78. A pestilence at Rome, of which ten thousand persons died daily. 79. Herculaneum and Pompeii overwhelmed by an eruption of Mount Vesuvius. 85. Julius Agricola defeats the Caledonians on the Grampian hills.

120. An earthquake destroyed Nicomedia, and several other cities. 121. The Caledonians re-conquer from the Romans all the southern parts of Scotland. Adrian's wall constructed to restrain their incursions into England. 136. The second Jewish war ends, with the banishment of the Jews. 152. When the Christians have been cruelly harassed in the Roman dominions, Antoninus Pius stops the persecution against them. 188. The Roman capitol consumed by lightning.

209. The wall of Severus built, between England and Scotland. 232. About this time the Roman empire begins to sink under its own weight. The barbarians begin their irruptions, and the Goths have an annual tribute not to molest the empire. 269. The emperor Claudius II. defeated the Goths with horrible slaughter. 274. Silk first brought from India; the manufacture introduced into Europe by some monks, 551; first worn by the clergy in England in 1534. 287. The Salian Franks established themselves to the west and south of the Rhine.

305. Abdication of Diocletian and Maximian. 306. Constantine the Great begins his reign. 313. The tenth persecution ends by an edict of Constantine, who favours the Christians, and gives full liberty to their religion. 314. Three bishops, or fathers, are sent from Britain to assist at the council of Arles. 316. Arius began to disseminate his opinions. 323. Licinius twice vanquished by Constantine. 325. The first general council at Nice. 328. Constantine removes the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, which is thenceforward called Constantinople. 337. Death of Constantine the Great. 341. A terrible earthquake in the East, and again in 358. 363. The emperor Julian slain in Persia. 364. The Roman empire is divided into the eastern (Constantinople the capital,) and western (of which Rome continued to be the capital,) each being now under the government of different emperors. 389. Agelmundus chosen as first king of the Lombards. 395. Death of the emperor Theodosius, the last sole possessor of the empire. 400. Alaric invades Italy for the first time.

404. The kingdom of Caledonia or Scotland revives under Fergus. 406. The Vandals, Alans, and Suevi, spread into France and Spain, by a concession of Honorius, emperor of the West. 410. Rome taken and plundered by Alaric, king of the Visigoths. 412. The Vandals begin their kingdom in Spain. 417. Honorius abandons Aquitaine to the Visigoths. 420. The kingdom of France is supposed to commence upon the Lower Rhine, under Pharamond, but the fact is very doubtful. The Romans, reduced to extremities at home, withdraw their troops from Britain, and never return; advising the Britons to take arms in their own defence. 428. Invasion of Africa by the Vandals, under Genseric. 438. First certain notice of the establishment of the Franks in Gaul. 448. The

Britons are greatly harassed by the Scots and Picts, upon which they make loud complaints to the Romans, but receive no assistance. Constantinople ravaged by fire, plague, famine, and earthquake. 447. Attila (surnamed the Scourge of God) ravages the Roman empire with his Huns. 449. Vortigern, the British king, invites the Saxons to assist him against the Scots and Picts. 451. Attila, after ravaging France, is defeated near Chalons. The loss of life in this battle exceeded a hundred and eighty thousand men. 455. The Saxons, having repulsed the Scots and Picts, invite over more of their countrymen, and begin to establish themselves in Kent, under Hengist. 458. Terrible earthquake in the East, which nearly destroyed Antioch. 476. The western empire ends; upon the ruins of which several new states arise in Italy and other parts, consisting of Goths, Vandals, and other barbarians, under whom literature is extinguished, and the works of the learned are destroyed. In the same year, great part of Constantinople was consumed. 496. Christianity begins in France under Clovis. 497. About this time the Slavonians seized upon Poland and Bohemia. 500. Syria and Phœnicia ravaged by the Saracens.

506. Alaric defeated and slain at Vouglé, by Clovis. 516. The computation of time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk. 529. The code of Justinian, the Eastern emperor, published. 534. Belisarius puts an end to the Vandal monarchy in Africa. 547. Rome surrenders to Totila. 553. The dominion of the Goths in Italy is destroyed. 557. A terrible plague over Europe, Asia, and Africa, which lasts nearly fifty years. 585. The South Britons are driven by the Saxons into Wales and Cornwall.

607. The papal power begins by the concessions of Phocas, emperor of the East. 622. Mohammed, an Arabian impostor, retires from Mecca to Medina, and lays the foundation of the Saracen empire. From this period his followers compute their time; that is, from the *Hejira*, or flight. 627. Cosroes, emperor of Persia, after a long series of successes, is vanquished by the emperor Heraclius, and murdered by Siroes, his own son. 632. Mahomet died at Medina. 653. The Saracens continue to extend their conquests on every side, and retaliate the barbarities of the Goths and Vandals upon their posterity. 664. Glass introduced into England. 673. The Saracen fleet destroyed by the Greek fire, at the siege of Constantinople.

711. The Saracens invade Spain, and speedily subvert the Gothic empire in that country. 732. The Saracens utterly defeated, near Tours, by Charles Martel. 741. Death of Charles Martel. 750. The race of Abbas become khalifs of the Saracens, and encourage learning. 754. Bagdad built by the caliph Almansor, and made his capital. 756. The Spanish Saracens threw off their dependence upon the eastern caliphs. 771. Charlemagne became sole king of France, by the death of his brother Carloman. 774. Charlemagne destroys the Lombard dominion in Italy. 786. Haron el Raschid became caliph. 793. The Danes begin their ravages in England. 800. Charlemagne, king of France, begins the empire of Germany, afterwards called the Western Empire. He was crowned at Rome.

814. Charlemagne died. 820. The Normans began their ravages about this time. 826. Harold, king of Denmark, dethroned by his subjects for being a Christian. 827. Egbert, king of Wessex, unites the Heptarchy by the name of England. 838. The Scots and Picts have a decisive battle, in which the former prevail, and both kingdoms are united by Kenneth. 845. The Normans began their incursions into France. 850. St. Anscar preached the gospel in Sweden. 859. So severe a winter that the Adriatic Sea was frozen. 861. Ruric, a Gothic adventurer, erects at Novogorod a grand duchy, which leads to the formation of the Russian empire. 877. Commencement of the feudal system in France. 880. Schism between the Greeks and Latins. 883. Final dismemberment of the Frank empire. 896. Alfred the Great, after subduing the Danish invaders, composes a body of laws; divides England into counties, hundreds, and tithings; erects county courts, and founds the university of Oxford.

906. The Normans take Rouen, and establish themselves in Neustria. 912. Neustria (now called Normandy) ceded to the Normans. 915. The university of Cambridge founded. 940. The Saracen empire divided into seven kingdoms. 975. Pope Boniface VII. deposed and banished for his crimes. 979. Coronation oath said to be first used in England. 987. Hugh Capet began the Capetian dynasty in France. 991. The figures in arithmetic brought into Europe by the Saracens. 996. The German empire is declared elective. 999. Boleslaus the first king of Poland. 1000. Paper, made of cotton rags, was in use; that of linen rags in 1170; the manufacture introduced into England at Dartford, 1588.

1005. A great number of churches are built about this time in a new and grand style. 1006. A plague throughout Europe, which lasted three years. 1014. Nearly the whole of Flanders was inundated. 1015. Children forbidden by law to be sold by their parents in England. 1016. The Normans began to invade Italy. 1017. Canute, king of Denmark, obtains possession of England. 1030. Mahometan power begins to decline in Spain. 1041. The Saxon line restored under Edward the Confessor. 1043. The Turks (a nation of adventurers from Tartary, serving hitherto in the armies of contending princes) become formidable, and take possession of Persia. 1054. Leo IX. the first pope who maintained an army. 1066. The battle of Hastings, between Harold and William (surnamed the Bastard) duke of Normandy, in which the former is slain. The duke becomes king of England. 1070. William in-

troduces the feudal law. Musical notes invented. 1080. About this time the Guelfs and Ghibellines, or partisans of the popes and the German emperors, convulse Italy by their factious animosities. 1086. Domesday Book compiled by order of William, from a survey of all the estates in England. The Tower of London built by William, to curb his English subjects. 1087. First war between England and France; which commenced the rivalry of the two nations. 1094. Commencement of the kingdom of Portugal. 1096. The first crusade to the Holy Land undertaken by several Christian princes, to drive the infidels from Jerusalem. 1099. Foundation of the kingdom of Jerusalem, by Godfrey of Bouillon.

1110. Edgar Atheling, the last Saxon prince, dies in England. 1119. The order of the Knights Templars instituted, to defend the sepulchre at Jerusalem, and to protect Christian strangers. 1139. Battle of Ourique. Alphonso proclaimed king of Portugal. 1152. The canon law collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna. 1157. Finland conquered by the Swedes. 1163. London Bridge, consisting of nineteen small arches, first built of stone. 1171. Egypt conquered by Saladin. 1172. Henry II. king of England, takes possession of Ireland, which, from that period, has been governed by an English viceroy. 1176. England is divided by Henry into six circuits, and justice is dispensed by itinerant judges. 1178. Commencement of the sect of the Albigenses. 1180. Glass windows begin to be used in private houses in England. 1181. The laws of England are digested about this time by Glanville. 1186. The great conjunction of the sun and moon, and all the planets in Libra, in September. 1187. Destruction of the kingdom of Jerusalem by Saladin. 1191. The Teutonic Order, combining war with religion, begins in Germany. 1192. The battle of Ascalon, in Palestine, in which Richard, king of England, defeats Saladin's very numerous army. 1198. Bohemia erected into a kingdom. 1200. Chimneys were not known in England. Surnames now begin to be used; first among the nobility.

1203. Capture of Constantinople by the Crusaders. 1204. The court of Inquisition is established on the continent, to judge the Albigenses. 1206. Genghis Khan began his career. 1208. London incorporated, and obtained the first charter for electing a lord mayor and other magistrates, from King John. 1209. Crusade against the Albigenses. 1213. French fleet destroyed by the English on the coast of Flanders. 1215. Magna Charta signed by King John and the barons of England. Court of Common Pleas established. 1227. Genghis Khan died, after having, at the head of his Tartars, emerged from the northern parts of Asia, and overrun all the Saracen empire. The houses of London, and other cities in England, France, and Germany, still thatched with straw. 1236. The Mongols began their irruptions into Russia. 1241. About this time the Hanseatic League commenced. 1248. Crusade of St. Louis, king of France. 1253. The famous astronomical tables are compiled by Alphonso the Wise, king of Castile. 1254. Commencement of the Mameluke dominion in Egypt. 1258. The Tartars take Bagdad, and put an end to the Saracen empire. 1261. End of the Latin empire at Constantinople. 1264. The commons of England are, for the first time, summoned to parliament. 1273. The empire of the present Austrian family commences in Germany, by the election of Rodolph of Hapsburgh as emperor. 1282. Wales subdued by Edward I. Massacre of the French in Sicily: this event is known by the name of the Sicilian Vespers. 1283. Prussia conquered by the Teutonic knights. 1285. The crown of Scotland is claimed by twelve candidates, who submit their pretensions to Edward I., whence arises a long war between the British nations. 1291. Acre taken by the Mamelukes, and expulsion of the Franks from Syria. 1293. From this year we may date a regular succession of English parliaments. 1294. The Mongol empire begins to decline after the death of Kublai Khan. 1298. The Turkish empire begins in Bithynia under Othman. Introduction of hereditary aristocracy into Venice.

1302. The mariner's compass invented or improved by Gioia of Naples. 1303. Admission of the Tiers Etat into the French States-General. 1307. The Swiss cantons commence their confederacy. 1312. Suppression of the Knights Templars. 1314. The battle of Bannockburn between Edward II. and Robert de Brus. 1336. The woollen manufacture introduced into England from the Netherlands. 1337. The first comet whose course is described with astronomical accuracy. 1340. Gunpowder and guns first invented by Schwartz, a monk of Cologne: in 1346, Edward III. had four pieces of cannon, which contributed to gain the battle of Crecy. Oil painting first practised by John Vanneck. 1344. Gold first coined in England. 1346. The battle of Durham, in which David king of Scotland is captured: and battle of Crecy, in which the French were utterly routed. 1349. The order of the Garter instituted in England by Edward III. 1352. The Turks first enter Europe. 1356. The battle of Poictiers, in which King John of France and his son are made prisoners. 1360. Capture of Adrianople by Amurath I. and establishment of the Turks in Europe. 1362. The law pleadings of England changed from French to English. John Wickliffe, an Englishman, begins about this time to oppose the errors of the Church of Rome with great acuteness and spirit. His followers are called Lollards. 1371. Accession of the Stuarts to the throne of Scotland. 1379. Commencement of the great Western Schism, which lasted forty years. 1386. A company of linen-weavers from the Netherlands established in London. 1391. Cards invented in France for the king's amusement. 1394. The kingdoms of Sweden,

Denmark, and Norway, are for a time united. 1396. Great defeat of Sigismund of Hungary, at Nicopolis, by Bajazet. 1399. Order of the Bath instituted at the coronation of Henry IV.; renewed in 1725.

1402. Bajazet defeated and taken at Ancyra, by Tamerlane. 1415. The battle of Agincourt gained over the French by Henry V. of England. 1416. Erection of the duchy of Savoy. 1418. War of the Hussites in Bohemia. 1428. The siege of Orleans, the first blow to the English power in France. 1430. Laurentius of Haarlem invented the art of printing from wooden blocks; Gottenburg afterward invented cut metal types; but the art was carried to perfection by Peter Schœffer, who discovered the mode of casting the types in matrices. Frederic Corsellis began to print at Oxford, in 1468, with wooden types; but it was William Caxton who introduced into England the art of printing with fusile types, in 1474. 1446. Terrible inundation at Dort, in Holland. 1453. Constantinople taken by the Turks, which ends the Eastern Empire. 1460. Engraving and etching on copper invented. 1461. Extinction of the empire of Trebisond. 1476. Defeat of the Burgundians by the Swiss, at Granson and Morat. 1478. Introduction of the Inquisition into Spain. 1485. Richard III. killed at the battle of Bosworth, by Henry (Tudor) VII. which puts an end to the civil wars between the Houses of York and Lancaster. 1486. Discovery of the Cape of Good Hope. 1488. Henry establishes fifty yeomen of the guard, the first standing army. 1492. The Moors in Spain are entirely subdued by Ferdinand. America first discovered by Colon, or Columbus, a Genoese, in the service of Spain. 1497. The Portuguese first sail to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope. South America discovered by Americo Vespucci, or Americus Vespucius, from whom the whole continent has its name. 1499. North America discovered for Henry VII. by Cabot.

1508. League of Cambray formed against Venice. 1509. Gardening begins to be regularly practised in England, so as to supersede the importation of vegetables from the Netherlands. 1513. The battle of Flodden, in which James IV. of Scotland fell. Completion of the Swiss League, to the number of thirteen cantons. 1517. Martin Luther began the Reformation. Egypt and Syria conquered by the Turks. 1518. Magalhaens or Magellan, in the service of Spain, discovers the Strait of that name in South America. He was the first voyager round the world. 1521. Conquest of Mexico by Cortes. War of the Anabaptists in Germany. 1523. Gustavus Vasa rescues Sweden from the Danish yoke. In 1528 he ascended the throne. 1525. Francis I. defeated, and taken prisoner at Pavia. Erection of Prussia into a duchy. 1529. The name of Protestant takes its rise from the reformed protesting against the Church of Rome, at the Diet of Spire. Vienna fruitlessly besieged by the Turks. 1530. Malta given to the knights by Charles V. 1531. Tuscany erected into a duchy, for the Medicis family. 1533. Conquest of Peru, by Pizarro. 1535. Revolution at Geneva; democracy and Calvinism established. Establishment of the Society of Jesuits. 1537. Religious houses dissolved by Henry VIII. 1539. The first English edition of the Bible authorized; the present translation finished in 1611. About this time cannon began to be used in ships. 1543. Silk stockings first worn by the French king: first used in England by Queen Elizabeth, 1561; the steel frame for weaving invented by the Rev. Mr. Lee, of St. John's College, Cambridge, 1589. 1544. Good lands let in England at one shilling per acre. 1545. The famous Council of Trent begins, and continues eighteen years. 1546. First law in England establishing the interest of money at ten per cent. 1548. Diet of Augsburg. Publication of the Interim. 1555. Peace of Augsburg. The Protestant religion and German liberties secured. 1558. Calais, the last English possession in France, taken by the Duke of Guise. Luther died, February 18, at Isleben. 1560. The Reformation in Scotland completed by John Knox. 1563. The English commence the slave trade on the coast of Africa. 1565. The Turks foiled in the first siege of Malta. 1568. Mary queen of Scots seeks refuge in England. 1571. The Turkish fleet defeated at Lepanto. 1572. The Briel taken by the Dutch insurgents. Commencement of the struggle for liberty. The great massacre of Protestants at Paris. 1576. Origin of the Catholic League in France. 1579. The Dutch shake off the Spanish yoke, and the republic of Holland begins. English East India Company incorporated; established in 1600. 1580. Sir Francis Drake returns from his voyage round the world, being the first English circumnavigator. Philip II. of Spain seizes upon Portugal. Parochial registers first ordered to be kept in England. 1582. Pope Gregory intruduces the New Style in Italy: the 5th of October being counted the 15th. 1584. Assassination of William of Nassau, the founder of the Dutch republic. 1587. Mary, queen of Scotland, beheaded by order of Elizabeth, after eighteen years' imprisonment. 1588. The Spanish armada destroyed by Drake and other English admirals. 1599. Coaches first introduced into England; act for hackney coaches, 1693; increased to one thousand in 1770, and to one thousand two hundred in 1801. 1597. Watches first brought into England from Germany. 1598. Henry IV. passes the edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants.

1602. Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges. 1603. Queen Elizabeth dies, and James VI. of Scotland unites that kingdom with England and Wales, under the name of Great Britain. 1604. The Gunpowder plot discovered at Westminster. Canada colonised by the French. 1608. Galileo, of Florence, discovers the satellites about the planet Jupiter, by the telescope, recently invented in Holland. Quebec founded

by the French. A general and intense frost took place this year. 1609. Foundation of the bank of Amsterdam. 1610. Henry IV. murdered at Paris by Ravaillac. The first permanent settlement in Virginia; which leads to the colonization of other parts of North America. Expulsion of the Moors from Spain. 1613. Accession of the House of Romanoff to the Russian throne. 1618. Commencement of the thirty years' war. 1619. Dr. W. Harvey, an Englishman, discovers the circulation of the blood. Establishment of the bank of Hamburgh. 1620. The broad silk manufacture introduced into England. 1626-27. The barometer invented by Torricelli, and the thermometer by Drabellius. 1628. The Huguenots, or French Protestants, are completely reduced to subjection, after a long war. 1631. Battle of Leipsic, gained by Gustavus Adolphus. 1632. The battle of Lutzen, distinguished by the fall of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and head of the German Protestants. 1635. Regular posts established from London to Scotland, Ireland, &c. Defeat of the Swedes at Nordlingen. 1640. The Portuguese shake off the yoke of Spain. 1641. A dreadful massacre in Ireland, perpetrated by the Catholics. 1642. King Charles impeaches five members, who had opposed his arbitrary measures; and a civil war arises in England. 1643. Excise on beer, ale, &c. first imposed by the parliament. 1645. Charles I. defeated in the decisive battle of Naseby. 1646. Episcopacy abolished in England. 1648. An end put to the thirty years' war, by the treaty of Munster. 1649. Charles I. beheaded at Whitehall. 1651. English navigation act passed. 1652. The Dutch establish a colony at the Cape of Good Hope. 1654. Cromwell assumes the protectorship. 1655. The English, under Admiral Penn, take Jamaica from the Spaniards. 1657. Ducal Prussia declared an independent sovereignty. 1658. Cromwell dies, and is succeeded in the protectorship by his son Richard. 1659. Peace of the Pyrenees puts an end to the long war between France and Spain. 1660. King Charles II. is restored by Monk, commander of the army. Episcopacy restored in Great Britain. The people of Denmark, being oppressed by the nobles, surrender their privileges to Frederic III. who becomes absolute. 1662. The Royal Society established by Charles II. 1665. The plague rages in London, and carries off sixty-eight thousand persons. 1666. The great fire of London began September 2, and continued three days, in which were destroyed thirteen thousand houses. Tea first used in England. 1667. The peace of Breda. 1668. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. 1669. The conquest of Candia completed by the Turks, after a struggle of twenty-four years, and the loss of two hundred thousand men. 1678. The peace of Nimeguen. The habeas-corpus act passed. 1683. The Turks, who had again besieged Vienna, are utterly defeated by John Sobieski, king of Poland. India stock sold from three hundred and sixty to five hundred per cent. 1685. The Duke of Monmouth raises a rebellion against James II., but is defeated at the battle of Sedgemoor, and beheaded. The edict of Nantes is infamously revoked by Louis XIV. and the Protestants are cruelly persecuted. 1686. Terrible inundation in Holland, by the rupture of the sea-dykes. 1687. The Turks defeated at the battle of Mohacz. 1688. The revolution in Great Britain. France renews the war on the continent. League of Augsburg against France. 1689. William, prince of Orange, and Mary, the daughter of James, are raised to the throne. France declares war against England. A bill for a land-tax enacted in England. A toleration act passed. 1690. The battle of the Boyne, gained by William against James, in Ireland. The battles of Staffarda and Fleurus gained in Italy and Flanders by the French. 1691. Defeat of James's army, at Aghrim, in Ireland. Defeat of the Turks at Salankemen, by the prince of Baden. 1692. The English and Dutch fleets defeat the French off La Hogue. Hanover made an electorate. 1693. Bayonets at the ends of loaded muskets first used by the French against the confederates, in the battle of Turin. Bank of England established. The first public lottery was drawn in this year. Massacre of Highlanders at Glencoe by King William's troops. William III. defeated at Neerwinde. 1694. Stamp duties instituted in England. 1695. Namur taken by William III. 1696. Death of John Sobieski, king of Poland. 1697. The peace of Ryswick. The Turks routed at Zenta, by Prince Eugene. 1699. Peace of Carlowitz, between the emperor and the Turks. 1700. Charles XII. of Sweden attacked by Russia, Poland, and Denmark. He besieges Copenhagen, compels the Danish monarch to submit, and defeats the Russians at Narva.

1701. Prussia erected into a kingdom. A society is instituted in England for the propagation of the gospel in foreign parts. James II. died at St. Germain en Laye. William III. died, and Queen Anne succeeded him. 1702. A vigorous war is carried on against the French, by a powerful confederacy. 1703. St. Petersburgh founded. 1704. Gibraltar taken from the Spaniards. The battle of Blenheim won by the duke of Marlborough and the allies. 1705. Barcelona taken, and Catalonia and Valencia reduced by the allies. 1706. The battle of Ramillies gained by the confederates. 1707. The treaty of union between England and Scotland. 1708. Minorca taken from the Spaniards. The battles of Oudenarde and Turin won by the allies, and Lisle taken. 1709. Peter the Great, czar of Moscovy, defeats Charles XII. at Pultowa, who flies into Turkey. The battle of Malplaquet won by the allies. Tournay taken by them. 1710. The cathedral church of St. Paul, London, rebuilt by Sir Christopher Wren, in thirty-seven years. Battle of Almenara, Saragossa, and Villaviciosa, in Spain.

1713. The peace of Utrecht. [illegible]

signed between France and the emperor. Accession of George I. to the British throne. Interest reduced to five per cent. 1715. A rebellion in Scotland. The Morea wrested from the Venetians by the Turks. 1716. An act for septennial parliaments in Great Britian. The Turks defeated at Peterwardein, by Prince Eugene. 1717. The Turks defeated at Belgrade, by Prince Eugene. 1718. Charles XII. killed at the siege of Frederikshall. 1719. The Mississippi scheme at its height in France. Revolution in Sweden. Lombe's silk-throwing machine, containing 26,586 wheels, erected at Derby. 1720. The South-Sea scheme in England began April 7, was at its height at the end of June, and quite sunk about September 29. A frightful pestilence at Marseilles. 1725. Death of the czar Peter of Russia. 1727. Inoculation first tried on criminals with success. 1729. Insurrection of the Corsicans against the Genoese.

1732. Kouli Khan usurps the Persian throne, and conquers the Mogul empire. 1736. War between Russia and Turkey. 1739. Peace of Belgrade, between the emperor of Russia and the Turks. War is declared against Spain, and, in 1744, against France. 1740. Silesia invaded by the king of Prussia.

1741. Revolution in Russia. 1743. Battle of Dettingen gained by George II. 1744. Commodore Anson returns from his voyage round the world. 1745. The allies lose the battle of Fontenoy. A rebellion breaks out in Scotland; and the Pretender's troops are defeated at Culloden, April 16, 1746. 1748. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. 1750. Westminster Bridge is finished, after the labour of twelve years.

1752. The new style introduced into Great Britain; the third of September being reckoned the fourteenth. Conflagration at Constantinople, which destroyed nearly 4000 houses. 1755. A new war with France. Society of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce, instituted in London. 1755. Lisbon receives dreadful injury from an earthquake, Nov. 1. 1756. One hundred and forty-six Englishmen confined in the black hole at Calcutta, by order of the nabob of Bengal, and one hundred and twenty-three found dead in the morning. Saxony invaded by the king of Prussia, who gains the battle of Lowositz. 1757. Battles of Prague, Kollin, Hastenbeck, Jægendorf, Rosbach, Breslau, and Leuthen, in Germany. Convention of Closterseven. 1758. Battles of Crevelt, Zorndorf, and Hochkirchen, in Germany. 1759. Battles of Bergen, Zullichau, Minden, and Kunnersdorf, in Germany. General Wolfe killed in the battle of Quebec, gained by the English. Quebec taken. 1760. Battles of Leignitz and Torgau, in Germany.

1761. Family compact between the French and Spanish Bourbons. Belleisle and Dominica taken by the English. 1762. War is declared by George III. against Spain. Martinico and the Havanna taken by the English. Peter III. emperor of Russia, is deposed, imprisoned, and murdered. American Philosophical Society established in Philadelphia. 1763. Treaties of peace concluded at Paris and Hubertsburgh. The bold spirit of Wilkes involves him in a contest with the court, and excites a flame over the kingdom. 1764. The parliament granted ten thousand pounds to Mr. Harrison, for the discovery of the longitude by his timepiece. 1765. His majesty's royal charter passed for incorporating the Society of Artists. Passing of the stamp act, which gave rise to the resistance of the North American colonies. 1767. Expulsion of the Jesuits from Spain. Corsica ceded to France by the Genoese. 1768. Royal Academy of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, established in London. 1770. Blackfriars Bridge is opened. Successes of the Russians against the Turks. Burning of the Turkish fleet at Tchesmé.

1771. Dr. Solander and Mr. Banks return with Captain Cook from a voyage round the world, having made several important discoveries in the Pacific Ocean. Moscow ravaged by pestilence. 1772. The king of Sweden changes the constitution of that kingdom. The emperor of Germany, empress of Russia, and the king of Prussia, strip the king of Poland of a great part of his dominions, which they divide among themselves, in violation of the most solemn treaties. 1773. The Jesuits expelled from the pope's dominions, and suppressed by his bull, August 25. A war, between the Russians and Turks, proves disgraceful and disastrous to the latter. Rebellion of Pugatschef in Russia. 1774. Peace is concluded between the Russians and Turks. Deputies from the several American colonies meet at Philadelphia, as the first general congress, September 5. April 10, the city of London petitioned and remonstrated against coercing the Americans. 1775. April 19, the first action happens in America between the king's troops and the provincials, at Lexington. May 20, articles of confederation and perpetual union among the American provinces. 1776. The American colonies are declared by the congress, to be free and independent states. July 4. Completion of the duke of Bridgewater's canal, from Runcorn to Manchester. 1777. Lieutenant-general Burgoyne is obliged to surrender his army, at Saratoga, to the American General Gates. Incendiary attempts of Jack the Painter on Portsmouth Dock Yard, &c. 1778. A treaty of alliance concluded at Paris between the French king and the thirteen United States of North America. Commissioners are sent to treat with the Americans: but all overtures are rejected. War between Austria and Prussia, relative to the Bavarian succession. 1779. The Spaniards join the French against Great Britain. After the discovery of the Sandwich Islands, Captain Cook loses his life in a sudden commotion of the natives. Volunteer corps established in Ireland, which led to the granting various important privileges to that country. A violent storm did great damage in London. 1780

Torture in courts of justice abolished in France. Treaty of Armed Neutrality signed by Russia, Sweden, and Denmark. The Protestant Associators go up to the House of Commons, with their petition for the repeal of an act passed in favour of the Papists. That event is followed by the most daring riots in the city of London and in Southwark, for several successive days, in which some popish chapels are destroyed, together with the prisons of Newgate, the King's Bench, the Fleet, &c. These alarming riots are at length suppressed by the interposition of the troops, and many of the rioters are tried and executed for felony. Dreadful hurricanes in the West Indies; began October 3, in Jamaica, and in Barbadoes on the 10th. A declaration of hostilities against Holland, December 20. The Spanish fleet defeated, and Gibraltar relieved, by Admiral Rodney. Formation of the Armed Neutrality in the north of Europe.

1781. Earl Cornwallis, and a considerable British army, surrender themselves prisoners of war to the American and French troops, October 19. Hyder Ali defeated in the Carnatic, by Sir Eyre Coote. The Georgium Sidus discovered by Herschell. Battle of the Dogger Bank, between the Dutch and English fleets. 1782. The Commons address the king against the prosecution of offensive war on the continent of North America, March 4. Admiral Rodney obtains a signal victory over the French fleet, near Dominica, April 12. The bill for the repeal of the declaratory act of George I. relative to the legislation of Ireland, received the royal assent, June 20. The Royal George, of 110 guns, sunk at Spithead, and nearly nine hundred lives were lost. The Spaniards defeated in their grand attack on Gibraltar, September 13. Treaty concluded betwixt the Republic of Holland and the United States of America, October 8. Provisional articles are signed at Paris, by which the American colonies are acknowledged by his Britannic majesty to be free, sovereign, and independent states, November 30. A considerable part of Constantinople destroyed by two fires. 1783. Three earthquakes in Calabria Ulterior, and Sicily, destroying a great number of towns and inhabitants, February 5, 7, and 28. Definitive treaties of peace are concluded between Great Britain and its principal adversaries; and, in 1784, with Holland. The Crimea and Georgia usurped by Russia. A conveyance through the air, in a car attached to a balloon, the ingenious but hazardous invention of Montgolfier, is repeatedly risked in France. Coalition formed between Mr. Fox and Lord North. 1784. The memory of Handel commemorated by a grand jubilee at Westminster Abbey, May 26. Lunardi ascended with a balloon from the Artillery-ground, Moorfields, September 15—the first attempt of the kind in England. 1785. Disturbances in Holland. The stadtholder deprived of his authority. Dreadful volcanic eruptions in Iceland. 1786. Gustavus III., king of Sweden, prohibited the use of torture in his dominions. Commercial treaty signed between England and France, September 26. 1787. The Prussians, under the duke of Brunswick, take Amsterdam by a coup de main; and the power of the stadtholder is restored. Impeachment of Warren Hastings. 1788. In the early part of October, the first symptoms appeared of a severe disorder which incapacitated the British monarch for the exercise of his high functions; but he recovered before a bill of regency was completed. Order of council issued in France, by which a double representation was given to the Third Estate. Insurrection of the Belgians. 1789. Revolution in France, capture of the Bastile, &c., July 14. 1790. Religious orders suppressed in France. French general federation, on the 14th of July. The insurrection in the Netherlands suppressed. The deputies of the Third Estate declare themselves to be a National Assembly. The Parisian populace compel the king and assembly to remove from Versailles to Paris.

1791. New Polish constitution formed. Attempt of Louis XVI. to escape. Convention, relative to French affairs, signed at Pilnitz. Destructive riots at Birmingham. 1792. The king of Sweden died on the 29th of March, in consequence of being wounded by Ankerstrom. Sept. 2, massacre of the prisoners by the Parisian mob. The French revolutionists abolish the old government, and erect a republic, September 21. Battle of Jemappe, November 6. 1793. Louis XVI. is unjustly put to death, after a pretended trial, January 21. By the French convention war is declared against the king of Great Britain and the stadtholder, on account of the supposed hostility of those princes to the new arrangements. The queen of France is decapitated, October 16. Second partition of Poland. 1794. An important victory is obtained by Earl Howe, over the French fleet, June 1. The multiplied murders committed by Robespierrre and his party, under the forms of law, are punished by the law of retaliation, July 28. Praga, in Poland, taken by storm, and 20,000 Poles murdered by the Russians. 1795. The prince of Orange is driven from Holland to Great Britain; and the Dutch republic is revolutionized by the French. The trial of Warren Hastings concludes with his acquittal, above seven years after its commencement. Final partition of Poland, and extinction of the kingdom. Dissolution of the National Convention, and meeting of the new legislature of France. 1796. The French meet with great success in Italy, and compel the king of Sardinia to cede the duchy of Savoy. The Cis-Alpine republic is organized by Bonaparte, in the north of Italy. The French defeated in Germany, by the archduke Charles. 1797. A signal victory is gained over the Spanish fleet by Sir John Jervis, afterwards created Earl St. Vincent, February 14. An alarming mutiny arises in the channel fleet at Spithead, April 15. It spreads among other ships; but is suppressed by the spirit of the government. The French demo-

cratise Venice and Genoa. A great victory gained over the Dutch fleet, by Admiral Duncan, October 11. Peace between France and Austria, signed at Campo Formio, October 17. 1798. A dreadful rebellion in Ireland, not quelled without much bloodshed. Switzerland invaded by the French. Invasion of Egypt by the French, under Bonaparte. The glorious victory of Admiral Nelson, at Aboukir Aug. 1. Piedmont seized by the French. 1799. The war against France recommenced by the emperor. Seringapatam taken by Lieutenant-General Harris, and the sultan Tippoo killed, May 4. The directorial government abolished in France, and a new constitution framed, according to which Bonaparte was to be first consul for ten years. Failure of the duke of York's expedition to Holland. Bonaparte defeated at Acre, by Sir Sidney Smith. Bonaparte landed in France, from Egypt. 1800. The battle of Marengo, gained by Bonaparte. The missionary system is established on a large scale, and an institution is formed, under the appellation of the Church Missionary Society to Africa and the East. Foundation laid of the new London Docks.

1801. The union with Ireland takes place, January 1. The peace of Luneville, between France and Austria, signed February 9. The battle of Alexandria gained by the British troops, March 21. Egypt evacuated by the French, August 30. Paul, the Russian emperor, is murdered, March 24. Lord Nelson destroys the Danish fleet near Copenhagen, April 2. Sir James Saumarez defeated the French and Spanish fleet near Cadiz. 1802. A treaty of peace between Great Britain and the French republic, signed at Amiens, March 27. Bonaparte made consul for life. Piedmont united to France. Very large and commodious docks are opened for the ships concerned in the West Indian trade; and a new dock, on a large scale, is also undertaken at Wapping, by the merchants of London. Conspiracy of Colonel Despard against the government. Fire at Liverpool, consumed property to the amount of £1,000,000. 1803. The war is renewed with France. An insurrection in Dublin. Louisiana sold to the United States, by France. The French seize upon Hanover. Battle of Assaye, in India, gained by Sir A. Wellesley. 1804. The Duke d'Enghien, seized by order of Bonaparte, on a neutral territory, is shot in the night in the wood of Vincennes. Plot formed against the first consul, by Pichegru, Moreau, and others. New civil code established in France. Napoleon chosen emperor of France. 1805. The Cis-Alpine or Italian republic declared an hereditary monarchy, by the title of the Kingdom of Italy, and the crown conferred on Napoleon. Great Britain and Russia agree to a third coalition against France. General Mack surrenders to the French with his army, consisting of 25,000 Austrians, Oct. 17. Memorable battle of Trafalgar, glorious, but fatal to Lord Nelson, October 21. Battle of Austerlitz, in which the Austrians and Russians were defeated by the French, with great loss, December 2. Peace between Austria and France concluded at Presburg, December 26. Lord Melville impeached by the Commons. He was acquitted. 1806. The Cape of Good Hope taken by the English, January 8. Joseph Bonaparte becomes king of Naples and Sicily, February 15. Battle of Maida, gained by the English in Calabria. Holland is declared by the French to be a kingdom, and Louis Bonaparte is the new king. The Confederation of the Rhine formed, July 12. Dissolution of the Germanic Confederacy, and abdication of the emperor. The French triumph over the Prussians in the battle of Jena, October 14. Saxony erected into a kingdom. 1807. The battle of Eylau, February 6. The slave trade is abolished by the British parliament. Passage of the Dardanelles forced by a British squadron under Admiral Duckworth. The battle of Friedland, where the Russians were defeated by the French, June 14. Treaty of Tilsit, between Russia and France, concluded July 7. The kingdom of Westphalia erected in favour of Jerome Bonaparte, September 7. Copenhagen bombarded, and the whole of the Danish navy surrendered to the English, September 7. The prince-regent and court of Portugal emigrate to Brazil, November 29, and a French army takes possession of Lisbon. The celebrated Milan decree, against British commerce, was issued by Napoleon. 1808. The king of Spain, Charles IV., abdicates the crown in favour of his son, who is proclaimed king under the name of Ferdinand VII., March 19. Napoleon, by artifices and threats, prevails on Charles and Ferdinand to resign their respective rights in his favour; after which, they are confined in the interior of France. A new nobility established in France, by Napoleon. Insurrection and massacre at Madrid, May 2. Joseph Bonaparte assumes the sovereignty of Spain, July 12. The battle of Bayleu gained by the Spaniards. Battle of Vimiero, in Portugal, gained by Sir Arthur Wellesley, Aug. 21. The convention of Cintra signed, by which the French are quietly suffered to retire from Portugal, August 30. Covent Garden Theatre burned down, September 20. 1809. Battle of Corunna; death of General Moore, January 16. A revolution in Sweden. Gustavus Adolphus IV. is deposed, and his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, chosen king, by the title of Charles XIII., March 13. Hostilities again commence between Austria and France, April 9. Napoleon, after several battles, in which he is constantly successful, and the Austrians sustain great losses, enters Vienna, May 12. Gustavus of Sweden deposed, and his uncle raised to the throne. Destruction of the French fleet, in the Charente, by Lord Cochrane. Drury Lane Theatre burnt down, Feb. 24. The Pope Pius VII., is deposed by the French, May 17. The battles of Aspern and of Esling, in which the French are repulsed, May 21, 22. The decisive victory of Wagram, obtained by the French,

. Battle of Talavera, in Spain, July 27.
rous expedition to the isle of Walcheren.
concluded between Sweden and Russia,
nber 5. Definitive treaty between France
ıstria, signed at Vienna, October 3. 1810.
loupe taken by the English, February.
ionment of Sir Francis Burdett in the
, for a supposed libel on the House of
ons, April 9. The union of Holland with
: declared by a French decree, July 9.
lotte, the French general, chosen crown-
of Sweden, August 18. The colonists of
ıela revolt from the king of Spain, and
new government, which, after a long
t, becomes the republic of Colombia.
'ench defeated at Busaco, by Lord Wel-
ı, September, 24. The Isle of France
by the English, December 2.

The king, being incapable of acting as
gn, the prince of Wales is invested with
gency, February 6. The British arms
h at Barrosa and Albuera, in Spain,
5, May 16. Tarragona taken by storm,
'shal Suchet, June 28. Batavia and the
Dutch settlements in the island of Java
ptured by the English, August. Mas-
'feated by Lord Wellington, at Fuentes
, August 5. Riots break out in Notting-
ire, among the distressed manufacturers,
read into other counties. 1812. Ciudad
o taken by storm, by Lord Wellington,
y 19. The city of Caracas destroyed by
hquake. Badajos stormed by Lord Wel-
, April 6. Mr. Percival, the prime mi-
is assassinated at the entrance of the
of Commons, May 11. The French are
d at Salamanca, by the English and
nese, July 22. The United States of
a declare war against Great Britain.
'ench, under the conduct of Napoleon,
Russia; but, after several conflicts, they
'en from the country with dreadful loss
grace. Battle of Smolensko, August 17.
of Borodino, September 7. Conflagra-
Moscow, September 14. Conspiracy
, against Napoleon's government, by
October 23. Battle of the Beresina,
n the Russians and French, November 28.
The allies defeated at the battle of Gros
ıen, or Lutzen, by Napoleon, May 2,
din at Bautzen, on the 21st of May. The
Wellington defeats the French at Vit-
une 21. The French, under Soult, de-
in a series of actions, in the Pyrenees,
asted several days, July, August. The
efeated by Napoleon, at the battle of
n, August 27. San Sebastian stormed
Anglo-Portuguese army, August 31. The
are totally defeated at Leipsic, October
ılland, the kingdom of Westphalia, and
ıssal states, are encouraged to shake off
nch yoke. Several advantages obtained
l Wellington, over the French army, in
ber and December. 1814. The allies
he frontier, with a full determination of
ıg the submission of France. Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia, conclude a treaty of alliance at Chaumont, engaging to bring into the field the whole military power of their respective states, or at least 150,000 men each, with a view of crushing the dangerous predominance of France, and restoring the independence of the European states. Napoleon resigns Spain to Ferdinand VII. Marshal Soult defeated by the duke of Wellington, in the battles of Orthez and Toulouse. After some well-contested battles, the combined troops approach Paris; the fortified posts are stormed, and the city capitulates, March 31. Napoleon, having rejected reasonable terms of peace, is deposed by the senate, and sent to Elba; and Louis XVIII. is placed on the throne. The Pope is restored to freedom and to power. Treaties are concluded, May 30, between the French and the confederate powers, reducing the kingdom nearly to the same boundaries which circumscribed it in 1792; and the foreign troops return to their respective countries. The Spanish constitution overthrown, and the Inquisition re-established by the degraded Ferdinand VII. Peace is restored between Britain and the United States, by the treaty of Ghent, December 24. 1815. Custom House, at London, burned down, Feb. 12. Napoleon emerges from his retreat, invades France with nine hundred men, and recovers the imperial dignity. Having gained an advantage at Ligny, he is encouraged to attack the British, Belgian, and subsidiary troops, near Waterloo. He seems to be on the point of prevailing; but, on the march of Blucher to join the duke of Wellington, he is chastised by a memorable defeat, June 18. Paris is again taken by the allies, July 3; the king is restored to the throne; and Napoleon, not having an opportunity of escaping to America, surrenders himself to the commander of a British ship of war. The disposal of his person being left to the decision of the prince-regent, he is confined in the island of St. Helena. The French are compelled by a new treaty (November 20) to give up a number of their fortresses for temporary occupancy, and to submit to other unpleasing demands. By a congress of princes and ministers, at Vienna, the affairs of Europe, so long disordered and convulsed, are deliberately adjusted. Riots in London, respecting the Corn Laws, which continued several days, February. 1816. To chastise the Algerines for their piratical outrages, a British armament is sent out under Lord Exmouth. Humbled by the ruin of his fortifications and the destruction of his ships, the dey consents to the liberation of his European captives, and promises to abolish Christian slavery in his dominions. A new state is formed in South America, under the designation of the United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata. An earthquake felt in various parts of England, March 20. Terrible inundation of one hundred and nineteen villages, in Prussia. Riots in London, after the Spa Fields meeting, December 2. 1817. The prince-regent and the

monarch of France. Aerial voyage from Vauxhall Gardens to Weilburg, in the German duchy of Nassau. 1837. All the American banks suspend specie payments. William IV., king of England, died. The cholera morbus again ravaged the continent. Queen Victoria dined at Guildhall, November 9. The new king of Hanover (duke of Cumberland) suppresses the liberal constitution of the kingdom. Rebellion broke out in Canada. 1838. The Royal Exchange destroyed by fire. Coronation of Queen Victoria, June 28. Complete opening of the London and Birmingham Railway. Slavery abolished in the East Indies. Renewal of the rebellion in Canada. 1839. Destructive hurricane in England and Ireland. Imprisonment of the British superintendent, and seizure of opium, by the Chinese. Chartist riot at Birmingham. Termination of the Carlist rebellion in Spain. Attack made upon Newport by Chartist rebels. Reforms announced by the Turkish sultan. 1840. Penny-postage came into operation. Marriage of Queen Victoria with Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg. Attempt to assassinate the queen, by a youth named Oxford. Paris ordered to be fortified. Alarming fires in Plymouth and Sheerness dockyards. Attempt to assassinate the king of France. Acre captured in a few hours by the British fleet. Removal of the remains of Napoleon from St. Helena to Paris.

1841. Almost the whole of England visited by a destructive thunder-storm. Re-building of the Royal Exchange commenced. Union of the two Canadas proclaimed at Montreal. Espartero elected regent of Spain. Commencement of the Anti-Corn-Law agitation. Terrible fire at Smyrna; several thousand houses and persons burned. Thames tunnel completed from shore to shore. Resignation of the Whig ministry, and appointment of their opponents. Christino insurrection suppressed in Spain. The armoury and other buildings in the Tower were burnt. 1842. Massacre of the British troops in Affghanistan. First stone of the New Royal Exchange laid by Prince Albert. Increase of Anti-Corn-Law associations. A large part of Hamburgh consumed. Destructive earthquake in St. Domingo. Attempt made, by Francis, to assassinate the Queen. Insurrection in the Midland counties. Attempt to assassinate the queen, made by Bean. Settlement of the boundary question with the United States. Affghanistan evacuated by the British troops, after the defeat of the Affghans, and destruction of their fortified places.

MEN OF LEARNING AND GENIUS.

N.B.—By the Date is implied the time when the Writers died; but, when that period happens not to be known, the Age in which they flourished is signified by *fl.* The names in Italics are those who have given the best English Translations.

BEFORE CHRIST.

907. Homer, the first profane writer and Greek poet, flourished. *Pope. Cowper. Sotheby.* Hesiod, the Greek poet, supposed to have lived near the time of Homer. *Cooke. Elton.* 872. Lycurgus, the Spartan legislator. 600. Sappho, the Greek lyric poetess, fl. *Fawkes.* 558. Solon, lawgiver of Athens. 556. Æsop, the first Greek fabulist. *Croxal.* 548. Thales, the first Greek astronomer. 500. Zoroaster, or Zerdusht, the Persian philosopher, fl. 497. Pythagoras, founder of the Pythagorean philosophy in Greece. *Rowe.* 474. Anacreon, the Greek lyric poet. *Fawkes. Moore.* 456. Æschylus, the first Greek tragic poet. *Potter.* 435. Pindar, the Greek lyric poet. *West. Green. Pye.* 413. Herodotus of Greece, the first writer of profane history. *Littlebury. Beloe.* 407. Aristophanes, the Greek comic poet, fl. *White. Mitchell.* Euripides, the Greek tragic poet. *Wodhull. Potter.* 406. Sophocles. *Francklin. Potter.* 406—or, as some say, 500—Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, fl. 400. Socrates, the Grecian philosopher. 391. Thucydides, the Greek historian. *Hobbes. Smith.* 361. Hippocrates, the Greek physician. Clifton. Democritus, the Greek philosopher. 359. Xenophon, the historian. *Smith. Spelman. Ashby. Fielding.* 348. Plato, the Greek philosopher, and disciple of Socrates. *Sydenham. Taylor.* 336. Isocrates, the Greek orator. *Gillies.* 320. Aristotle, the Greek philosopher. *Hobbes. Pye. Gillies.* 313. Demosthenes, the Athenian orator, poisoned himself. *Leland. Francis.* 288. Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher, and scholar of Aristotle. *Budgell.* 285. Theocritus, the first Greek pastoral poet, fl. *Fawkes. Polwhele.* 277. Euclid, of Alexandria in Egypt, the mathematician, fl. *R. Simson.* 270. Epicurus, founder of the Epicurean philosophy in Greece. 264. Zeno, founder of the Stoic philosophy. 244. Callimachus, the Greek elegiac poet. *Tytler.* 208. Archimedes, the Greek geometrician. 184. Plautus, the Roman comic poet. *Thornton.* 159. Terence, of Carthage, the Latin comic poet. *Colman.* 155. Diogenes, of Babylon, the Stoic philosopher. 134. Polybius, of Greece, the historian. *Hampton.* 54. Lucretius, the Roman poet. *Creech. Good. Busby.* 44. Julius Cæsar, the Roman historian. *Duncan.* Diodorus Siculus, of Greece, the universal historian, fl. *Booth.* Vitruvius, the

Roman architect, fl. 43. Cicero, the Roman orator and philosopher, put to death. *Guthrie. Melmoth.* Cornelius Nepos, the Roman biographer, fl. *Rowe.* 34. Sallust, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Rowe. Stuart.* 30. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, the Greek historian of Rome, fl. *Spelman.* 19. Virgil, the epic poet. *Dryden. Pitt. Warton. Symmons.* 11. Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius, Roman poets. *Grainger. Dart. Lamb.* 8. Horace, the Roman lyric and satiric poet. *Francis. Boscawen.*

AFTER CHRIST.

17. Livy, the Roman historian. *Hay. Baker.* 19. Ovid, the Roman elegiac poet. *Garth. Howard.* 20. Celsus, the Greek philosopher and physician, fl. *Grieve.* 25. Strabo, the Greek geographer. 33. Phædrus, the Roman fabulist. *Smart.* 45. Paterculus, the Roman historian, fl. *Newcome.* 62. Persius, the Roman satiric poet. *Brewster. Drummond. Gifford.* 64. Quintus Curtius, the historian of Alexander the Great, fl. *Digby. Pratt.* Seneca, of Spain, the philosopher and tragic poet, put to death. *L'Estrange.* 65. Lucan, the Roman epic poet. *Rowe.* 79. Pliny the elder, the Roman natural historian. *Holland.* 93. Josephus, the Jewish historian. *Whiston.* 94. Epictetus, the Greek Stoic philosopher, fl. *Mrs. Carter.* 95. Quintilian, the Roman orator and advocate. *Guthrie.* 96. Statius, the Roman epic poet. *Lewis.* 98. Lucius Florus, of Spain, the Roman historian, fl. 99. Tacitus, the Roman historian. *Gordon. Murphy.* 100. Silius Italicus, the Roman poet.

104. Martial, of Spain, the epigrammatic poet. *Hay. Elphinstone.* Valerius Flaccus, the Roman epic poet. *Noble.* 116. Pliny the younger, a polite writer. *Melmoth. Orrery.* 117. Suetonius, the Roman historian. *Hughes. Thomson.* 119. Plutarch, of Greece, the biographer. *Dryden. Langhorne.* 128. Juvenal, the Roman satiric poet. *Dryden. Gifford. Badham.* 140. Ptolemy, the Egyptian geographer, mathematician, and astronomer, fl. 150. Justin, the Roman historian, fl. *Turnbull.* 161. Arrian, the Greek historian and philosopher, fl. *Rooke.* Justin, of Samaria, the oldest Christian author after the apostles. 167. Pausanias, the Grecian antiquary, fl. *Taylor.* 180. Lucian, the humorous and satirical Greek writer. *Dimsdale. Dryden. Francklin. Carr. Tooke.* Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, the Roman emperor and philosopher. *Collier. Graves Elphinston.* 200. Galen, the Greek philosopher and physician. Diogenes Laertius, the Greek biographer, fl.

229. Dion Cassius, of Greece, the historian, fl. 230. Apollonius Rhodius, the Greek poet, fl. *Preston. Ekins.* 254. Origen, a Christian father of Alexandria. Herodian, of Alexandria, the historian, fl. *Hart.* 258. Cyprian, of Carthage, suffered martyrdom. *Marshall.* 273. Longinus, the Greek orator, put to death by Aurelian. *Smith.*

300. Lactantius, a father of the church, fl. 336. Arius, a priest of Alexandria, founder of the sect of Arians. 342. Eusebius, the ecclesiastical historian and chronologist. *Hanmer.* 379. Basil, bishop of Cæsarea. 389. Gregory Nazianzen, bishop of Constantinople. 397. Ambrose, bishop of Milan.

405. Claudian, the Roman poet, fl. *Hawkins.* 407. Chrysostom, a father of the church. 415. Macrobius, the Roman grammarian. 428. Eutropius, the Roman historian. 430. St. Augustine, a father of the church. 480. Sidonius Apollinaris.

524. Boetius, the Roman poet and Platonic philosopher. *Bellamy. Preston. Redpath.* 529. Procopius, of Cæsarea, the Greek historian. *Holcroft.* 530. Agathias, the Greek historian.

Here ends the illustrious list of ancient or classic authors, for whom mankind are principally indebted to Greece and Rome, those two theatres of human glory; but it will ever be regretted that small portions only of their writings have come to our hands. This loss was occasioned by the barbarous policy of those illiterate pagans who, in the fifth century, subverted the Roman empire; in which practices they were afterwards joined by the Saracens. Constantinople alone had escaped the ravages of the barbarians; and to the few *literati* who sheltered themselves within its walls we chiefly owe the preservation of those valuable remains of antiquity. To learning, civilization, and refinement, succeeded worse than Gothic ignorance—the superstition and buffoonery of the church of Rome. Europe, therefore, produces few names worthy of record during the space of a thousand years; a period which historians with great propriety denominate the dark ages.

Yet, even in those times, some eminent men, who were comparatively enlightened, appeared in various countries; and, since the reformation of religion and the invention of printing, a copious and splendid list may be exhibited. In a work of general geography and history, it may not be deemed altogether just or equitable to confine the enumeration, as in former editions, to the distinguished persons of our own country: we shall therefore introduce many remarkable names from other parts of the civilized world, not only in literature, but also in the arts.

709. Aldhelm, bishop of Sherborne; Wiltshire; excelled in poetry and polite learning. 735. Bede, a monk, born at Durham; wrote the history of the Anglo-Saxons. 887. Photius, patriarch of Constantinople; Bibliotheca, Nomo-Canon. 901. King Alfred; history, ethics, and poetry. 904. Alcuin, abbot of Canterbury; Yorkshire; theology, morals, and poetry.

1020. Ferdousi, Persia; poetry. 1036. Ebn Sina, (Avicenna,) born in Usbeck Tartary; philosophy and medicine. 1140. William, a monk of Malmesbury, Somersetshire; &c.—&c.

tory. 1164. Peter the Lombard; scholastic theology.

1208. William, a monk of Newburgh; Yorkshire; history. 1209. Moses Maimonides, Spain; commentaries on the Old Testament, and an exposition of the Mosaic law. 1240. Robert Grosse-tête, bishop of Lincoln; Suffolk; theology, ethics, and natural philosophy. 1259. Matthew Paris, a monk of St. Albans; history. 1274. Thomas Aquinas, Italy; scholastic theology. St. Bonaventura, Italy; was highly distinguished in the same department. 1286. Gregory Aboul-faraj, Armenia; wrote history. 1292. Roger Bacon, Somersetshire; natural philosophy, and every branch of literature. 1300. Cimabue, Italy; called the father of modern painters.

1308. Duns, called Scotus, but born in Northumberland; logic and scholastic divinity. 1321. Dante, Italy; poetry. *Boyd. Carey. Wright.* 1332. Ismael Aboulfeda, Syria; history. 1340. William Ockham, Surrey; the school divine, fl. 1374. Petrarca, Italy; the poet. 1375. Boccaccio, Italy; wrote novels and miscellanies. 1384. William Wickliffe, Yorkshire; was the father of the Reformation. 1400. Geoffrey Chaucer, London; the father of English poetry.

1402. John Gower, Yorkshire; the poet. 1415. John Huss, Bohemia; the reformer. 1440. John Lydgate, a monk of St. Edmundsbury; was an ingenious poet. 1450. Jami, the Persian poet, fl. Sir John Fortescue, Devonshire, fl.; illustrated the laws of England. 1494. Politian, Italy; was one of the revivers of polite learning.

1519. John Colet, dean of St. Paul's; London; wrote upon theology and grammar. 1520. Raphael, Italy; was an admirable painter. Leonardo da Vinci, Florentine; a painter. 1528. Albert Durer, Germany; also a painter. 1530. Machiavelli, Italy; wrote history, politics, and poetry. 1531. Zuinglius, Switzerland; was a protestant reformer. 1534. Ariosto, Italy; wrote romantic poetry. *Harrington. Hoole. Rose.* Correggio, Italy; was a great painter. 1535. Sir Thomas More, London; wrote divinity, history, politics. 1536. Erasmus, Holland; philology and polite learning. 1540. Guicciardini, Italy; history. 1543. Nicolas Copernicus, Poland; astronomy. 1546. Martin Luther, Germany; was a religious reformer. Giulio Romano, Italy; a painter. 1547. Henry Howard, earl of Surrey; wrote poems.

1553. Francis Rabelais, was the Lucian of France. *Urquhart. Motteux. Ozell.* 1554. Hans Holbein, Switzerland; the painter. 1556. Thomas Cranmer, Nottinghamshire, archbishop of Canterbury; the reformer. 1558. Julius Cæsar Scaliger, Italy; wrote criticism and poetry. 1560. Philip Melancthon (Schwartzerde) Germany; was a reformer. 1564. Michael Angelo Buonaroti, Italy; excelled in painting, sculpture, and architecture. John Le Chauve, or Calvin, France; promoted the Reformation. 1566. Vida, bishop of Alba, Italy; wrote Latin poetry. *Pitt.* 1568. Roger Ascham, Yorkshire; classical literature. 1571. John Jewel, Devonshire; bishop of Salisbury; protestant theology. 1572. John Knox, East Lothian; was a reformer. Peter Ramus (La Ramée,) France; wrote on logic and philosophy. 1576. Titian, Italy; was a great painter. 1579. Camoens, Portugal; wrote poetry. *Mickle.* 1580. Palladio, Italy; was an architect. 1582. George Buchanan, Dunbartonshire; wrote history and Latin poetry. 1583. James (called the Admirable) Crichton, Perthshire; was a universal genius. 1585. Peter de Ronsard, France; wrote poetry. 1586. Sir Philip Sidney, Kent; poems and romances. 1588. Paul of Verona (Paolo Veronese;) shone as a painter. 1594. Tintoretto, Italy; a painter. 1595. Tasso, Italy; a poet. *Hoole. Wiffen.* 1598. Edmund Spenser, London; a poet. 1600. Richard Hooker, Devonshire; wrote on ecclesiastical polity.

1601. Tycho Brahe, Denmark; cultivated astronomy. 1602, 1609, 1619. Augustino, Annibale, and Lodovico Carracci, Italy; were celebrated painters. 1605. Theodore Beza, France; was a reformer. 1607. Rev. Dr. John Rainolds, Devonshire; was one of the most learned men of his time. 1608. Thomas, earl of Dorset; wrote poetry. 1609. James Arminius, Holland; theology. Joseph Justus Scaliger, France; Latin poetry and criticism. 1615, 1625. Francis Beaumont, Leicestershire; and John Fletcher, Northamptonshire; dramatic pieces. 1616. William Shakspeare, Warwickshire; tragedies and comedies. Cervantes, Spain; romance of Don Quixote. 1617. Thuanus (de Thou,) Paris; history. 1618. Sir Walter Raleigh, Devonshire; history. 1622. John Napier, of Merchiston; discovered the logarithms. 1623. William Camden, London; wrote history and antiquities. 1624. Mariana, Spain; history. 1626. Francis Bacon, Lord Verulam, London; natural philosophy, and literature in general. Lancelot Andrews, London; bishop of Winchester, theology. 1628. Malherbe, France; poetry. 1630. Kepler, Germany; astronomy. 1634. Sir Edward Coke, Norfolk; was a judge and a writer upon law. 1635. Davila, Italy; wrote history. *Farnesworth.* Lope de Vega, Madrid; dramatic pieces. 1637. Benjamin Jonson, London; the drama, poems. 1638. Jansen, Holland; bishop of Ypres; theology. 1639. Philip Massinger, Wilts; dramatic pieces. Martin Opitz, Silesia, was the father of German poetry. 1640. Sir Peter Paul Rubens, Antwerp or Cologne; a painter of the Flemish school. 1641. Meursius, Holland; wrote on classical antiquities. Domenichino, Italy; was a painter. Vandyck, Netherlands; a painter. 1642. Galileo Galilei, Italy; studied natural philosophy. Guido, Italy; was a painter. 1644. William Chillingworth, Oxford; wrote on theology. Bentivoglio, Italy; history, letters. 1645. Grotius (Groot,) Holland; divinity, civil law, history, and philology. Quevedo, Madrid;

poems and miscellanies. 1648. Edward, Lord Herbert, of Cherbury, Montgomeryshire; history, and deistical philosophy. Marin Mersenne, France; natural philosophy. Voiture, France; poetry and miscellanies. 1649. William Drummond, of Hawthornden, Scotland; history and poetry. Teniers, Antwerp, was a Flemish painter. 1650. René Des Cartes, France; wrote on philosophy.

1651. Inigo Jones, London, was an able architect. 1653. Salmasius (Saumaise,) Paris; wrote on classical criticism. 1654. John Selden, Sussex; antiquities, law of nations. 1655. Gassendi, France; mathematics and philosophy. 1656. James Usher, Dublin; archbishop of Armagh; ecclesiastical antiquities and theological criticism. 1657. Dr. William Harvey, Kent; discovered the circulation of the blood. 1660. James Cats, Holland; wrote poetry. 1662. Pascal, France; provincial letters. 1665. Nicolas Poussin, France; was a capital painter. 1666. Guercino, Italy; a painter. 1667. Jeremy Taylor, Cambridge, bishop of Down; wrote on theology. Abraham Cowley, London; poetry. 1668. Rembrandt, Holland; was a painter of the Flemish school. 1671. Bourdon, France; a painter. 1672. John Wilkins, Northamptonshire, bishop of Chester; wrote on divinity and philosophy. 1673. Molière, France; comedies. Salvator Rosa, Italy; was a painter. 1674. John Milton, London; wrote the Paradise Lost. Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, Wilts; history. 1677. Rev. Dr. Isaac Barrow, London; natural philosophy and theology. Thomas Hobbes, Wilts; was a aceptical philosopher. 1680. Samuel Butler, Worcestershire; wrote burlesque poetry. Sir Peter Lely, Germany; was a painter. The duke de la Rochefoucault, France; wrote maxims, reflections, and memoirs. Bernini, Italy; was a sculptor. 1682. Claude, of Lorraine; a painter. Murillo, Spain; also a painter. 1683. Francis Mezeray, France; wrote history. Algernon Sidney; politics. 1684. Peter Corneille, France; tragedies. 1685. Thomas Otway, Sussex; tragedies and comedies. 1687. George, duke of Buckingham; comedies. Edmund Waller, Warwickshire; poems, speeches, letters, &c. 1688. Dr. Ralph Cudworth, Somersetshire; theology and metaphysics. John Bunyan, Bedfordshire; the Pilgrim's Progress. 1689. Dr. Thomas Sydenham, Dorsetshire; medicine. 1690. Nathaniel Lee, London; tragedies. Robert Barclay, Edinburgh; Apology for the Quakers. 1691. Robert Boyle, Ireland; divinity and philosophy. Richard Baxter, Shropshire; theology. 1694. John Tillotson, Yorkshire; archbishop of Canterbury; sermons. Pufendorff, Germany; history, and the law of nations. 1695. Huygens, Holland; mathematics and astronomy. La Fontaine, France; fables and tales. Henry Purcell; Orpheus Britannicus. 1696. The Marchioness of Sevigné, France; letters. 1697. Redi, Italy; medicine, natural history, and poetry. 1699. Sir William Temple, London; politics and miscellanies. 1700. John Dryden, Northamptonshire; poems and dramatic pieces.

1702. Robert Hooke, Isle of Wight, philosophical and mechanical. 1703. Grævius, Germany; classical antiquities and criticism. Rev. Dr. John Wallis, Kent; divinity, logic, and mathematics. 1704. John Locke, Somersetshire; divinity, metaphysics, politics. Louis Bourdaloue, France; sermons. James Bossuet, France, bishop of Meaux; divinity and history. Luca Giordano, Italy; was an eminent painter. Egbert Heemskirk, Holland; a painter of fanciful subjects. Sir Roger L'Estrange, Norfolk; politics, translations. 1706. James Bernouilli, Switzerland; wrote on the mathematics. 1706. John Ray, Essex; theology and botany. Peter Bayle, France; critical biography. John Baptist Duhamel, France; theology, mathematics. John Evelyn, Surrey; arboriculture, gardening, and miscellaneous. 1707. Simon Patrick, Lincolnshire, bishop of Ely; theology. George Farquhar, Londonderry; comedies. Vincent Filicaja, Italy; an eminent poet. Vauban, France; was a great military engineer. Gerard Edelinck, Antwerp; a celebrated engraver. 1708. John Philips, Oxfordshire; poetry. Joseph Pitton de Tournefort, France; botany, travels. 1710. Esprit Flechier, France; bishop of Nismes; wrote sermons, orations, biography. Simon Verelst, Holland; a celebrated flower painter. 1711. Nicolas Boileau, France; poems. Henry Dodwell, Dublin; metaphysician and antiquary. 1712. Dr. William King, London; poet, and miscellaneous writer. 1713. Antony, earl of Shaftesbury, Dorsetshire; characteristics. Carlo Maratti, Italy; shone as a painter. Corelli, Italy; a musical composer. Godfrey Bidlo, Holland; a celebrated anatomist. 1714. Dr. John Radcliffe, Yorkshire; a celebrated physician. Sebastian le Clerc, France; an eminent engraver, and writer on geometry and architecture. Matthew Henry, Shropshire; theology, biblical commentary, biography. 1715. Gilbert Burnet, Edinburgh, bishop of Salisbury; wrote on divinity, history, &c. William Wycherley, Shropshire; comedies. Fenelon Francis de la Saligiac de la Motte, France, archbishop of Cambray; the romance of Telemachus, political morality. Malebranche, France; theology and moral philosophy. 1716. James Gronovius, Germany; classical antiquities and criticism. Godfrey Leibnits, Germany; mathematics and natural philosophy. Robert South, Middlesex; sermons and controversial divinity. 1717. Thomas Parnell, Dublin; poems. 1718. Nicolas Rowe, Bedfordshire; dramatic pieces. Richard Cumberland, London; philosophy, antiquities. 1719. Joseph Addison, Wiltshire; Spectator, poems, politics. Rev. John Flamsteed, Derbyshire; astronomy. Sir Samuel Garth, Yorkshire; was a physician and a poet. John Hughes, Wiltshire; poems, dramas, and essays. Jacob Houbraken, Holland; an engraver. 1720. Simon Ockley

Devonshire; historian and orientalist. Ann Dacier, France; celebrated critic and translator. Count Anthony Hamilton, Ireland; tales and memoirs. 1721. Dr. John Keill, Edinburgh; wrote upon mathematics and astronomy. Matthew Prior, London; poetry. 1722. Charles Leslie, Ireland; theological and political works. Andrew Dacier, France; critic and translator; the husband of Madam Dacier. 1723. Sir Christopher Wren, London; was a very able architect. Sir Godfrey Kneller, Germany; a painter. Susannah Centlivre, Lincolnshire; dramatist. Anthony Lewenhoek, Holland; natural philosophy. 1724. Rev. William Wollaston, Staffordshire; wrote on theological philosophy. 1725. Rapin de Thoyras, France; History of England.

1726. Sir John Vanbrugh, London; comedies. Jeremy Collier, Cambridgeshire; history, essays, theology, miscellaneous. 1727. Sir Isaac Newton, Lincolnshire; natural philosophy. 1728. Gabriel Daniel, France; history, miscellaneous. 1729. Dr. Samuel Clarke, Norwich; divinity, natural philosophy, and classical criticism. William Congreve, Yorkshire; dramatic pieces. Sir Richard Steele, Dublin; comedies and periodical papers. Sir Richard Blackmore, Wiltshire; poetry, medicine, miscellaneous. 1730. Elijah Fenton, Staffordshire; poems, translation, biography. James Saurin, France; sermons and theology. 1731. Francis Atterbury, Buckinghamshire, bishop of Rochester; sermons and controversial pieces. Daniel Defoe, London; history, novels, politics, trade. 1732. John Gay, Devonshire; poems and dramatic pieces. 1733. John Dennis, London; critic and dramatist. 1734. Sir James Thornhill, Dorsetshire; painter. George Ernest Stahl, Germany; an eminent chymist. 1735. Dr. John Arbuthnot, Mearns-shire; medicine, miscellanies. Viscount Lansdowne, poems and miscellanies. William Derham, Worcestershire; theology. 1736. George Sale, Kent; historian and orientalist. John Leclerc, Geneva; criticism and miscellanies. 1737. Elizabeth Rowe, Somersetshire; devotional pieces and miscellanies. Edward Lovibond, Middlesex; poems. 1738. Herman Boerhaave, Holland; medicine. 1739. Charles Jervas, Ireland; a painter. George Lillo, London; a dramatist. Nicholas Sanderson, Yorkshire; a celebrated blind mathematician. 1740. Philip Baratier, Germany; was a prodigy of learning for his years. John Abernethy, Ireland; sermons and controversial theology. Jethro Tull, Oxfordshire; husbandry. Thomas Tickell, Cumberland; poems. Ephraim Chambers, Westmoreland; cyclopædia. 1741. John Baptist Rousseau, Paris; wrote poetry. Cardinal Polignac, France; Latin poetry. Peter Burman, Holland; classical criticism. Berard de Montfaucon, France; antiquary. 1742. Dr. Edmund Halley, London; natural philosophy, astronomy, and navigation. Rev. Dr. Richard Bentley, Yorkshire; classical learning and criticism. John Baptist Massillon, France; sermons. Nicholas Amhurst, Kent; political writer. John Frederick Norden, Denmark; a celebrated traveller. 1743. Chevalier Ramsey, Scotland; biography, miscellanies. Henry Carey, London; dramatist and musical composer. Robert Ainsworth, Lancashire; lexicographer, grammarian, and antiquary. John Baptist Duhalde, France; geography, poems. 1744. Alexander Pope, London; poetry. John Theophilus Desaguliers, France; experimental philosophy. John Anstis, Cornwall; heraldry, antiquities. 1745. Dr. Jonathan Swift, Dublin; poetry, politics, and miscellanies. 1746. Colin Maclaurin, Argyleshire; natural philosophy. Thomas Southerne, Dublin; dramatic writer. 1747. Rev. Jeremiah Seed, Cumberland; sermons. Dr. Francis Hutcheson, Ayrshire; moral philosophy. Alan René la Sage, France; novelist and dramatist. John Barbeyrac, France; law of nations, miscellanies. 1748. James Thomson, Roxburghshire; poetry and the drama. Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts, Hants; divinity, logic, philosophy, poetry. William Kent, Yorkshire; painter and landscape gardener. 1749. William Ged, Scotland; inventor of stereotype. Ambrose Philips, Leicestershire; poet, dramatist, and essayist. John Van Huysum, Holland; a celebrated painter. 1750. Rev. Dr. Conyers Middleton, Yorkshire; theology and classical biography. Aaron Hill, Westminster; poems, dramas, essays, and miscellanies. John James Burlamaqui, Geneva; law of nations. Lewis Anthony Muratori, Italy; annalist and antiquary.

1751. Dr. Philip Doddridge, London; was an eminent dissenting minister. Henry, Viscount Bolingbroke, Surrey; wrote on politics and metaphysics. Benjamin Robins, Somersetshire; an eminent mathematician. 1752. Joseph Butler, Berkshire, bishop of Durham; the Analogy of Religion. Sir Hans Sloane, Ireland; naturalist. William Whiston, Leicestershire; geology, astronomy, translation. Thomas Stackhouse; divinity, biblical commentation. William Cheselden, Leicestershire; surgery, anatomy. Charles Folard, France; tactics and fortification. 1753. George Berkeley, Kilkenny, bishop of Cloyne; theology and philosophy. Dr. James Foster, Devonshire; theology. 1754. Dr. Richard Mead, London; medicine. Henry Fielding, Somersetshire; novels and comedies. James Gibbs, Scotland; an eminent architect. Thomas Carte, Warwickshire; historian and biographer. Abraham Demoivre, France; mathematician. 1755. The Baron de Montesquieu, France; Spirit of Laws. John Lawrence Mosheim, Germany; history and theology. Langlet Dufresnoy, France; chronology. Gilbert West; poems, translations, theology. 1756. William Collins, Sussex; poetry. George Vertue, Westminster; an engraver. René Anthony Reaumur, France; natural philosophy. 1757. Fontenelle, France; philosophy and miscellanies. Edward Moore, Berkshire; poems, dramas, essays. Thomas Edwards, London; critic, commentator, and

poet. Augustin Calmet, France; history, and biblical antiquities. 1758. James Hervey, Northamptonshire; Meditations. Allan Ramsay, Scotland; poet. Jonathan Edwards, Connecticut; sermons and metaphysics. 1759. Handel, Germany; music. Kleist, Germany; poems. Maupertuis, France; natural philosophy. Joseph Ames, Norfolk; typographical antiquary. 1760. Isaac Hawkins Browne, Staffordshire; poems. 1761. Thomas Sherlock, London, bishop of London; sermons and controversial divinity. Benjamin Hoadly, Kent; bishop of Winchester; polemic theology. Samuel Richardson, Derbyshire; novels. 1762. Lady Mary Wortley Montague; Letters, Poems. Dr. James Bradley; a celebrated astronomer. Geminiani, Italy; a celebrated musical composer. Prosper Joliot de Crebillon, France; an eminent dramatist. Thomas Simson, Leicestershire; mathematician. Dr. S. Hales, Kent; vegetable physiology. 1763. William Shenstone, Shropshire; poems. John Byron, Lancashire; poems. 1764. Dr. John Leland, Lancashire; was a defender of Christianity against Deism. Charles Churchill; wrote poems. Robert Dodsley, Notts; poems, plays, and miscellanies. Robert Lloyd; poems, &c. William Hogarth, London; excelled in humorous and characteristic painting. 1765. Rev. Dr. Edward Young, Hants.; religious, moral, and tragic poetry. David Mallet, Scotland; poems, plays, &c. 1768. Rev. Laurence Sterne, Ireland; Sermons, Sentimental Journey, Tristram Shandy. Bonnel Thornton, London; miscellanies. Thomas Secker, Notts, archbishop of Canterbury; sermons, and theological works. 1770. Thomas Gray, London; poems. Dr. Mark Akenside, Northumberland; poems. Thomas Chatterton, Bristol; imitations of ancient poetry, poems, and miscellanies. George Whitfield, Gloucestershire; founder of the sect which bears his name. Dr. John Jortin, London; biography, criticism, theology.

1771. Dr. Tobias Smollet, Dunbartonshire; history and novels. 1772. Helvetius, France; metaphysics. 1773. Philip, earl of Chesterfield, London; letters, miscellanies. George, Lord Lyttleton, Worcestershire; history and poetry. Dr. John Hawkesworth; novels, voyages, miscellanies. 1774. Oliver Goldsmith, Ireland; poetry, history, and the comic drama. M. de Condamine, France; mathematician, travels. Professor Gmelin, Germany; natural history, travels. 1776. David Hume, Edinburgh; history and metaphysics. John Harrison, Yorkshire; inventor of the time-keeper. Dr. Maty, Holland; criticism. 1777. Samuel Foote, Cornwall; comedies. 1778. Linnæus, (Von Linne,) Sweden; natural history. Voltaire, France; history, the drama, miscellanies. John James Rousseau, Geneva, was an eccentric philosopher; novels and miscellanies. 1779. William Warburton, Nottinghamshire, bishop of Gloucester; wrote on theology and criticism. David Garrick, Hereford; flourished as the British Roscius; plays, prologues, &c. Dr. John Armstrong, Roxburghshire; wrote poems. Dr. Kenrick, Herts; plays, poems, criticism. Dr. Ashe; English dictionary. 1780. Sir William Blackstone, London; was a learned and elegant commentator on the laws of England. James Highmore, London; a painter. John Bell, Scotland; travels to China. 1781. Solomon Gessner, Switzerland; wrote the Death of Abel. 1782. Henry Home, lord Kames, Scotland; metaphysics, morals, laws, and criticism. M. Bernouilli, Switzerland; mathematics. 1783. Dr. William Hunter, Lanarkshire; medicine. John d'Alembert, France; philosophy and history. Leonard Euler, Germany; mathematics and miscellanies. 1784. Dr. Samuel Johnson, Staffordshire; lexicography, biography, essays, and poetry. M. Diderot, France; novels, criticism, metaphysics, and mathematics. 1785. Richard Glover, London; epic and tragic poetry. William Whitehead, Cambridge, poet-laureate; poems and plays. 1786. Dr. John Jebb, London, physician; politics, miscellanies. 1787. Dr. Robert Lowth, Hants; bishop of London; biblical criticism and grammar. Soame Jenyns, London; poems, metaphysics, and miscellanies. Edmund Law, bishop of Carlisle; Lancashire; theology and metaphysics. 1788. Thomas Gainsborough, Suffolk; was a distinguished painter. George Louis le Clerc, Count de Buffon, France; wrote on natural history. 1789. Mrs. Frances Brooke; novels and plays. 1790. Dr. William Cullen, Lanarkshire; medicine. Dr. Benjamin Franklin, Boston, New England; natural philosophy and miscellanies. Adam Smith, Fifeshire; moral and political philosophy. 1790, 1800. Thomas and Dr. Joseph Warton, Hants; poetry, criticism, and miscellanies. 1791. Rev. John Wesley, Lincolnshire; was the founder of the sect of Methodists. Mrs. Macaulay Graham, Kent; history and politics. Mozart, Germany; a musician and composer. 1792. Sir Joshua Reynolds, Devonshire; wrote discourses on the art of painting, which he so ably cultivated. 1793. Dr. William Robertson, Edinburgh; history. Anthony Frederic Busching, Germany; geography. 1794. Edward Gibbon, Surrey; history. Lavoisier, Paris; philosophical chymistry. Sir William Jones, London; law, oriental learning, and miscellanies. Dr. William Russell, Scotland; history. George Colman, senior, Florence; dramatist and translator. Cardinal Bernis, France; poet. James Bentham, Cambridgeshire; antiquities. James Bruce, Scotland; travels. 1795. Claude Bierkander, Sweden; natural history. James Boswell, Scotland; biography and miscellanies. William Romaine, Durham; sermons and theology. Dr. Andrew Kippis, Nottingham; biography, history, and theology. M. Barthelemi, France; polite literature and antiquities. John George Zimmerman, Germany; morals. 1796. Robert Burns, Ayrshire; poems. James Macpherson, Scotland; history and translation. Thomas Reid, Scotland; an eminent metaphysician. 1797. Edmund Burke, Dublin; politics

and modern history. Mrs. Godwin, London; miscellaneous writer. Dr. Richard Farmer, Leicestershire; critic and antiquary. William Mason, Yorkshire; poet and dramatist. Horace Walpole, earl of Orford; romance, poetry, and antiquities. 1798. Marmontel, France; moral tales and miscellanies. 1799. Dr. Joseph Black, Bourdeaux; professor of medicine at Edinburgh; chymistry and philosophy. Spallanzani, Italy; experimental philosophy and natural history. John Bacon, Surrey; excelled in sculpture. 1800. William Cowper, Herts; wrote poems. Rev. Dr. Hugh Blair, Edinburgh; sermons. James Macknight, theology.

1801. Cimarosa, Italy; excelled in musical composition. 1802. Dr. Erasmus Darwin, Nottinghamshire; wrote botanic and philosophical poetry, and works on animal and vegetable physiology. 1803. Dr. James Beattie, Kincardineshire; poetry and moral philosophy. Klopstock, Germany; was author of the Messiah. 1804. Dr. Joseph Priestly, Yorkshire; wrote on natural philosophy, theology, politics, and miscellanies. George Morland, London; was an admirable painter of rural scenes and ordinary life. 1805. Rev. Dr. William Paley, Northamptonshire; wrote upon theology and moral philosophy. Frederic Schiller, Germany; tragedies, history, and miscellanies. 1806. Elizabeth Carter, Kent; poems, and a translation of Epictetus. 1808. Richard Hurd, Staffordshire; bishop of Worcester; theological works, critical dissertations, moral and political dialogues. Richard Porson, Norfolk; Greek professor at Cambridge; classical erudition and criticism. 1809. Anna Seward, Staffordshire; poems and letters. 1810. French Laurence, statesman, poet, historian, editor of the Rolliad, &c. &c.

1811. Richard Cumberland, Cambridge; dramatic pieces, essays, and epic poetry. 1815. Dr. John Coakley Lettsom, West Indies, the philanthropist; published medical and miscellaneous tracts. 1816. Richard Watson, Westmoreland; bishop of Llandaff; wrote on theology and chymistry. Richard Brinsley Sheridan, Ireland; dramatic pieces. 1817. Madame de Stael, Paris; politics and miscellanies. 1819. John Wolcot, (called Peter Pindar,) Devonshire; satirical and humorous poetry. Augustus von Kotzebue, Germany; dramatic pieces, politics, and miscellanies. James Watt, Scotland; flourished as an engineer, and improver of the steam engine.

1822. Berthollet, Savoy; was a philosophical chymist. William Herschel, Germany; shone as an astronomer. Antonio Canova, Italy; was a great sculptor. 1823. Anne Radcliffe, England; a romance-writer. Thomas, Lord Erskine, Scotland; an orator. Robert Bloomfield, Suffolk; a self-taught poet. Joseph Nollekens, London; a sculptor. 1824. George, Lord Byron, London; a great poet. 1825. Dr. Samuel Parr, Middlesex; an eminent divine and a celebrated scholar. 1826. Karamsin, Russia; a distinguished historian and poet. David, France; a celebrated painter. Talma, France; an admired performer in the tragic drama. Mr. Adams and Mr. Jefferson, ex-presidents of the United States. William Gifford; poet, translator, and critic. Carl Von Weber; celebrated musical composer. John Flaxman; an eminent sculptor. 1827. Volta, Italy; an enlightened cultivator of natural philosophy. George Canning, England; statesman, orator, essayist, and poet. William Mitford, England; historian. Marquis de la Place, France; mathematician. Ugo Foscolo, Italy; poet, essayist, &c. Pestalozzi, Switzerland; author of a new system of education. 1828. Ann Seymour Damer, England; amateur sculptress. Sir William Congreve; inventor of the military rocket. Dugald Stewart, Scotland; metaphysician and moral philosopher. William Shield, England; musical composer. 1829. Fred. Von Schlegel, Germany; miscellaneous writer. John Reeves, London; law, politics, and biblical criticism. James Hamilton, England; inventor of a system of teaching languages. Sir Humphrey Davy, England; celebrated for his chymical discoveries. 1830. Richard Chenevix, England; chymist, dramatist, and miscellaneous writer. William Huskisson, England; political economist. William Hazlitt; political and miscellaneous writer. Sir Thomas Lawrence; an eminent painter, president of the Royal Academy. Simon Bolivar; the liberator of Colombia. Benjamin Constant, Paris; political and miscellaneous writer. Countess de Genlis, Paris; miscellaneous writer.

1831. Sarah Siddons, England; the celebrated tragic actress. Robert Hall, England; an eminent dissenting preacher and writer. Henry Mackenzie, Scotland; novels, poems, and miscellanies. William Roscoe, England; biographer and poet. James Northcote, England; historical and portrait painter. M. Niebuhr, Germany; an eminent historian. 1832. Dr. Bell, England; introducer of the Madras educational system. Sir James Macintosh, England; statesman, political and historical writer. M. Casimir Perier, Paris; prime minister, who took a prominent part in overthrowing Charles X. Baron Cuvier, Paris; celebrated for his labours in natural history. Rev. Geo. Crabbe, England; poet. Jeremy Bentham, England; eminent as a jurist and law reformer. Sir Walter Scott, Scotland; distinguished as a poet, novelist, historian, biographer, and miscellaneous writer. Goethe, Germany; poet, dramatist, novelist, and philosopher. Mario Clementi, Italy; celebrated musical composer. Antonio Scarpa, Italy; an eminent anatomist. Sir John Leslie, Scotland; experimental philosophy. 1833. The Rev. Rowland Hill, England; a popular dissenting preacher. John O'Keefe, Ireland; dramatic writer. Edmund Kean, England; a celebrated tragedian. William Wilberforce, England; statesman and theological writer; memorable for his exertions against the slave trade. Mrs. Hannah More,

; poetry, drama, moral and religious
William Sotheby, England; poems,
ınd poetical translations. 1834. Aloys
ɛr, Germany; the inventor of litho-
Thomas Stothard, England; an emi-
ıter. S. T. Coleridge, England; poet,
t, and metaphysician. Thomas Telford,
; one of the most eminent civil engi-
The Rev. T. R. Malthus, England;
economy. Dr. R. Morrison, Scotland;
ɾuished Chinese scholar. Charles
ıgland; poems and essays. Dr. Carey,
; missionary and oriental scholar.
(eath, England; engraver. Henry
ıgland; enamel painter. 1835. T. J.
England; poems, satires, and criti-
Villiam Cobbett, England; political
Felicia Hemans, England; poems.
ros, France; an eminent historical
John Nash, England; architect. Dr.
, Ireland; bishop of Cloyne; mathe-
and astronomer. Sir John Sinclair,
; politics, statistics, and agriculture.
e Brun, France; novelist. James
cotland; poems and novels. Carl
·öttiger, Germany; antiquary. 1836.
Godwin, England; novelist and mis-
ɜ writer. Abbé Sieyes, France; poli-
d political economist. James Mill,
; historian and political economist.
adison, America; ex-president. Ar-
rrel, France; politics, history, and
ies. George Colman, the younger,
dramatist and poet. Carl Vernet,
ıistorical and animal painter. 1837.
rancis Gerard, France; historical
Sir John Soane, England; architect.
ı Latham, England; ornithologist.
ɨtta, Italy; an eminent historian.
)aniell, England; landscape painter.
'esley, England; musical composer.
ibert, France; medicine and physio-
38. Silvestre de Sacy, France; a cele-
entalist. F. L. Von Haller, Switzer-
orian. Prince de Talleyrand, France;
statesman and diplomatist. H. Lancaster, England; founder of Lancasterian schools. 1839. Sir W. Beechy, England; portrait painter. Charles Rossi, R. A., England; sculptor. Professor Van Kampen, Holland; history and literature. Michael Jerome Lalande, France; astronomer. John Galt, Scotland; novels, biography, &c. W. Wilkins, R. A., England; architect. Joseph Michaud, France; historian. William Hilton, R. A., England; historical painter. 1840. Madame d'Arblay, (Miss Burney,) England; novelist. James Smith, England; poet and novelist. Sir Jeffry Wyatville, England; architect. W. H. M. Olbers, Germany; astronomer. Alexander Nasmyth, Scotland; landscape painter. Paganini; an unequalled violinist. P. J. Redouté, France; botanist and artist. Lucien Bonaparte, France; poet, &c. Professor Muller, Germany; historian and archæologist.

1841. P. A. Granberg, Sweden; history, &c. Sir Astley Cooper, England; surgery. Count Forbin, France; antiquities and travels. Count Niemcewiez, Poland; poet, &c. Sir David Wilkie, Scotland; historical painter. Theodore Edward Hook; dramas, novels, and miscellanies. Augustin P. de Candolle, France; botanist. Sir Francis Chantrey, England; sculptor. Dr. G. Birkbeck, England; founder of Mechanics' Institutes. Heinrich Von Dannecker, Germany; sculptor. 1842. Rev. H. Maturin, Ireland; poet, dramatist, and novelist. Count Pozzo de Borgo, Italian; diplomatist. Professor Heeren, Germany; history and antiquities. Luigi Cherubini, Italy; celebrated musical composer. Sir Robert Ker Porter, England; painter, traveller, &c. T. H. Lister, England; novels and biography. Dr. Thomas Arnold, England; historian. S. C. L. Sismonde de Sismondi; an eminent historian. John Banim, Ireland; novelist. Marquis Wellesley, Ireland; statesman. Dr. Channing, America; theology and miscellaneous literature. Allan Cunningham, Scotland; poems, tales, and fine arts.

INDEX.

Aberdeen . 242
Abo . . 125
Abyssinia . 637
Acapulco . 738
Achem . . 622
Acre . . 495
Adelaide . 778
Aden . . 509
Aderabach . 335
Adowa . . 639
Ægina . . 474
Ætna . . 435
Afghanistan . 529
Africa . . 625
Agra . . 605
Ahmedabad . 605
Aiguille de Duc . 436
Aix . . . 281
Aix la Chapelle . 376
Ajaccio . . 450
Ajan . . 666
Alabama . . 720
Albania . . 463
Albany . . 714
Alcobaca . . 427
Alderney . . 234
Aleppo . . 491
Aleutian Isles . 573
Alexandria . 633
Alexandretta . 491
Algiers . . 629
Alhambra . . 410
Allahabad . . 604
Alleghany . . 706
Almaden . . 397
Alps . . . 385
Altona . . 88
Amazon's River . 750
Amboyna . . 621
Amerapoora . 616
America, Central . 742
America, North . 685
America, South . 745
America, British . 685
America, Russian . 728
America, N. W. coast of . 726
America, aborigines of 676
Amiens . . 281
Amlwch . . 231
Amsterdam . . 327
Amu . . . 573
Amur . . . 590
Ana Capri . . 450
Anapa . . 561
Ancona . . 447
Andamans . . 624
Andes . . 680
Andorra . . 423
Angelos Pruebla de los 736
Angers . . 281
Anglesea . . 231
Anglicans . . 62
Angola . . 658
Angora . . 493
Augustura . . 748
Anguilla . . 732
Annapolis . 700, 716
Annobon . . 668
Antigua . . 732
Antiparos . 471, 475
Antipaxo . . 467
Antivari . . 464
Antwerp . . 317
Apalachian Chain . 706
Apennines . . 434
Arabia . . 506
Aracan . . 615
Aral . . . 573
Aranjuez . . 401
Archangel . . 125
Archangel, New . 729
Archipelago . 470
Archipelago, Low . 788
Archipelago, N. Georgian . 782
Arctic Polar Sea . 689
Ardebil . . 521
Argos . . 474
Argostoli . . 487
Arkansas . . 722
Armenia . . 490
Armenian Church . 59
Arminians . . 62
Arnsberg . . 377
Arran . . 252
Arras . . 282
Ascension . . 668
Ashantee . . 653
Asia . . . 487
Asphaltites . 490
Assam . . 614
Assumption . 760
Astrakhan . 571
Astronomy . . 1
Athens . . 472
Athos . . 458
Atlas . . 625
Auckland . 782
Augsburg . 379
Augusta . . 720
Augustowo . 139
Aurangabad . 606
Austen, San F., de 741
Austral Isles . 788
Australasia . 773
Australia . . 773
Australia, South . 777
Australia, Western 778
Australia, North . 778
Australind . 778
Ava . . . 615
Avignon . . 281
Axum . . 638
Ayuthia . . 617
Azores . . 670

Baalbec . . 495
Babylon . . 495
Bachian . . 621
Badajoz . . 405
Baden . . 381
Baffin's Bay . 683
Bagdad . . 492
Bahamas . . 734
Bahia . . 764
Bahrein . . 509
Baikal . . 568
Baku . . 523
Balcash . . 573
Balearic Isles . 405
Balfroosh . . 521
Balk . . . 574
Baltimore . 716
Bambarra . 642
Bamberg . . 379
Bamian . . 535
Banca . . 623
Banda . . 621
Bangkok . . 617
Banialuka . . 462
Banjar Massin . 622
Bantam . . 623
Baptists . . 62
Barbadoes . . 731
Barbary States . 627
Barbuda . . 732
Barca . . 629
Barcelona . 403, 748
Barmen . . 378
Bartholomew, St. 771
Basle, or Basil . 389
Basseterre . 732
Bassora . . 492
Bastia . . 450
Batalha . . 427
Batavia . . 623
Batchian . . 621
Bath . . . 157
Battas . . 622
Bavaria . . 378
Bayonne . . 279
Behring's Strait . 41
Beirout . . 494
Belem . . 426
Belfast . . 262
Belgium . . 316
Belgrade . . 463
Belize . . 744
Beloochistan . 544
Belur Tag . . 573
Benares . . 604
Bencoolen . 623
Bengal . . 603
Benguela . . 658
Benin . . 657
Berbice . . 768
Berlin . . 373
Bermudas . . 701
Berne . . 389
Besancon . . 281
Bhatgong . . 607
Bhopal . . 598
Bielefeld . . 377
Bilbao . . 404
Biledulgerid . 652
Birmah . . 615
Birmingham . 158
Bissago Isles . 653
Bitolia . . 462
Bogota S. Fe, de 747
Bohemia . . 357
Bokhara . . 574
Bolabola . . 788
Bolcheretsk . 571
Bolivia . . 755
Bologna . . 446
Bombay . . 605
Bondoo . . 641
Bona . . . 377
Borneo . . 623
Borneo . . 643
Boshuanas . 664
Bosna Serai . 462
Bosnia . . 462
Bosphorus . 458
Boston . . 711
Botocudas . 765
Boulmer . . 571
Boulogne . . 280
Bourbon Isle . 667
Bourdeaux . 279
Bourges . . 281
Bousaa . . 643
Brahmavium . 67
Bramins . . 68
Brandenburg . 375
Brazil . . 763
Brecknock . . 23
Bremen . . 384
Breslau . . 376
Brest . . 280
Bridgetown . 732
Brieg . . 376
Brindisi . . 448
Bristol . . 157
Britain, Great . 145
Britain, New . 685, 788
Brixen . . 355
Brocken . . 336
Brody . . 360
Bromberg . 374
Brunn . . 356
Brunswick . 383
Brunswick, New . 699
Brussels . . 317
Buccari . . 355
Bucharest . 465
Buckwine . 359
Buda . . 363
Buddhism . . 68
Buenos Ayres . 760
Bulam . . 653
Bulgari . . 471
Burgos . . 405
Burrampooter . 593, 598
Bursa . . 490, 493
Bute . . . 252

Cabrera . . 406
Cabul . . 531
Cachao . . 618
Cadiz . . 403
Caen . . 281
Caermarthen . 231
Caffa . . 126
Caffraria . . 654
Cagliari . . 449
Cairo . . 634
Calabar . . 657
Calcutta . . 604
Caledonia, New . 792
Calicut . . 606
California . 734, 736
Calvinism . . 61
Cambodia . . 618
Cambridge, U. S. . 711
Canada . . 680
Canals.—
Belgium . . 316
China . . 576
Denmark . . 87
England . . 147
France . . 273
Ireland . . 258
Italy . . 434
Netherlands . 325
Peru . . 751
Scotland . . 257
Spain . . 397
Sweden . . 98
Russia . . 116
United States . 708
Wales . . 229
Canara . . 606
Canarien . . 669
Candahar . . 532
Candia . . 466
Canaan . . 648
Canton . . 589

Cape Breton . 701
Cape Francois . 770
Cape Town . 661
Cape Verd Isles . 669
Capo d'Istria . 355
Capri . 450
Caracas . 747
Caramania . 493
Cardiff . 231
Cardigan . 231
Cardona . 396
Caribbees . 730
Carinthia . 354
Carisbroke . 233
Carlo Pago . 369
Carlsruhe . 382
Carlscrona . 100
Carnac . 636
Carnatic . 606
Carniola . 354
Carolina, North . 717
Carolina, South . 718
Caroline Isles . 785
Carpentaria . 776
Carron . 942
Carthagena . 404, 747
Cashmir . 599
Caspian . 516
Cassel . 382
Castel Nuove . 369
Catania . 448
Catholic Church . 59
Cattaro . 370
Caucasus . 550
Cavery . 600
Caxamarca . 751—753
Cayenne . 769
Central America . 742
Celebes . 932
Cephalonia . 487
Ceram . 621, 622
Cerigo . 487
Ceylon . 624
Chambery . 444
Champlain . 708
Chapala . 734
Charleston . 719
Charlotte Town . 701
Chemnitz . 381
Cherbourg . 280
Chile . 756
Chillambrun . 609
Chiloe . 772
Chimborazo . 680, 745
China . 575
China, Cochin . 618
Chinese Tartary . 590
Chinese Wall . 584
Christiania . 111
Christianity . 58
Christopher, St. . 732
Chronology, Table of . 799
Chuquisaca . 756
Chusan . 586
Cincinnati . 725
Circars . 607
Circassia . 549
Circles of the Globe . 7
Circles, Polar . 8
Civita Vecchia . 425
Chagenfurth . 354
Clermont-Ferrand . 291
Climates . 8
Coblentz . 378
Cochin China . 618
Coimbra . 427
Coins, Table of . 798
Col . 253
Colberg . 374
Coliseum . 439
Cologne . 377
Colombia . 745
Columbia . 716, 719
Columbo . 624
Colures . 7
Comets . 3
Commerce, rise of . 72
Como, Lake . 434
Comorro Isles . 666
Compostella . 405
Concepcion . 758
Concord . 712
Confucius, religion of . 69
Congo . 644, 657
Congregationalists . 62
Connecticut . 713
Constance . 382
Constantina . 629
Constantinople . 460
Copan . 743
Copenhagen . 87
Copernican System . 2
Coptic Church . 59
Coquimbo . 758
Cordova . 403, 760
Corea . 590
Corfu . 487
Corinth . 474
Cork . 261
Corsica . 450
Corte . 450
Corycian Cave . 471
Coumassie . 654
Cracow . 144
Crete . 466
Crimea . 125
Croatia . 368
Croix, St. . 771
Cronslot . 124
Cronstadt . 124
Cross Timber . 741
Croya . 464
Cuba . 769
Cuddalore . 606
Cumana . 748
Curacao . 771
Cusco . 752
Cyclades . 474
Cyprus . 505
Cyrenaica . 620
Cyrene . 631
Ctentochowa . 139

Dacca . 604
Dahomey . 653
Dairi . 620
Dalai Lama . 595
Dalmatia . 369
Damascus . 494
Danemora . 98
Dantzic . 374
Danube . 334
Dardanelles . 457
Darfur . 644
Darmstadt . 383
Davis' Strait . 686
Debretzin . 363
Deccan . 598
Delaware . 716
Delhi . 605
Delos . 474
Dembea . 637
Demerara . 768
Dendera . 636
Denmark . 86
Desaguadero . 756
Detroit . 725
Diarbekir . 492
Dijon . 281
Dnieper . 116
Dolsteen . 108
Dominica . 732, 788
Domingo, St. . 770
Dongola . 610
Do Sal . 669
Douglas . 234
Douro . 397
Dover . 716
Dresden . 380
Drontheim . 111
Druses . 494
Dublin . 260
Dunkirk . 280
Durham . 157, 181

Earth, as a planet . 1
Easter Island . 788
Ebro . 397
Ecclesiastical States . 466
Ecuador . 745
Edinburgh . 240
Egga . 651
Egypt . 631
Elba . 450
Elbe . 334
Elberfeld . 378
Elbing . 374
Elborus . 550
Elephanta . 610
Elias, Mount St. . 738
Ellora . 610
Elsineur . 88
Elvas . 427
Emden . 380
Enchanted Mountain . 722
England . 145
English Isles . 232
Equator . 7
Erfurt . 376
Erie . 708
Erzerum . 493
Escaura . 425
Escurial . 402
Eseneh . 636
Esquimaux . 686, 687
Essequibo . 768
Etienne, St. . 281
Etruscan Tombs . 440
Euphrates . 490
Eustatius, St. . 771
Exeter . 158

Fahlun . 98
Falkland Isles . 772
Famagasta . 506
Fayal . 671
Fayne Isles . 786
Fellatahs . 648
Fernando Po . 668
Feroe Isles . 96
Ferrara . 442
Fetishism . 57
Fez . 628
Fezzan . 641
Filabres . 396
Fingal's Cave . 253
Fiume . 355
Florence . 445
Florida . 725
Formentera . 406
Formosa . 620
Fostershohle . 235
Fox Isles . 572
France . 271
France, Isle of . 667
Francisco . 764
Frankfort on the Mayne . 384
Frankfort on the Oder . 375
Fredericsburg . 88
Freemantle . 778
Freetown . 653
Freyberg . 382, 390
Friendly Isles . 786
Fuente Ventura . 669
Fulda . 382
Funchal . 670

Galacz . 466
Galapagos . 773
Galata . 460
Galitzia . 359
Gallipoli . 462
Galveston . 741
Gambia . 652
Ganges . 599
Ganges, India beyond . 614
Ganguttra . 601
Garda Lake . 434
Garonne . 273
Gebel Nakous . 507
Geffle . 109
Geneva . 389
Genoa . 444
Geography, Astronomical . 1
Geography, Problems of . 10
Geography, Progress of . 18
Geography of Europe . 85
Geography of Asia . 487
Geography of Africa . 625
Geography of America . 671
Geography of Australasia . 773
Geography of Polynesia . 783
George Town . 768
Georgia . 569, 719
Georgia, South . 772
Georgiewsk . 569
Germany . 363
Geyser . 94
Ghauts . 599
Ghent . 318
Ghizneo . 531
Giant's Causeway . 259
Gibraltar . 405
Giessen . 383
Gilolo . 622
Girgeh . 634
Girgenti . 450
Glaciers . 436
Glasgow . 241
Glatz . 377
Globe, Terrestrial . 7
Godavery . 600
Golconda . 606
Gondar . 638
Goree . 653
Goritz . 355
Gortyna . 466
Gothenborg . 100
Government, Origin of . 71
Gradisca . 355
Gran . 364
Granada . 404
Granada, New . 745
Gratz . 354
Grawley, Law of . 3
Greece . 470
Greek Church . 58
Greenland . 683
Greenland, East . 684
Greenock . 241
Grenada Is.s . 733
Guadalazara . 736
Guadalonpe . 271
Guadiana . 398
Gualior . 605
Guam . 621
Guanaxuato . 736
Guatemala . 742, 743
Guatemala, New . 743
Guayana . 768
Guayuaquil . 747
Guernsey . 233
Guinea . 653
Guinea, New . 782
Gulf Stream . 16
Gundava . 646
Guzerat . 605

Haarlem . 328
Hague . 327
Hainan . 620
Haivali . 494
Halberstadt . 377
Halifax . 700
Halle . 378
Hamburgh . 384
Hamoon . 550

Hampshire, New . 712
Hanau . . 382
Hanover . . 340
Hanover, New . 782
Harris . . 253
Hartford . . 713
Havana . . 769
Havre de Grace 280
Hawaii . . 783
Hayti . . 770
Hebrides . . 252
Hebrides, New . 782
Hecla . . 93
Heidelberg . . 382
Heilbron . . 379
Helena, St. . . 667
Heller, St. . . 233
Heligoland . . 235
Helmund . . 530
Herat . . 532
Herculaneum . 440
Hermanstadt . 368
Hermopolis . . 474
Hertzgovina . 389
Hesse . . 382
Hildesheim . 389
Himalaya . . 599
Hindoo Kush . 573
Hindostan . . 596
Hirta . . 253
Hispaniola . . 770
Hoang-ho . . 576
Hobart Town . 779
Holland . . 324
Holland, New . 773
Honduras . . 744
Hong-Kong . . 589
Honoruru . . 784
Hougly . . 599, 604
Hope, Cape of Good . 660
Horeb . . . 507
Horizon . . . 7
Horn, Cape . . 772
Hottentots . . 662
Hour Circle . . 9
Houssa . . . 647
Huaheine . . . 788
Hudson's Bay . 686
Hudson's River . 714
Hue . . . 618
Hungary . . . 360
Huron . . . 708
Hyderabad . 605, 606
Hydra . . . 474

Iceland . . . 93
Iconozo . . . 747
Ildefonso, St. . 402
Illinois . . . 724
Illyria . . . 354
India . . . 596
India beyond Ganges 614
Indiana . . . 724
Indies, West . 729
Indus . . . 600
Innspruck . . 355
Iona . . . 253
Iowa . . . 725
Ionian Isles . 486
Immeritia . . 569
Ireland . . . 256
Ireland, New . 782
Irkutsk . . 571
Irtish . . . 567
Islamism . . 64
Islay . . . 252
Ispahan . . 520
Istria . . . 355
Italy . . . 433
Ivica . . . 406

Jagernaut . . 606
Jamaica . . 730
Janeiro, Rio . 764
Japan . . . 619
Jassy . . . 466
Java . . . 623
Jedda . . . 508
Jeddo . . . 619
Jellalabad . . 532
Jena . . . 381
Jersey . . . 233
Jersey, New . 714
Jerusalem . . 495
Joannina . . 404
Johanna . . 666
John's, St. . 701, 732
Joliba . . . 651
Jordan . . 490
Juan Fernandez . 773
Judaism . . . 57
Jumna . . . 600
Jura Isle . . 253
Jura Mountains . 273
Jutland . . . 87

Kaarta . . . 642
Kaayaga . . 642
Kabardas . . 589
Kalish . . . 138
Kalmucks . . 570
Kamstchatka . 570
Kandi . . . 624
Kano . . . 648
Kasan . . . 571
Kashgar . . 592
Kasson . . . 641
Katunga . . 649
Kenneri . . 610
Kentucky . . 723
Kerman . . 521
Khatmandu . 607
Khelat . . . 546
Kherson . . 125
Khio . . . 505
Khiva . . . 574
Khokand . . 574
Kiakta . . . 571
Kianku . . 576
Kief . . . 124
Kiel . . . 84
Kilda, St. . . 253
Kingston . . 694
Kin-Yan . . 591, 731
Kirghises . . 574
Kiren . . . 591
Kirk-Kilissa . 462
Kirkcook . . 491
Kirkwall . . 255
Kistna . . 600
Kinng-taheou . 620
Klausenburg . 368
Kobbeh . . 644
Koeslin . . 375
Konieh . . 494
Konigsberg . 375
Kordofan . . 640
Kotzebue's Sound 728
Kronstadt . . 363
Krzeszowice . 144
Kuban . . . 550
Kubo . . . 620
Kurdistan . . 493, 515
Kurile Isles . 572
Kyber . . . 531
Kyouk Phyoo . 615

Labrador . . 685
Lachsa . . 609
Ladrones . . 620, 785
Lalita Patan . 607
Lama, Grand . 595
Lambayaqne . 753
Lanceston . 780
Laos . . . 617
La Paz . . . 756
Lapland . . 112
Larissa . . 483
Lassa . . . 594
Latakoo . . 665
Latin Church . 59
Latitude and longitude 787
Laurence, St. . 690
Lausanne . . 390
Laws, Origin of 71
Laybach . . 354
Leeds . . 158
Leghorn . . 445
Leipsic . . 381
Leith . . . 241
Le Mans . . 281
Lemberg . . 360
Lena . . . 567
Leon . . . 743
Lepanto . . 473
Lewis . . . 253
Leyden . . 327
Lexington . 723
Liberia . . 657
Liege . . . 318
Lima . . . 751
Limerick . . 261
Limoges . . 281
Lintz . . . 353
Lipari . . . 451
Lisbon . . . 426
Litorale . . 353
Livadia . . 472, 473
Liverpool . . 157
Loango . . 657
Locarno, Lake . 424
Lodomeria . 359
Loggour . . 647
Loire . . . 273
Lombardo - Venetian realm . . 441
London . . 153
Londonderry . 262
Long Island . 253
Loo Choo . . 620
Loretto . . 447
L'Orient . . 290
Louis, St. . . 723
Louisiade . . 783
Louisiana . . 720
Louisville . . 723
Louvain . . 317
Lowell . . 711
Lubeck . . 384
Lublin . . . 139
Lucca . . . 446
Lucerne . . 391
Lucia, St. . . 733
Lucknow . . 604
Ludamar . . 642
Ludwigsburg . 379
Lutcherna . . 61
Luxemburg . 328
Luzon . . . 621
Lyons . . . 279

Macassar . . 622
Madagascar . 666
Madara . . 462
Madera . . 750
Madeira . . 670
Madras . . 606
Madrid . . 410
Maelstroem . 110
Maestricht . 328
Mafra . . 427
Magdalena . 746
Magdeburg . 375
Magellan, Strait 773
Maggiore, Lake . 434
Magism . . 70
Mahometanism . 64
Mahrattas . 598
Maine . . 713
Mainland . 254, 255
Maniotes . . 473
Majorca . . 405
Malabar . . 606
Malacca . . 618
Malaga . . 404
Maldives . . 624
Man, Isle of . 234
Man, varieties of . 98
Managua . . 743
Manchester . 158
Mandara . . 647
Mandshurs . 591
Manilla . . 621
Mannheim . 382
Mantua . . 443
Maps, use of . 17
Maracaybo . 746, 748
Marburg . . 382
Marienwerder . 374
Mariner's Compass . 17
Maronite Church . 59
Marquesas . 788
Marseilles . 279
Martaban . 617
Martinique . 729
Maryland . 716
Massachusetts . 711
Mani . . 474
Mauritius . 667
Mayo . . 669
Mecca . . 508
Mechlin . 317
Mecklenburg . 383
Medina . . 508
Megalonisi . 487
Melinda . . 663
Memel . . 374
Menahasa . 788
Mendoza . . 760
Mennonites . 82
Mentz . . 383
Menzaleh . 638
Mequinez . 626
Meridian . . 7
Merthyr Tydvil . 251
Meshed . . 521
Messina . . 449
Metelin . . 504
Meteora . . 483
Methodists . 64
Metz . . 391
Mexico . 734, 735
Miami . . 724
Michael, St. . 671
Michigan . 708, 725
Milan . . 441
Miles, various . 7
Military Government 369
Milo . . . 479
Mindano . . 621
Minden . . 377
Mingrelia . . 569
Minorca . . 405
Miramichi . 709
Mississippi . 721
Missolonghi . 473, 483
Missouri . . 730, 725
Mistra . . 474
Mobile . . 730
Mocha . . 508
Modena . . 445
Modon . . 473
Mogul Empire . 597
Moldavia . . 465
Moluccas . . 621
Mombasa . . 666
Monastir . . 462
Mongol Tribes . 591
Monomotapa . 665
Monophysite Church 59
Mons . . . 318
Mosquito shore . 744
Montauban . 280
Mont Blanc . 426
Montenegro . 309
Monterey . . 738
Montevideo . 760
Montpellier . 281, 718
Montreal . . 694

Montserrat . 396, 732
Moorshedabad . . 604
Moravia . . 357
Moravian Brethers . 62
Morea . . 473
Morlachia . . 369
Morocco . . 628
Moscow . . 124
Mosul . . 492
Moukden . . 591
Mouna Roa . . 783
Mountains, Rocky . 726
Mourzouk . . 641
Mowee . . 784
Mozambique . . 665
Mulhausen . . 376
Mull . . . 253
Munich . . 378
Munster . . 377
Musherd . . 521
Muscat . . 509
Mysore . . 606
Mytholog. Naturalism 69

Namur . . 318
Nancy . . 281
Nanekism . . 70
Nankin . . 580
Nantes . . 279
Napakiang . . 620
Naphtha Springs . 491
Naples . . 447
Napoli di Romania . 474
Nashville . . 722
Nassau . . 383, 734
Natal . . 665
Natchez . . 721
Nations, origin of . 71
Navarino . . 485
Navigators' Isles . 786
Nazon . . 475
Negropont . . 474
Nejaul . . 607
Nerbudda . . 600
Nestorian Church . 56
Netherlands . . 324
Neufchatel . . 390
Nevis . . 732
Newfoundland . . 701
New Granada . . 745
Newhaven . . 713
Newport . 233, 713
Niagara . . 692
Nicaragua . . 742
Nicobar Isles . . 624
Niger . 642, 651
Nikolaef . . 125
Nikosia . . 506
Nile . . 625, 632
Ningoota . . 791
Nio . . . 475
Nipon . . 619
Nismes . . 281
Nordhausen . . 376
Norfolk Island . . 780
Norfolk, U. S. . 713
Norkoping . . 100
Norway . . 107
Norwich . . 153
Nottingham . . 158
Noukahiva . . 788
Nova Scotia . . 699
Novgorod, Great . 124
Novgorod, Nischne . 125
Nubia . . 640

Oahu . . 784
Oases . . 633
Obi . . 567
Obituary, General . 812
Odessa . . 125
Eta . . 470
Ofen . . 363
Offenbach . . 383
Ohio . . 724
Okotsk . . 571
Oldenburg . . 383
Olinda . . 765
Olmutz . . 358
Ontario . . 708
Oporto . . 427
Orenburg . . 571
Orinoco . . 746
Oparo . . 788
Orissa . . 606
Orkney Isles . 254
Orleans . . 281
Orleans, New . 721
Oropessa . . 756
Osages . . 723
Osteud . . 318
Ostiaka . . 570
Otaha . . 788
Otaheite . . 787
Otavalo . . 747
Ottoschatz . . 369
Oufa . . 571
Ougein . . 605
Ovahs . . 667
Owhyhee . . 783
Oxford and Cambridge Universities . 180

Paderborn . . 377
Padua . . 443
Palenque . . 739
Palermo . . 449
Palma . . 405
Palmyra . . 496
Palte . . 593
Pampas . . 759
Panama . . 745
Panjab . . 600
Papal States . . 446
Papua . . 792
Para . . 765
Paraguay . 759, 760
Paramaribo . . 768
Paramatta . . 777
Parana . . 759
Paris . . 277
Parma . . 445
Paros . . 475
Pasco . . 750
Passau . . 378
Patagonia . . 762
Patino . . 505
Patmos . . 505
Patna . . 604
Patras . . 474
Paxo . . 487
Paxo Anti . . 487
Pegu . . 615
Pekin . . 579
Pelew Isles . . 788
Pennsylvania . . 715
Pensacola . . 726
Pernambuco . . 765
Persepolis . . 524
Persia . . 514
Persia, Independent . 529
Perth . . 242, 778
Peru . . . 750
Peshawur . . 532
Pesth . . 363
Petersburg . . 123
Peterwardein . . 368
Petra . . 509
Pewters . . 386
Philadelphia . . 715
Philippine Islands . 621
Philippine Islands, New . . 785
Phillippopoli . . 462
Pierre, St . . 771
Pillau . . 373
Pindarees . . 598
Pindus . . 470
Pireus . . 473
Pitcairn's Isle . . 788
Pittsburgh . . 715
Planetary System . 2
Plata, la, River . 759
Plata, la, States . 759
Plymouth, U. S. . 711
Plymouth Breakwater 159
Po . . . 434
Poglizsa . . 389
Poitiers . . 282
Pola . . 355
Poland . . 135
Polynesia . . 783
Pomerania . . 374
Pomona . . 254
Pondichery . . 606
Poonah . . 606
Popayan . . 747
Poros . . 474
Port Essington . 778
Port Glasgow . 243
Port Lincoln . 775
Port Louis . 667
Port Mahon . 406
Port Philip . 777
Port Royal . 731
Portland . . 712
Porto Ferrajo . 451
Porto Leone . 473
Porto Rico . 769
Porto Santo . 670
Portsmouth, U. S. 712
Portugal . . 423
Posen . . 374
Potosi . . 756
Potowmac . 717
Potzdam . . 375
Po-Yang . . 576
Prague . . 357
Presburg . . 363
Prince's Island . 668
Edward's Island . 701
Providence . 713, 734
Prusa . . 493
Prussia Proper . 373
Prussia, Rhenish . 377
Prussian Monarchy 370
Prussian Saxony . 378
Putala . . 594
Pyramids, the . 635
Pyrenees . . 396

Quadrant of Altitude . 9
Quakers . . 62
Quebec . . 694
Quedlenburg . 376
Quentin, St. . 282
Quetzeltenango . 743
Quito . . 747
Quorra . . 651

Rabba . . 651
Ragusa . . 370
Rakosfeld . 365
Raleigh . . 718
Ramsay . . 234
Rangoon . . 616
Ratisbon . . 379
Ravenna . . 447
Red River colony . 696
Reggio . . 445, 448
Reims . . 281
Religions . . 57
Rennes . . 281
Reshut . . 521
Reykievik . . 95
Rhine . . 385
Rhode Island . 713
Rhodes . . 505
Rhone . . 373
Richmond, U. S. 717
Riga . . 125
Rio Janeiro . 764
Rochefort . 279
Rochelle . . 279
Rocky Mountains . 726
Rodosto . . 462
Rome . . 446
Ronaldsha, South . 235
Roraas . . 108
Rosetta . . 634
Rostock . . 383
Rotterdam . 327
Rouen . . 280
Rugen . . 374
Russia, American . 728
Russia, Asiatic . 567
Russia, European . 116

Sabæism . . 57
Sackatoo . . 648
Said . . 494
Saigon . . 618
Sahara . . 652
Salamanca . 404
Salamis . . 474
Saleo . . 638
Salona . . 369
Salonica . . 462
Saltzburg . . 353
Samarkand . 574
Samos . . 505
Samothraki . 466
Sanaa . . 508
Sanda . . 255
Sandwich Islands . 783
Sandwich Land . 773
San Juan . . 769
San Marino . 446
San Paulo . . 765
San Salvador, 734, 743, 764
Sanpoo . . 593
Santa Cruz . 669
Santa Fe . 735, 747
Santa Martha . 750
Santa Maura . 487
Santiago . . 758
Santiago Isle . 669
Santorin . . 475
Saragossa . . 404
Sarand' Anli . 471
Sardinia . . 444
Sardis . . 494
Sark . . . 234
Sasarri . . 449
Savannah . . 720
Savannah e Mar . 731
Savoy . . 444
Saxe Altenburg . 381
Saxe Coburg . 381
Saxe Meiningen . 381
Saxe Weimar . 381
Saxony . . 380
Saxony, Prussian . 375
Scanderoon . 491
Schaffhausen . 387
Scheldt . . 316
Schemnitz . 361
Schumla . . 462
Schweidnitz . 376
Schwerin . . 383
Scilly Isles . 234
Scio . . . 504
Scotia, Nova . 699
Scotland . . 238
Scotland, Isles of . 252
Scutari . . 461, 464
Sebenico . . 369
Segna . . 369
Sego . . . 642
Seiks . . 599
Seine . . 273
Selenga . . 567
Semandria . 466
Senegal . . 652
Senegambia . 652
Senaar . . 640
Seres . . 462
Serinagut . . 599
Seringapatam . . 606

Saringham . 606, 609
Servia . . 464
Seville . . 403
Shamanism . 598
Sheffield . 159
Shetland Isles . 285
Shetland, New . 772
Shiraz . . 520
Shonaas . . 647
Shuster . . 521
Shyites . . 65
Siam . . 617
Siberia . . 571
Siberia, New . 573
Sicily . . 448
Sienna . . 445
Sierra Leone . 652
Silesia . . 376
Sinai . . 507
Siucapore . 618
Sinde . . 605
Sintism . . 70
Sinat . . 634
Skaptar . . 93
Skye . . 253
Skyros . . 474
Slavonia . . 368
Slawick . . 88
Smolensko . 125
Smyrna . . 493
Society, origin of . 71
Society Isles . 787
Socotra . . 666
Sofala . . 665
Solar System . 2
Solenre . . 390
Solomon Isles . 792
Solymaneah . 493
Sophia . . 462
Sorrento . . 448
Soudan . . 641
South Ronaldsha . 255
Spa . . . 318
Spain . . 395
Spalatro . . 369
Spanish Town . 731
Spetzia . . 474
Sphakiots . . 466
Sphere, Armillary . 6
Spice Islands . 692
Spitzbergen . 684
Sporades . . 474
Staffa . . 273
Stalimene . . 466
Stampalia . . 475
Stanco . . 505
Stars, Fixed . 4
States, N. A. U. . 702
Stettin . . 374
Stockholm . . 99
Stornaway . . 253
Stralsund . . 374
Strasburgh . 280
Stromboli . . 451
Stuttgart . . 379
Styria . . 353
Sujuk Kaleh . 561
Sumatra . . 622
Sunda Isles . 622
Sunnites . . 65
Superior, Lake . 708
Surat . . 605
Surinam . . 768
Swansea . . 231
Swedenborgians . 63
Switzerland . 385
Sydney . 701, 777
Sympheropol . 126
Syra . . 474
Syracuse . 449
Syrdaria . . 573

Table, Geographical . 787
Table of Coins . 798
Table, Chronological 799
Tabriz . . 521
Taimor . . 496
Tagus . . 424
Tajura . . 628
Takhtalu . 491
Tangier . . 628
Tanna . . 782
Taranto . . 448
Tarquinia . 440
Tartary, Chinese . 590
Tartary, Independent 573
Tashkend . 574
Tasmania . 779
Tassisudon . 594
Tatta . . 605
Taurida . . 125
Taurid . . 645
Tchadda . 651
Tefis . . 569
Teheran . 520
Temeswar . 364
Teneriffe . 669
Tennessee . 721
Tequendama . 746
Terceira . . 671
Ternate . . 691
Terni . . 436
Teshoo Loombo . 594
Texas . . 740
Tezcuco . . 734
Thames . . 147
Theaki . . 487
Thebes . . 636
Thessaly . . 462
Thibet . . 593
Thomas, St. 668, 771
Tibboos . . 645
Tides and Currents . 16
Tierra del Fuego . 772
Timbuctoo . 643
Tinian . . 621
Tinto, Rio . 297
Tirey . . 253
Titicara . 750, 756
Tivoli . . 436
Tobago . . 733
Tobolsk . . 571
Toledo . . 404
Tomsk . . 571
Tonga . . 786
Tong-ting . 576
Tongusians . 570
Tonquin . . 618
Toronto . . 694
Tortola . . 733
Toulon . . 279
Toulouse . 280
Tourfan . . 592
Tours . . 281
Transylvania . 367
Trawick . . 464
Trent . . 355
Treston . . 715
Treves . . 378
Trieste . . 385
Trikala . . 462
Trinidad . . 733
Trinitarians . 60
Tripoli . . 629
Tripolizza . 474
Trois Rivieres . 694
Trolhaetta . 98
Trophonius . 471
Tropics . . 7
Troyes . . 281
Trujillo . . 753
Tsiampa . . 618
Tuzarka . . 641
Tubingen . 379
Tula . . 125
Tunis . . 629
Turin . . 445
Turkestan . 571
Turkey, Asiatic . 480
Turkey, European . 457
Tuscany . . 445
Tyre . . . 495
Tyria . . 494
Tyrol . . 355

Ufa . . . 571
Ulietea . . 788
Unitarians . 60
Universe, System of . 1
Unst . . 255
Upsal . . 100
Uruguay . 759
Urumeah . 516
Usbecks . 574
Utrecht . 327

Valdivia . 758
Valencia . 404
Valetta . . 451
Valparaiso . 758
Van . . . 490
Van Diemen's Land 779
Vanikoro . 782
Varina . . 748
Varna . . 462
Venessela . 675
Vera Cruz . 736
Verd, Cape, Isles . 669
Vermont . 713
Verona . . 443
Versailles . 273
Vesuvius . 434
Vicenza . 443
Victoria . 708
Victoria Land . 772
Vienna . . 352
Villach . . 354
Vincent, St . 733
Virgin Isles . 733
Virginia . . 717
Visiapoor . . 606
Vistula . . 136
Volga . . 116
Vosges . . 273

Wahabees, or Waha-bites . 66, 518
Wales . . 224
Wales, New South . 775
Warasdin . 369
Warsaw . . 138
Washington . 716
Waterford . 261
Watland . . 744
Weimar . . 381
Wellington . 709
Western Islands . 252
Western Territory . 726
West Indies . 729
Westminster . 151
Wieliczka . 136
Wiesbaden . 383
Wight . . 229
Wilhelmshohe . 382
Wilmington . 716
Winds . . 15
Wisconsin . 725
Wismar . . 383
Wittenberg . 375
Woahoo . . 784
Wolfenbuttle . 383
Worms . . 395
Wrexham . 231
Wurtzburg . 379

Xarayes . . 759

Yakutzk . . 571
Yang-tsi-kiang . 576
Yanar . . 491
Yanina . . 464
Yarkand . . 592
Yassy . . 466
Yariba . . 649
Yeddo . . 619
Yell . . . 255
Yellow River . 576
Yenisei . . 567
Yeso . . . 619
Yezd . . . 521
Yesidis . . 66
York . . . 197
York, New . 714
York Town . . 694

Zagoshi . . 651
Zaire . . 644
Zamoos . . 139
Zangusabar . 665
Zante . . 467
Zara . . 369
Zea . . . 475
Zealand, New . 780
Zemmem . . 508
Zezes . . . 8
Zuinglians . 61
Zumpango . . 734
Zurich . . 350
Zurrah . . 530
Zwornik . . 462

ERRATUM.

In the Geography, the head-line, "The Prussian Monarchy," should not extend beyond page 377; the states noticed from page 378 to 384 being independent.

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